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VOL. II

BEAUGENCY TO CATARACT



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Beaugency, an ancient town of France, in the department of Loiret, on the right bank of the Loire, 16 miles SW. of Orleans by rail. It was successively in the hands of the Huns, Saxons, Normans, and English; and it sustained great damage during the religious

wars of the 16th century. Here the French army under General Chanzy was severely defeated in a series of desperate struggles, December 7-10, 1870, by the German force under the Grand-duke of Mecklenburg. Pop. 3860.

Beauharnais, ALEXANDRE, VICOMTE DE, born in 1760 of an ancient French family in the island of Martinique; served, under Rochambeau, in the American War of Independence; and in 1789 eagerly embraced the French Revolution, voting, on the night of 4th August, for the abolition of privileges and the political equality of all citizens. As a reward for his constancy to the cause of liberty, he was named Secretary of the National Assembly and subsequently member of the military committee, but largely forfeited his popularity by venturing to praise and defend the conduct of General Bouillé in his sanguinary suppression of the insurrection at Nancy. The flippant manner in which he received the news of the flight of Louis XVI. was eminently characteristic of the man. He merely rose and said to the Assembly: 'Gentlemen, the king has just gone off; let us pass to the order of the day.' In 1793 he declined the office of Minister of War, and tendered his resignation as general of the Army of the Rhine, because it had been determined to exclude the nobility from the service. During the Reign of Terror, his enemies revived the report that he had participated in the surrender of Mainz, because he had remained idle with his troops for 15 days. In consequence of this accusation, he was brought to Paris, tried and sentenced to death by the revolutionary tribunal. He submitted to his fate with firmness,

and died on the scaffold, July 23, 1794. In 1779 he had married Josephine, afterwards wife of the great Napoleon, and his daughter Hortense in 1802 married Napoleon's brother Louis; so that Beauharnais was thus the grandfather of Napoleon III.

Beauharnais, EUGÈNE DE, son of the preceding, was born in 1781, and after his mother Josephine's marriage (1796) with Napoleon, accompanied him to Italy and Egypt. He rapidly rose to the highest military rank; and in 1805 was made a prince of France and viceroy of Italy. In 1806 he married the Princess Amelia Augusta of Bavaria, and not long afterwards was created Prince of Venice, and declared by Napoleon his adopted son, and heir of the kingdom of Italy. Although his political power was much limited, he conducted himself in Italy with great prudence, energy, and moderation, and throughout his life maintained an honourable and virtuous character. His military talents were great, and were displayed particularly in the Italian campaigns, in the wars against Austria, and in the retreat from Moscow, in which he divided with Ney the honour of saving the French army from total destruction. The victory of Lützen was decided by his conduct in that battle. Napoleon sent him from Dresden to Italy, which he ably defended, even after Austria had joined the coalition, and Murat had deserted the cause of the French Empire. In the Hundred Days he took no part; and in the Treaty of Fontainebleau and Congress of Vienna he was allowed to retain his possessions in the March of Ancona; and large sums were granted to him in compensation for his other Italian possessions, with which he purchased the landgraviate of Leuchtenberg and principality of Eichstätt, as Duke of Leuchtenberg taking his place among the nobles of Bavaria. He died at Munich on the 21st February 1824. See the Lives by Aubriet (1825) and Baudoucourt (1827), and his *Mémoires et Correspondance*, by Du Casse (10 vols. 1858-60).—His second son, MAX EUGÈNE JOSEPH NAPOLEON.

(1817-52), who in 1835 succeeded his elder brother as Duke of Leuchtenberg, married a daughter of the Emperor Nicholas of Russia; and since 1852 his descendants have borne the name of Romanowski, and ranked among the members of the Russian imperial family.

Beaujolais, a subdivision of the old province of Lyonnais, France, which now forms the northern part of the department of Rhône, and a small part of Loire. Its fine vineyards yield the wine called Beaujolais, of which large quantities are exported. Beaujeu was the capital. It formed at first a separate barony; came into the hands of the Bourbons in 1400, was afterwards united to the crown by Francis I., and next passed into the hands of a nephew of the Comte de Bourbon. It came by marriage to the House of Orleans in 1626, with whom it remained until the Revolution.

Beaulieu (pronounced *Beuley*), a village of Hampshire, at the head of a creek, on the verge of the New Forest, 6 miles N.E. of Lymington. A Cistercian abbey was founded here by King John in 1204.

Beaulieu (pronounced *Beuley*), a village, 10 miles W. of Inverness, with remains of a priory founded in 1232. Beaulie Firth (7 by 2 miles) is the upper basin of the Moray Firth, and receives the river Beaulie, winding 10 miles north-eastward.

Beaumarchais, DE, the name assumed by PIERRE AUGUSTIN CARON, next to Molière, the greatest French comic dramatist. Born in Paris, January 24, 1732, and the son of a watchmaker, he was brought up to his father's trade, and at twenty-one invented a new escapement for watches, which was pirated by a rival. The vigour with which he assailed him soon brought himself into notice at court, where his handsome figure and fine address quickly procured him advancement. He was engaged to teach the harp to the daughters of Louis XV., and ere long the wealthy widow of a court official married him, whereupon he assumed the title by which he was known thenceforward. Duverney, a rich banker of Paris, also befriended him substantially and helped him to some business speculations which realised a handsome fortune, ere long largely increased by another prudent marriage with a wealthy widow. His first plays, *Eugénie* (1767) and *Les Deux Amis* (1770), had but a moderate success. The death of his benefactor Duverney in 1770 now involved the versatile but hitherto unpopular upstart in a long lawsuit with his heir, Count Lablache, in the course of which he became the idol of the populace, as the supposed champion of public rights against the corrupt tribunals of the old régime. In the first trial Beaumarchais gained his cause, but an appeal to the *parlement* formed by the chancellor Maupeou was decided against him, principally through the exertions of Goezman, one of its members. Beaumarchais carried his appeal to the public by publishing his famous *Mémoires du Sieur Beaumarchais par lui-même* (1774-78; new ed. by Sainte-Beuve, 1873), a work which united the bitterest satire with the sharpest logic, and gained for him a reputation that made even Voltaire uneasy, who could not bear a rival in his own department. It fitted in with the popular feeling of dissatisfaction with existing institutions, and did much to help on the Revolution. The same brilliant satire burns in his two famous comedies, *Le Barbier de Séville, ou la Précaution Inutile* (1775), and *La Folle Journée, ou le Mariage de Figaro* (1784). The latter had a most unprecedented success, and indeed for brilliant wit it may almost be put beside the masterpieces of Molière. Figaro was a permanently enduring creation worthy to be compared with the hardly

more famous Tartuffe. These plays are still popular acting plays in France, but in England are chiefly known through the adaptation of them in the grand operas of Mozart and Rossini. The later works of Beaumarchais are hardly worthy of his genius. Further speculations added to his wealth, but his expensive edition of Voltaire's works proved a financial failure. Two later lawsuits cost him his popularity, and in the troubles of the Revolution the shifty but not over-scrupulous author lost his fortune, and, suspected of an attempt to sell arms in Holland to the enemies of the republic, had even to flee from Paris for his life. In *Mes Six Époques* (1793) he has given us an account of his sufferings during that period. In his last years he became quite deaf; he died May 19, 1799. His *Théâtre* has been edited by Saint-Marc Girardin (1861) and by De Heylli and Marescot (4 vols. 1868-72), his *Œuvres Complètes* by Moland (1874) and Fournier (1875). See his Life by Loménie (3d ed. 2 vols. 1873).

Beaumaris, a seaport and chief town of Anglesey, North Wales, is situated on the west side of the picturesque bay of Beaumaris, near the north entrance to the Menai Strait, 3 miles N. of Bangor, and 230 miles NW. of London. It has the ivy-covered remains of a castle erected by Edward I., and a free grammar-school, and is a favourite sea-bathing resort. The bay is a safe anchorage in stormy weather. Up till 1885, Beaumaris united with Amlwch, Holyhead, and Llangefni in sending one member to parliament. The trade is inconsiderable, but there are some exports of copper and other ores, slates, marble, &c. Pop. (1871) 2291; (1881) 2241.

Beaumont and Fletcher, a pair of the greater dramatists of the Elizabethan age, whose joint work is the result of the most famous of literary partnerships. Francis Beaumont was the younger of the two by about five years, but he died nine years earlier than his friend. He was the third son of Sir Francis Beaumont, one of the justices of the Common Pleas, and was born at Gracedieu, in Leicestershire, in 1584. He was admitted in 1597 as a gentleman-commoner to Broadgate Hall, Oxford (now Pembroke College), and in 1600 to the Inner Temple. Two years thereafter he published *Salmon* and *Hermaphroditus*, an expansion of Ovid's version of the story. Ere long he became an intimate friend of Ben Jonson and the other men of genius who assembled at the Mermaid Tavern, and here no doubt he met the poet with whom he was to form so memorable a friendship. John Fletcher was born at Rye in Sussex, in December 1579. His father was that Dean of Peterborough who disturbed the last moments of Mary Stuart with his ill-timed exhortation, and afterwards as Bishop of London, died either of chagrin at the queen's displeasure on account of his second marriage, or of the immoderate use of tobacco. The boy entered Bene't (now Corpus) College, Cambridge, at twelve, and found himself at seventeen in poverty on his father's death. We know nothing of him until 1607, when he produced the *Woman Hater*. The intimacy which now commenced was one of singular warmth, even for that age when friendships were of a more romantic cast than at present. The two lived in the same house, and had clothes and cloak and everything in common. Aubrey ascribes the 'dearness of friendship between them' to a 'wonderfull consimilitude of phansy.' Beaumont married in 1613, but died 6th March 1616. Fletcher wrote on until his death, in his last four years producing no less than eleven new plays. He died in August 1625.

The works of Beaumont and Fletcher comprise

in all fifty-two plays, a masque, and several minor poems; but it is difficult to allocate, in any satisfactory manner, the authorship of these. Professor Ward cannot trace any essential difference between the plays ascribed to both and those attributed to Fletcher alone, while he detects two styles in the plays written by Fletcher along with another than Beaumont. It used to be asserted that Fletcher contributed the vivacity and Beaumont the judgment, and that the latter chastened the exuberant fancies of the former. There seems, however, to be no foundation for this opinion, except the tradition and the fact that Beaumont's own verses are more severe and regular in form than those of the elder poet. Dyce thus assigns the authorship of the plays, with very varying degrees of certainty: By Beaumont and Fletcher, *Four Plays in One, Wit at Several Weapons, Thiercy and Theodoret, Maid's Tragedy, Philaster, King and no King, Cupid's Revenge, Little French Lawyer, Coxcomb, Laves of Camby, The Knight of the Burning Pestle, and The Scornful Lady*; by Beaumont alone, the *Masque*; by Fletcher and Massinger, *False One, Very Woman, The Lover's Progress*; by Fletcher and Rowley, *Queen of Corinth, Maid of the Mill, Bloody Brother*; by Fletcher and Shirley, *Noble Gentleman, Night Walker, Love's Pilgrimage*; by Fletcher and Shakespeare, *The Two Noble Kinsmen*; the remaining plays by Fletcher alone. Fletcher's collaborateur in some of the later plays is, however, entirely uncertain. His own versification has many peculiar features which make his verse distinguishable from that of his contemporary dramatists. The chief of these is the frequency of double or feminine endings, in which he may be safely said to exceed any other writer of our old drama. According to Mr Fleay, the average of such endings in the plays as to all of which he and Dyce agree in considering Fletcher the sole author is 1777; that in the plays of Massinger, the dramatist next to Fletcher most given to the practice, 1059. Again, in the plays known to have been written by Fletcher alone, rhyme is used very sparingly, and prose is eschewed altogether. Professor Ward observes that the double-ender, particularly as used by Fletcher in combination with the practice of stopping the sense at the end of the verse, give so peculiar a cadence to the lines, and constitute a manner of versification from which when once adopted a poet is so unlikely incidentally to diverge, that their frequent employment in scenes of joint plays and their sparse employment in other scenes, may be fairly regarded as favouring the antecedent supposition of the presence or absence of Fletcher's hand. At the same time, too much may well be made of such mechanical tests, and it may be permitted to leave a problem that so acute a critic as the late Mr W. B. Donne regarded as insoluble in the pious uncertainty of the stationer's address to the courteous reader in the first folio edition of 1647 (the earliest, though that of 1679 was the first complete edition): 'It was once in my thoughts to have printed Mr Fletcher's works by themselves, because single and alone he would make a just volume; but since never parted while they lived, I conceived it not equitable to separate their ashes.' Fletcher undoubtedly had a share in Shakespeare's *Henry VIII.* The touch of Shakespeare is felt with considerable certainty in *The Two Noble Kinsmen.* There is a tone of music and a tread of thunder in some of the passages, to which no parallel can be found in any of the companion dramas. Only three plays were, during Fletcher's lifetime, published as joint productions. Two of these—*Philaster* and *The Maid's Tragedy*—are, with the exception of the great passages in *The Two Noble*

Kinsmen, the glory of the collection. The question has been often discussed, why these plays are called by the name of Beaumont and Fletcher, thus giving precedence to the younger and less voluminous writer. Mr Dyce's opinion is that of the three plays published as joint productions during Fletcher's life, Beaumont either had the greater share, or that, through feelings of natural courtesy, Fletcher placed the name of his deceased associate before his own, and that future editors naturally followed the arrangement which they found to their hand. From all that can be gathered, it would appear that Beaumont possessed the deeper and more thoughtful genius; Fletcher the gayer and more idyllic. There is a strength as of granite rock in *The Maid's Tragedy*; there is a glad exuberant music, and a May-morning light and freshness in *The Faithful Shepherdess*, which Milton did not disdain to accept as a model in the lyrical portions of *Comus*, and of which the *Endymion* of Keats is but an echo. The plays of Beaumont and Fletcher never sound the deep sea of passion; they disport themselves, dolphin-like, on its surface. They are poets first and dramatists after; and indeed display but little power of serious and consistent characterisation, while they are much too fond of unnatural and violent situations. Morally, little can be said in their praise. Even that most delightful pastoral *The Faithful Shepherdess* is marred by deformities that interfere with its harmonious beauty. 'A spot,' says Charles Lamb, 'is on the face of this Diana. Nothing short of infatuation could have driven Fletcher upon mixing with this "blessedness" such an ugly deformity as Cloe, the wanton shepherdess! If Cloe was meant to set off Florin by contrast, Fletcher should have known that such weeds by juxtaposition do not set off, but kill sweet flowers.' The best edition is that of Dyce (11 vols. 1843-46), which superseded its chief predecessor, that of Weber (1812). A critical edition, by A. H. Bullen, is in preparation for his series of 'The English Dramatists.' See A. W. Ward's *History of English Dramatic Literature* (2 vols. 1875); Part II. chapter iii. of F. G. Fleay's *Shakespeare Manual*; and G. C. Macanlay's *Francis Beaumont, a Critical Study* (1883).

Beaumont. JEAN BAPTISTE ELIE DE, born in 1798 at Canon, in Calvados, taught geology in the École des Mines and Collège de France, was elected to the Academy in 1835, and became in 1856 its perpetual secretary. He died 22d September 1874. His theory regarding the elevation of mountain-systems has as yet found little acceptance outside France. With Dufrenoy he prepared a great geological map of France (1840; 2d ed. 1855). Another work is his *Notice sur les Systèmes des Montagnes* (1852).

Beaumontague is a composition of iron borings, brimstone, pitch, sal-ammoniac, rosin, and beeswax, which is used to fill up cracks and flaws in an iron casting, to give an appearance of solidity. The ingredients are melted in a vessel over an open fire, and when cooled, are rolled into small balls. When used, these are broken up, and a bit is inserted into the flaw. A red-hot iron passed over it forces the beaumontague into the crevices of the faulty article, which, when finished, bears no trace whatever of having been dealt with in this way.

Beaune, a well-built town in the French department Côte d'Or, 23 miles SSW. of Dijon by rail, with a fine parish church, Notre Dame (13th century); a splendid hospital, founded in 1443 by Nicholas Rollin; and a bronze statue (1849) of Monge the mathematician. It manufactures serges, woollen cloth, and cutlery, and is a chief seat of the Burgundy wine trade, Beaune giving name to

one of the best Burgundies. During the Franco-German war in 1870, the town was several times occupied by the Germans. Pop. (1881) 11,449.

Beaune, FLORIMOND DE, a mathematician and friend of Descartes, born in 1601 at Blois, in France, served as a soldier, and died at his native place in 1652. His labours and discoveries contributed greatly to the improvement of the modern analytical geometry first introduced by Descartes. He is well known through 'Beaune's Problem,' solved with the help of the integral calculus by Jean Bernoulli in 1693, which turns on the determination of the nature of a curved line from a property of its tangent.

Beauregard, PIERRE GUSTAVE TOUTANT, Confederate general, was born in 1818, near New Orleans, graduated at West Point in 1838, served with distinction in the Mexican War, and after its close superintended the engineering works on the Lower Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico. He joined the secession with his native state, and was appointed by the Confederate government to the command at Charleston, S.C., where, April 12, 1861, he commenced the war by the bombardment of Fort Sumter. He was virtually in command at the first battle of Bull Run, July 21, 1861; and sent to the west in the spring of 1862 as second to General A. S. Johnston, he succeeded to the command when the latter was killed in the first day's battle of Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing. Defeated on the second day's fighting, he retreated to Corinth, Miss., where he reorganised his division; but on the approach of the Union troops he evacuated the place, and was superseded by General Bragg. After a period of inactivity he was placed (1864) in command of the military division of the west, but failed to check Sherman's march to the sea. He became, after the war, president of the New Orleans and Mississippi Railway and, in 1878, a manager of the Louisiana State Lottery.

Beausobre, ISAAC DE, Huguenot preacher and writer, was born at Niort, in Poitou, in 1659, studied theology at Saumur, and after his ordination had charge of a church at Châtillon-sur-Indre. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in 1685, obliged him to flee to Holland. In 1694 he went to Berlin, became chaplain of a French Protestant church there, and councillor of the royal consistory. Among his works were an *Essai critique de l'Histoire de Manichéisme et du Manichéisme* (1734-9), which Gibbon characterises as a rich treasury of facts and opinions; and along with M. Lenfant, a translation of the New Testament, with notes. He was a chief contributor to the voluminous *Bibliothèque Allemande*. He died at Berlin in 1738.

Beauty. See *ÆSTHETICS*, ART.

Beauvais, a town of France, capital of the department Oise, situated in the valley of the Thérain, 55 miles NNW. of Paris. Among several fine buildings the most noteworthy is the unfinished cathedral, begun in 1225, the choir of which, 153 feet high, is the loftiest as well as one of the finest specimens of Gothic in France. The industries of Beauvais include the weaving of Gobelin tapestries (since 1664), and the manufacture of cotton, woollen cloths, shawls, and carpets. Pop. (1881) 17,516. Beauvais was known by the Romans as *Cesaromagus*, afterwards as *Bellouacum*. In 1472 it was besieged by Charles the Bold of Burgundy, with an army of 80,000 men, when the women of Beauvais, under the leadership of the heroine Jeanne Hachette, displayed remarkable valour. The standard which the Burgundians had planted on the wall was torn down by Jeanne, and borne off by her in triumph. The banner is borne every year by young girls in a procession, and a statue of Jeanne was erected in 1851.

Beaver (*Castor*), a familiar rodent mammal, allied to squirrels and marmots, and represented by a single widely distributed species (*Castor fiber* or *canadensis*). It is widely known for its aquatic habit, its sagacious architectural devices, its glossy fur, and its fatty castoreum glands.

Form and Structure.—The beaver is usually about 2½ feet in length, and is thus hardly surpassed by any other rodent except the Capybara (q.v.). It stands rather under a foot in height, and the broad, flat, scaly tail is about 10 inches long. The body is plump, the back arched, the neck thick, the hind-feet webbed, and all the digits clawed. The strong wrist has an accessory bone. The fur varies considerably in colour, but is usually reddish-brown above, and lighter or grayish below. The short head runs out into a naked muzzle; the external ears are short and scaly, and admit of being folded, so as almost to shut the opening; the eyes are small; and the nostrils closable. The skull is massive, with marked ridges for fixing the muscles which work the jaws, and both size and ridges increase throughout life. The two front teeth on either jaw are like those of other rodents, wearing away more rapidly behind so as to leave a sharp enamelled chisel edge. They have a bright orange colour. They grow as usual from persisting pulps, so that what is worn away in gnawing is continually being replaced at the root. The four grinding teeth on each side of each jaw are nearly equal to one another, and exhibit two or three infoldings of the enamel coating. The stomach has near its commencement a peculiar glandular structure; the external relations of anal and urinogenital apertures resemble those of marsupials; and the male bears on its groin a pair of glands which secrete a substance known as *Castoreum*.

Distribution.—The beaver, though represented only by a single species, is widely distributed in the northern parts of both eastern and western hemispheres. It is rapidly disappearing from countries where it previously flourished, being now, for instance, extinct in Britain, and apparently also in Scandinavia. An attempt has been made to reintroduce it in Bute. Isolated colonies of beavers are still to be seen where they have been protected from molestation on the Elbe and a few other rivers in Germany and Austria; but they can hardly be said to be really at home in Europe except in Russia and Poland, and 'especially on the streams of the Ural Mountains, and those emptying into the Caspian Sea.' They are also abundant in Siberia. The American beaver, which is probably only a variety, and not a distinct species, is found to the west of the Mississippi, between Alaska and Mexico, and more sparsely to the east of the same river, to the south of the Great Lakes, in the Maine and Adirondack wildernesses, and yet more sparsely southward to Alabama and Mississippi. They are also frequent in some parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania (see Heilprin, *Distribution of Animals*, International Science Series). Several extinct species of beaver have been dug up from Miocene and Pliocene strata. *Castoroides ohioensis* was an allied giant rodent about as big as a black bear. Another large extinct rodent, which Owen described under the title 'Trogontherium,' is regarded by some as a giant beaver.

Habits.—Beavers are well known to be aquatic animals, and are never found far away from river or lake. Their webbed hind-feet make them capital swimmers. They also dive well though noisily, and can remain two minutes under water. They feed mainly on the bark of trees, such as willows, magnolias, poplars, and birches, but also on the roots of the water-lily and other plants, and

on their inland excursions during the warm season on fruits, corn, and the like. They often sit on their hind-feet and tail, eating with their fore-paws like squirrels. They are, however, pre-eminently bark-eaters, and large quantities of wood are stored up in the autumn for winter use. When the streams are frozen, they may remain for as long as a fortnight comfortably provided with supplies within their burrows. Most of the beavers' active life is during the night, except when floods force them to abandon their homes. They may be readily tamed, but cannot of course be kept in wooden houses. They may be seen in the London Zoological Gardens, and occasionally in aquariums.

Family-life.—Beavers are social animals; a family of about half a dozen is frequently found within a single house, and where food is abundant and the locality secluded, a large number of families occur congregated in a community. The young beavers leave the parent house in the summer of their third year, find mates for themselves, and establish new homesteads. When increase of population brings about difficulties of subsistence, a migration takes place, some going up and others down the stream. The old houses are never left vacant, however, but are simply transferred by the emigrants to some related new couple. Isolated males or terriers, apparently expelled from a colony for laziness or misbehaviour, are often found living alone.

Homes.—The simplest beaver home is merely a burrow, and when their tenure seems insecure, as in populous countries, the beavers may remain contented with this mode of life. These burrows open outwards under the water, and are thus effectively concealed. Mr L. H. Morgan, in his work on the American beaver, regards the burrow as the primitive and normal residence from which 'in the progress of experience, by a process of natural suggestion,' the more elaborate homes have been gradually evolved. Beaver architecture, as well as human, has had its history. Above the burrow a surface-pile of sticks is often found, perhaps to keep the snow loose enough overhead to admit air, and from these ventilating piles 'it is but a step to a lodge with its chamber above ground, and the previous burrow as an entrance from the water.' 'A burrow accidentally broken through at its upper end, and repaired with a covering of sticks and earth, would lead to a lodge above ground, and thus inaugurate a beaver-lodge out of a broken burrow.'

The Lodge.—However it may have arisen, the so-called beaver-lodge is a marvellous structure. Three distinct kinds can be distinguished in adaptation to different localities. The island-lodge is constructed on a small island in the pond or dam. It consists of a central chamber, with its floor a little above the level of the water, and with two entrances. One of these—the 'wood entrance'—is a straight incline rising from the water, and opening neatly into the floor of the hut. Up this the pieces of wood used for winter food are passed. The other approach—the 'beaver entrance'—is more abrupt in its descent to the water, and often tortuous in its course. Both approaches, which are often many feet in length, are neatly lined and finished off, especially where they open into the central chamber. The lodge itself is an oven-shaped house of sticks, grass, and moss, woven together and plastered with mud, increasing gradually in size with year after year of repair and elaboration. They are not only comfortable, but efficiently protective against beasts of prey. The room inside may measure 8 feet in diameter, and 2 or 3 feet in height. The floor is very comfortably carpeted with bark, grass, and wood-chips, and

there are sometimes special store-rooms adjoining. The entrances open into a specially deep moat surrounding the home, and as this is too deep to freeze readily, the inmates are not apt to be imprisoned even by very keen frost. Another kind



Beavers and Beaver-lodge.

of lodge is built on the bank of a stream or pond, either a short way back from the edge, or partly hanging over, with its front wall built up from the bottom of the pond. A third type—the so-called 'lake-lodges'—are built on the shelving shores of lakes, with a large part of the hut built out upon the water. The various forms of house, all apparently modifications of the primitive burrow, are of much interest, as illustrating the beaver's power of adapting its constructive powers to different local conditions. Mr Morgan also directs attention to the 'beaver-slides' or cuttings seen on the Upper Missouri, where the banks are too vertical to admit of the ordinary construction without some previous surface-work. In certain localities—for instance, in California—the animals have either relapsed from their ordinary architectural labours, or have never fully developed the constructive habit. Hunters often break into the lodges so as to drive the beavers into the holes or burrows.

Wood-cutting.—Some of the most interesting habits of beavers are connected with the way in which they procure and store their food-material. That they are bark-eaters has been already noticed, and it is an equally familiar fact that in order to procure this they cut down trees by gnawing a ring round the base. This they cut all round, but more towards the side nearest the water, so that the tree may fall as conveniently as possible. They can cut down a tree 10 inches or so in diameter. The smaller branches with more palatable bark are cut off in the same way, and cut into lengths convenient for transport and storage. The heavier pieces are ingeniously rolled along, often for a considerable distance, to the water-edge. Sometimes the tree is near enough to fall at once into the water, and is simply left till required, but such a convenient supply is soon exhausted. When a block has been rolled to the water-edge it is floated out to the lodge, and either anchored by means of brushwood stuck into the bottom of the pond, or sunk to the mouth of the 'wood entrance,' and conveyed up into the lodge. Barked branches from which the nutritive portion has been eaten away, may be further used, as already indicated, for building the lodges.

Beaver-dams.—Yet more marvellous are the dams

by which beavers widen the area and increase the depth of water round about their homes. These vary in structure according to the nature of the locality. They are either made of sticks and poles, with a slight embankment of earth, not enough to prevent the surplus water flowing freely through, or they are constructed more firmly and solidly of mud, brushwood, and stones, with a special outlet on the ridge for the discharge of the overflow. Though beavers do not hammer in poles, nor use their tails as trowels, they exhibit marvellous ingenuity in the construction of their dams. The stones and mud are cleverly carried by the fore-paws, the burden being pressed against the chest; the curvature of the dam is adjusted to the direction of the current; a constant level of water is secured by modification of the outlet sluice; the wear is continually remedied by fresh building; auxiliary dams are constructed to all appearance simply for the purpose of breaking the flow of water in the main dam, and so on. Some of these dams have prodigious dimensions. Mr Morgan describes one structure '1530 feet in length, of which 530 feet in two sections is artificial, and the remainder natural bank, but worked here and there where depressions on the ground required raising by artificial means.'

Canals.—Mr Morgan has also discovered and described the construction of waterways or canals, which the beavers dig between their ponds and the sources of timber-supply. When the trees near the water are exhausted, and when the uneven character of the ground makes the rolling of the logs a difficult task, canals are cut for convenience of transport. In certain cases the construction of a big dam may bring the water-edge quite near enough the trees, but this is not always so. The construction of canals becomes as necessary as it is marvellous. They may be hundreds of feet long, increasing in length as the trees are gradually cut away, and are usually about a yard or more in breadth, and 3 feet or so deep. Sometimes, however, the ground rises suddenly at a certain distance from the pond, so that a continuous canal becomes impossible. In such a case an engineer constructing a canal would make a 'lock.' This is exactly the solution of the difficulty which has been arrived at by beavers. Mr Morgan describes a case where three water-collecting crescent-shaped dams have been made, at three successive sudden ascents of the ground, and the principle of locks ingeniously combined with that of collecting reservoirs. In another case the canal bifurcates at the foot of the woodland slope, and thus presents a maximum water-edge. Or again, these acute engineers have been observed to make a short-cut waterway across the ground inclosed in a loop of the river, so as to lessen considerably the distance of transport.

Geological Interest.—All this work of burrowing, timber-felling, dam-building, canal-cutting, carried on continuously by generation after generation of beavers, must in no inconsiderable way have affected the minute features of a landscape. Agassiz has estimated the age of one of these beaver dams at a thousand years. As the result of beaver work, large tracts once covered with trees have become bare, and what was once dry meadow has been flooded with water. Acres of what once was forest land are represented now by peaty clearings, and still remain as 'beaver meadows' in countries from which the busy foresters have long since disappeared.

Practical Uses.—The beaver has for long been hunted for the sake of its fur, from which both hats and gloves were made. Chaucer speaks of a 'Flaundrish beaver hat' about 1386, and we have 'brown beaver gloves' in Dickens' *Sketches by Boz* (1836). An act of the English parliament, in

1638, prohibiting the use of any other material for hat-making, contributed to the rapid diminution of the number of beavers in the parts of North America from which their skins were then obtained (see HAT). During a great part of the 18th and the earlier part of the 19th century, the number of beaver skins annually exported from America appears to have been not less than 200,000. It is now greatly diminished, but is still large. From very ancient times the secretion of the gland, on the groin of male beavers, has been valued on account of its curative properties. So far as the beavers are concerned, the strong-smelling substance is apparently subsidiary to sexual attraction. Hunters are said to utilise it as bait for their traps. The so-called castoreum contains oily and resinous substances, along with a crystallisable component known as castorine, once largely employed in medicine as a nervous stimulant. Mythical stories are told of the way in which beavers throw themselves on their backs when pursued by hunters, so as to expose the wished-for glands, with a hint that their lives might be spared; according to the credulous they may even bite off the glands and leave them as a ransom. The oily flesh is said also to be esteemed by the trappers. The fat tail is a special delicacy, and the animal being popularly regarded as a fish, may be eaten during Lent.

Intelligence.—Enough has been said to show that the habits and labours of beavers exhibit more marks of sagacity than can possibly be the result of hereditary habit. They do much more than follow a hard and fast path of orderly and purposeful action—they can adapt their actions to varying conditions in a manner which can only be described as rationally intelligent. The Indians go further, and invest the beaver with immortality. The reader should consult Mr Lewis H. Morgan on *The American Beaver and his Works* (Lippincott & Co., 1868), or Mr G. J. Romanes on *Animal Intelligence* (International Science Series, 1886), and *Mental Evolution in Animals* (1886).

Beaver Dam, a city at the outlet of Beaver Lake, Wisconsin, U.S., 61 miles NW. of Milwaukee, on the Chicago, Milwaukee, and St Paul Railway. It is the centre of a fertile district, and has a university, various factories, and flour-mills. Pop. (1880) 3441.

Beaver Falls, a village of Pennsylvania, U.S., near the junction of the Beaver River with the Ohio, 34 miles NW. of Pittsburgh. The 'Harmony' society of economy controls most of the manufactories here. Pop. (1880) 5104.

Beaver Wood. See MAGNOLIA.

Bebeerine, or BEBERINE, is an alkaloid obtained from the greenheart bark or *bebeeru* of British Guiana, first separated and described in 1843 by Sir Douglas MacLagan of Edinburgh. Recent investigations seem to show that this alkaloid is identical with *Buxine*, which is obtained from the bark and leaves of the common box, and it is probable that it is also present in some other plants. It was hoped that bebeerine, in the form of sulphate, would become a substitute for quinine; but it is not so powerful in its action as a tonic and febrifuge, and has not therefore come into popular use. Bebeerine is always prescribed in the form of sulphate, a dark amorphous substance, obtained in thin translucent laminae by spreading the sirup solution on sheets of glass, and allowing it to dry. See GREENHEART.

Bebek, a lovely bay on the European side of the Bosphorus, with a palace of the sultan, known as the *Humayunabad*, and built in 1725. Here also are the establishments for baking biscuits for the fleet, an American school, and a college of the French order of Lazarists.

Bebel, FERDINAND AUGUST, social democrat, born at Cologne in 1840, in 1860 came to Leipzig, where four years later he established himself as a master turner. Since 1862 engaging fanatically in the labour movement, he was elected in 1867 to the North German Diet, in 1871 to the Reichstag. In 1872 he was sentenced to two years' imprisonment. Among his writings are *Der Deutsche Bauernkrieg* (1876), and a work on the status of women (1883).

Bec Abbey, the ruins of which are at Be-Hellouin, Normandy, 2½ miles from Brionne, was at the height of its fame as a great Benedictine monastery in the middle of the 11th century, when the famous Lanfranc was prior. His fame as a scholar had made it one of the most renowned seats of learning in Western Europe, students flocked thither from all parts, and gifts were bestowed upon it by the great men of Normandy. The great Anselm, entering it in 1060, was abbot from 1078 to 1093, when he succeeded Lanfranc in the see of Canterbury.

Beccafico (*Sylvia hortensis*, or *Curruca hortensis*), a little bird of the family of the Sylviadae, or Warblers (q.v.), sometimes called the Petty-chap, and sometimes the Garden Warbler, rather rare in Britain, but abundant in some of the more southern parts of Europe, and in great demand for the table in Italy, its flesh being regarded as of peculiar delicacy. It is a mere summer bird of passage, however, not only in Britain, but even in the south of Europe. The upper parts are mostly of a brown colour, the lower parts whitish. It is a bird of very pleasing song. Beccafico is an Italian name signifying 'fig-pecker,' and is sometimes extended to other birds of the same family used for the table.

Beccamoschino (Ital., 'fly-catcher'; *Sylvia cisticola*), a little bird of the family of Warblers, found in Italy. It is remarkable for its nest, which resembles that of the tailor-birds, and is usually placed in a bush with long leaves, which are neatly sewed together with some kind of vegetable fibre so as to form roof and floor.

Beccaria, CESARE, MARCHESE DE BECCARIA-BONESANA, a political and philanthropic writer, was born at Milan, March 15, 1735 (or in 1738). His opinions were formed by study of the French encyclopedists and Montesquieu. His chief work was his *Dei Delitti e delle Pene* ('On Crimes and Punishments'), first published anonymously at Monaco in 1764, in which he argues against the severities and abuses of criminal law, especially capital punishment and torture. The work became extremely popular, and was translated into all the European languages. It was hailed with enthusiasm by the French school, and commentaries were published by Voltaire and Diderot. The best edition, revised by the author, is that in 2 vols. (Venice, 1781). It is marked by eloquence, sensibility, and lively power of imagination. Kant unfairly accuses the author of an affected humanity, though it must be admitted that the German philosopher has exposed the invalidity of some of the arguments brought forward. On the whole, however, the work of Beccaria is acknowledged to have done great good, and the subsequent reforms in the penal code of European nations have generally taken the direction he has pointed out. He was among the first to advocate the beneficial influence of education in lessening crime. Both his arguments and his popularity made him many enemies, but their malice was frustrated by the efforts of Count Firmian, the Austrian governor of Lombardy, a man of liberal and enlightened sentiments. In 1768 Beccaria was appointed professor of Political

Philosophy at Milan, and achieved great success as a lecturer. In 1791 he was made a member of the board for the reform of the judicial code, and had the triumph of seeing several of his abused suggestions adopted. He died of apoplexy, November 28, 1794.—GIACOMO BATTISTA BECCARIA (1716-81) from 1748 was professor of Physics at Turin, and did much to forward the science of electricity, though himself he made no important discovery.

Beccles, a Suffolk market-town, on the Waveney, 8 miles W. of Lowestoft. It has a fine church with a detached belfry, a good grammar-school, and large printing-works. Pop. (1881) 5721.

Bec-fin, the common French name for different species of birds of the family Sylviadae, or Warblers (q.v.).

Bèche de Mer. See TREPANG.

Becher, JOHANN JOACHIM, chemist, was born at Spire in 1635. He acquired an extensive knowledge of medicine, physics, and chemistry, and became professor at Mainz. He subsequently lived at Vienna, Munich, Würzburg, Haarlem, and finally London, where he died in 1682. He was accused of charlatanism, but unquestionably he rendered important services to chemistry. His *Physica Subterranea* (1669) was the first attempt made to bring physics and chemistry into close relation. He began to construct a theory of chemistry, and investigated the process of combustion. In this and his other works (including *Institutiones Chymicae*, 1662) lies the first germ of Stahl's philosophical theory.

Bechuanaland, an extensive tract in South Africa, inhabited by the Bechuannas, extending from 28° S. lat. to the Zambesi, and from 20° E. long. to the Transvaal border. The Bechuannas also still occupy a considerable portion of the Transvaal, from which the Boers have not yet expelled them. British protection extends over Bechuanaland as far as 22° S. lat. since 1884; more northward, it is under the jurisdiction of the chief of Ramangwato. To the south of the river Molopo the territory has been proclaimed as a crown colony since 1885. Sir Bartle Frere proposed a Bechuana protectorate in 1878, and pointed out the difficulties which delay would occasion. His words were verified by after events.

The portion under British protection is in extent 170,000 sq. m., and is larger than the Transvaal. It is a portion of an elevated plateau 4000 to 5000 feet above the level of the sea, and though so near the tropics, is suitable for the British race. In winter there are sharp frosts, and snow falls in some years. The rains fall in summer, and then only the rivers are full. It is an excellent country for cattle; sheep thrive in some parts, and there are extensive tracts available for corn-lands; but it is not a wheat country on account of the summer rains. Though apparently subject to droughts, it is not more so than the Cape Colony, and the greater portion will be available for farming operations when the necessary dams have been constructed. It can be reached from Capetown, Port Elizabeth, Durban, Delagoa Bay, and the Zambesi. There are extensive forests to the north-east, and to the west the Kalahari Desert, which only requires wells dug to make it inhabitable.

The enormous quantities of buck which roam over the land attest the productiveness of the soil. Gold has been found near Sitlagoli, and there are indications of gold-bearing quartz reefs in many directions. Diamondiferous soil is also said to exist in several localities; indeed, diamonds were discovered at Vryburg in the autumn of 1887.

The province of Stellaland is principally inhabited by Boers, and the remainder of the country by Bechuannas. The Bechuannas are a black race,

possessing a language in common with the Bantu (q.v.) races of South Africa, extending as far north as the equator. Their ancestors are said to have come from the north, and, progressing south-west, met the Hottentots from the Cape of Good Hope journeying north. The Bechuannas have divided up within the last 150 years, and comprise the Bahurutse, Banangwato, Bakwena, Bungwaketse, Barolonge, Batlapins, and Batlharos. Each tribe has an animal as an emblem or heraldic sign, which it is said they hold in esteem (see TOTEMISM). They have since 1832 been at enmity with the Matabele, and in later years the Transvaal Boers have on one pretext or another endeavoured to occupy their country. During the native risings in 1878, the Bechuannas invaded Griqualand West, and were in turn subdued by British volunteers as far as the Molopo. When the British government withdrew from Bechuanaaland in 1880, the natives, being helpless, were left to the mercy of the Boers of the Transvaal, whose harsh treatment in 1882 and 1883 led to the Bechuanaaland expedition in 1884. At the beginning of the 19th century, the Bechuannas were further in advance in civilisation than other nations of South Africa, and they are still ahead in this respect. The system of government among the Bechuannas would be termed in Europe 'local government.' All important matters are decided in the public assembly of the freemen of the town, but matters are previously arranged between the chief and headmen. The chief being but the president of a committee, can only exercise real control by his personal influence and adroitness of address.

The Kuruman Mission of the London Society has done good work among the Bechuannas, and has greatly contributed to the well-being and peace of the country. For a full account of the history of Bechuanaaland, and Britain's dealings with it, see the Rev. John Mackenzie's *Austral Africa: losing it or ruling it* (1887).

Becker, KARL FERDINAND, German philologist, was born at Liser, in the old electorate of Treves, in 1775. For five years a teacher, he afterwards studied medicine, and finally, in 1815, settled as a practitioner at Offenbach. Here he educated his own children with such success that several families induced him to take charge of theirs, and thus his house was converted into an academy (1823), which he conducted till his death in 1849. He wrote an *Ausführliche Deutsche Grammatik* (1836-39), and several other valuable treatises on the German language.

Becker, KARL FERDINAND, a German musician, born at Leipzig in 1804, at the age of fourteen made his first public appearance as a pianist. In 1843 he was appointed professor of the Organ at the Leipzig Conservatorium. His compositions for the organ have some value, but he is best known as a writer on the history of music, and as an important contributor to German musical periodicals. His collection of *Chorales* (1831), and *Die Hausmusik* (1840), are highly valued. He died October 26, 1877.

Becker, WILHELM ADOLF, born at Dresden in 1796, studied theology and philology at Leipzig, and became in 1842 professor of Archaeology there. He died at Meissen, 30th September 1846. His lively fancy, aided by a thorough knowledge of the classic languages, enabled him to make a novel use of antiquity. In his *Choricles* (1840), he ventured to reproduce the social life of old Greece; and in his *Gallus* (1838), to give sketches of the Augustan age at Rome. His *Handbuch der Römischen Alterthümer* (1843-46) was, after his death, continued by Marquardt (vols. iii.-v. 1849-68).

Beckerath, HERMANN VON, a German politician, was born at Krefeld, Prussia, 13th December 1801. He made a considerable fortune as a banker, and in 1843 was elected representative of his native town in the provincial diet. Elected to the National Assembly at Frankfort in 1848, he was appointed minister of finance, and shortly after called to Berlin to construct a cabinet; but in this he failed. He was a resolute advocate for German unity. In 1858 he was again elected a member of the Prussian second chamber; but declined the honour on account of failing health. He devoted his later years to the affairs of his native town, where he died 12th May 1870. See Life by Kopstadt (Brunswick, 1874).

Becket, THOMAS, Archbishop of Canterbury, was born in London in 1118 of Norman parentage, his father being a wealthy merchant. That his mother was a love-born Saracen is a pretty but wholly baseless tradition. Educated at Merton Priory and in the London schools, he was trained in knightly exercises at Pevensey Castle, next studied theology at Paris, and then, on his father's failure in business, was clerk for three years in a lawyer's office. About 1142 he entered the household of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, who sent him to study canonical jurisprudence at Bologna and Auxerre, heaped preferments on him, including the archdeaconry of Canterbury (1154), and employed him in several important missions. At the papal court in 1152 he had promoted the cause of Henry of Anjou against that of Stephen's son, Eustace; in 1155, the year after Henry's accession, he received the office of chancellor, and thus reascended the hopes of the English as the first Englishman born, since the Conquest, who had filled any high office. His duties as chancellor were numerous and burdensome, but he discharged them vigorously. So magnificently liberal was he in his hospitality, that Henry himself did not live in a manner more sumptuous. He fought like any knight in the war with Toulouse (1159), and would seem in everything to have regarded himself as a mere layman, though he held deacon's orders. The change, then, was all the more sudden when in 1162 he was created Archbishop of Canterbury, an office which, as it then involved the abbacy of the cathedral monastery, had never but twice before been held by any but a monk or canon-regular. He resigned the chancellorship, threw aside all his old courtly and luxurious habits, turned a rigid ascetic, showed his liberality only in charities, and in short became as zealous a servitor of the church as ever before of king or archbishop. He figured soon as a champion of her rights against all aggressions by the king and his courtiers, several nobles and other laymen being excommunicated for their alienation of church property. Henry II., who, like all the Norman kings, endeavoured to keep the clergy in subordination to the state, in 1164 convoked the nobility and clergy to a council at Clarendon (q.v.), where were adopted the so-called 'Constitutions,' or laws relative to the respective powers of church and state. To these, curtailing clerical immunities, the primate at first declared he would never consent; but afterwards, through the efforts of the nobles, some of the bishops, and, finally, of the pope himself, he was induced to give his unwilling approbation. Henry now began to perceive that Becket's notions and his own were utterly antagonistic, and clearly exhibited his hostility to the prelate, whereupon Becket tried to leave the country. For this offence Henry charged him with breach of allegiance, in a council held at Northampton, confiscated his goods, and sequestered the revenues of his see. A claim was also made on him for not less than 44,000 marks, as the balance due by him to the crown when he

ceased to be chancellor. Becket appealed to the pope, and next day leaving Northampton in disguise, escaped to France. He spent two years in retirement at the Cistercian abbey of Pontigny in Burgundy; and then, the pope seeming disposed to take up his cause, he went to Rome, and pleaded personally before his holiness, who reinstated him in the see of Canterbury. Becket now returned to France, and thence he wrote angry letters to the English bishops, threatening them with excommunication. Several efforts were made to reconcile him with Henry, which, however, proved futile; but at length in 1170 an agreement was patched up at Freteval, on the borders of Touraine. The result was that Becket returned to England, entering Canterbury amid the rejoicings of the people, who were unquestionably proud of him, and regarded him—whether wisely or not is another question—as a shield from the oppressions of the nobility. Fresh quarrels soon broke out; excommunications were renewed; and Henry at last exclaimed: 'Of the cowards that eat my bread, is there none will rid me of this turbulent priest?' Four knights—Fiturse, Tracy, Brito, and Morville—overheard the hasty words; and, quitting Normandy by separate ways, on the evening of 29th December 1170, entered Canterbury cathedral, and slew the archbishop before the altar of St Benedict, in the north transept. Henry was compelled to make heavy concessions to avoid the ban of excommunication. The murderers, having repaired to Rome as penitents, were sent on a pilgrimage to Palestine; and, two years after his death, Becket was canonised, and the anniversary of his death set apart as the yearly festival of St Thomas of Canterbury. In 1220 his bones were raised from the grave in the crypt where they had been hastily buried two days after his murder, and were deposited in a splendid shrine in the Trinity Chapel, which for three centuries continued to be the object of one of the great pilgrimages of Christendom, and which still lives in English literature in connection with Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. At the Reformation, Henry VIII. despoiled the shrine, erased Becket's name from the calendar, and ordered his bones to be burnt and scattered to the winds. It is difficult to estimate properly the character of Becket. We do not know what were his ultimate aims, whether, as some suppose, they were patriotic—i.e. *English*, as opposed to *Norman*, or, as others believe, purely Ultramontane. At all events, the means he used for the attainment of them was a despotic and irresponsible ecclesiasticism. He admitted nothing done by churchmen to come within the jurisdiction of civil courts, not even murder or theft. Fortunately Henry was as dogged a believer in his own powers and privileges as Becket in those of the church; and by his obstinate good sense, England was kept wholesomely jealous of the pretensions of Rome.

See Dr Giles's *Vita et Epistolæ S. Thomæ Cantuariensis*; Canon Morris's *Life of St Thomas Becket*; Canon Robertson's *Life of Becket*; Dean Stanley's *Historical Memorials of Canterbury*; Freeman's *Historical Essays*; Hook's *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*; Froude's articles on Becket in the *Nineteenth Century*.

Beckford, WILLIAM, born in Jamaica, 19th December 1709, in 1723 was sent to England, and received his education at Westminster. Elected an alderman (1752) and member for the city of London (1753), he was twice Lord Mayor. As such he showed himself a doughty Whig, a rival almost of Wilkes, a man who dared to speak face to face with a king. A petition from the corporation of London, presented by him, March 1770, to George III., being treated as unconstitutional, he, in May, presented a firm and dignified remonstrance. The

king's answer being still curt and unconciliatory, Beckford, after asking leave to speak, proceeded to argue the point with the king. His daring, or a cold, cost him his life, for just four weeks later he died in London, 21st June 1770. There is a notable statue of him in Guildhall.

Beckford, WILLIAM, son of Alderman Beckford, was born at Fonthill, Wiltshire, 29th September 1759. On his father's death in 1770 he inherited an enormous property, consisting for the main part of Fonthill and of estates in Jamaica, and estimated at a million of money, upwards of £100,000 a year. Young Beckford evinced unusual intellectual precocity; for in his seventeenth year he composed a satirical essay, entitled *Biographical Memoirs of Extraordinary Painters*, in which he did not spare living artists, and assailed the cant of criticism with the polished weapon of wit. In 1777 he visited the Continent, and met Voltaire at Paris. Three years thereafter he started on a grand continental tour, and spent twelve months in rambling through Flanders, Germany, and Italy, revisiting the last in 1782. In 1783 he married Lady Margaret Gordon, daughter of Charles, fourth Earl of Aboyne; and in the following year he entered parliament as one of the members for Wells. In 1787 *Vathek* appeared in French. Beckford informs us that he wrote this tale, as it now stands, at twenty-two years of age, and that it was composed at a single sitting. 'It took me,' he says, 'three days and two nights of hard labour. I never took off my clothes the whole time. The severe application made me very ill.' An English version of *Vathek*, made from an unpublished manuscript, had been issued in 1784. Beckford professed not to know the translator (understood to have been Samuel Henley, D.D.), but thought his work well done. In 1787 Beckford sought distraction from the loss of his young wife, a year before, in a visit to Portugal. In 1790 he sat for Hindon; in 1794 he accepted the Chiltern Hundreds, and again left England. Revisiting Portugal, he purchased an estate near Cintra, and occupied for a time that 'paradise' which Byron commemorates in *Childe Harold*. He returned to England in 1796; and in 1801 the splendid furniture of Fonthill was sold by auction, and the next year his valuable collection of pictures was disposed of in London. These dispersions were no sooner made than he began a new collection of books, pictures, furniture, curiosities, and proceeded to erect a new building at Fonthill, the most prominent feature of which was a tower 278 feet high. Beckford resided at Fonthill till 1822, when in one of those strange vagaries of feeling of which his life was so full, he sold the estate and house, with all its rare and far-gathered contents, to Colonel Farquhar for £330,000. Three years later the great tower, which had been raised on an insecure foundation, came to the ground. On the sale of Fonthill, Beckford removed to Bath, and immediately proceeded to erect another lofty tower. While residing there, he did not mingle in Bath society, and the most improbable stories concerning the rich and morose genius in their neighbourhood were circulated among the citizens. During all his life, Beckford was a hard-working student, devoured by a passion for books. Some of his purchases were perfectly imperial in their way. He bought Gibbon's library at Lausanne, to amuse himself when he happened to be in that neighbourhood. He went there; read in the fierce way that he wrote, three days and two nights at a sitting; grew weary of his purchase; and handed it over to his physician, Dr Scholl. Up till 1834 he had published nothing since *Vathek*, but in that year the literary silence of half a century was broken by the appearance of a series of letters, entitled *Italy, with Sketches of Spain and Portugal*, in two volumes. In the same year he republished

his *Memoirs of Extraordinary Painters*; and in 1835 he issued another volume, entitled *Recollections of an Excursion to the Monasteries of Alcobaca and Batalha*, made in June 1794. From the period of this last publication till his death, which took place on the 2d of May 1844, he lived in the deepest retirement. Beckford, since the publication of his Arabian tale, has been a power in English literature. His wit, his sarcasm, his power of graphic description, may be seen in his journal and letters; and his higher faculties of imaginative conception and delineation reign in the unmatched passages that shadow forth in gloom and glory the 'Hall of Eblis.' His library was sold by his great-grandson, the twelfth Duke of Hamilton, in 1882-83, when 5978 lots fetched no less a sum than £43,368. See the *Life of Beckford*, by Cyrus Redding (2 vols. 1858), and the reprint of *Vathek*, edited by M. Mallarmé (Paris, 1876).

Beckmann, JOHANN, was born in 1739 at Hoya, in Hanover, and was educated at Göttingen. After holding a professorship of Physics and Natural History at St Petersburg (1763-65), he was in 1766 appointed professor of Philosophy, and in 1770 of Political Economy, at Göttingen, where he died, February 4, 1811. In Germany he was the first scientific writer on agriculture. In England he is known by his *History of Inventions* (5 vols. 1780-1805; Eng. trans. 1814).

Beckx, PETER JOHN, general of the Jesuits, was born at Siehem, in Belgium, February 8, 1795, and was admitted into the Society of Jesus in 1819. He was early employed on various delicate missions, and was for many years confessor to the Duke of Anhalt-Köthen. In 1847 he was appointed procurator for the province of Austria, and on the expulsion of the society in 1848, returned to Belgium, and became rector of the college at Louvain. He was named provincial of Austria in 1852, and as head of his order from 1853, displayed an ability and tact that did much to advance the status of Jesuits in non-Catholic countries. He died at Rome, March 4, 1887.

Bequerel, ANTOINE CÉSAR, a distinguished French physicist, was born in 1788, at Châtillon-sur-Loing, in the department of Loiret. In 1808 he entered the French army as an officer of engineers, and served with distinction in Spain. On his return to France, he was appointed inspector of the *École Polytechnique*; was attached to the general staff of the army in 1814, but at the peace of 1815 retired from the service. His researches and discoveries were mainly in the fields of electricity and magnetism, and he may fairly be regarded as one of the creators of electro-chemistry. His labours in this branch of science opened to him in 1829 the doors of the Académie des Sciences. Among his works were the *Traité de l'Électricité et du Magnétisme* (7 vols. 1834-40); *Éléments d'Électrochimie* (1843); *Traité de Physique*; *Éléments de Physique terrestre et de Météorologie* (1847). He died on the 19th January 1878.—His son, **ALEXANDRE EDMOND**, also an eminent physicist, was born at Paris, 24th March 1820. He was decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honour in 1851; and was appointed professor of Physics in the *Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers*, in 1853. Besides his conjoint labours with his father, he made important researches on the nature of light and its chemical effects, on phosphorescence, on the conductivity and magnetic

properties of many substances. His best-known work is *La Lumière, ses Causes et ses Effets* (1868).

Becse, OLD, a town of Hungary, on the west bank of the Theiss, with river fishery and a trade in corn. Pop. (1880) 15,040.—**NEW BECSE**, on the east bank, 348 miles SSE. of Pesth by rail, has a pop. of 6348.

Becskerek, a town of Hungary, in the county of Torontal, on the Bega canal, 368 miles SSE. of Pesth by rail. Pop. (1880) 19,529.

Bed (with some variations in spelling, the word is common to all Germanic languages), an article of household furniture 'on which to sleep. In ancient times in Palestine, the bed seems to have been a simple kind of couch for reclining on during the day, and sleeping on at night, and readily removable from place to place, as is referred to in different parts of Scripture. About the heat of the day, Ishbosheth lay on his bed at noon (2 Sam. iv. 5). In receiving visitors, the king bowed himself upon the bed (1 Kings, i. 47). Jesus saith, 'Take up thy bed, and go unto thine house' (Matt. ix. 6). Yet, in these early times, beds or couches must, in some instances, have been highly ornamented; thus, 'I have decked my bed with coverings of tapestry, with carved works, with fine linen of Egypt' (Prov. vii. 16). In Persia, even at the present day, every person sleeps on a rug or piece of carpet laid on the floor, or commonly, during the summer, laid on the flat roof of a house. The pillows are similar to those used in Europe, but rather larger. It is the custom in India, on the other hand, to sleep on a bed or couch raised on four feet, called a *charpoy*. In hot climates few bed-clothes are used—there being in general only a single sheet employed; care is taken, however, to use mosquito-curtains, without which rest would be impracticable. See MOSQUITO.

Greek and Roman Beds.—Representations of ancient Greek beds and sofas are found on painted vases and on some pieces of sculpture. These beds plainly differed but little from the simpler modern forms, while the sofas or couches were in shape, in some cases at least, exactly like those now used. We are enabled to form a more perfect idea of ancient Roman beds than can be got from pictures and bas-reliefs. In the wonderful collection of Pompeian bronzes forming part of the great museum at Naples, there are three of these beds. They are partly of bronze and partly of wood, but the wooden portions, which were originally of walnut, have been restored. Fig. 1 shows one of these. It will be seen that it is of the couch form, and very

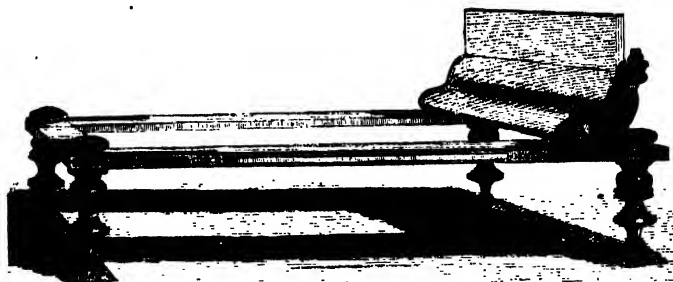


Fig. 1.—Ancient Roman Bed found at Pompeii.

elegant. Its length is 7 feet 6 in., its breadth 4 feet, and its height 1 foot 5 in. Curiously enough, an ancient trundle or truckle-bed was also found at Pompeii so recently as 1868; it is shown in the museum under one of the three larger bedsteads. The Etruscan Museum in the Vatican at Rome contains an ancient bronze bed on six feet, with a bottom

formed of strips of metal exactly like those put on brass and iron beds at the present time, only they are placed diagonally in the old example. In short, the bedsteads we now prefer are more closely like those made in Italy nearly 2000 years ago than any which have been in use during the long interval.

In Homer's time the bedding even of the richer classes consisted of a long fibred woollen blanket or mattress, and that of the poor of a simple hide spread on the hard floor. Linen sheets were used as covers. Later on, when Greece had introduced more luxurious habits from Asia, mattresses stuffed with wool or feathers became common, and of the same materials pillows were made. The Romans also stuffed their bedding with wool as well as with the soft down of geese, swans, and other birds. Their blankets and sheets were sometimes elaborately ornamented with patterns in colours either woven or embroidered.

Medieval and later Beds.—In Anglo-Saxon times, ordinary beds appear to have been plain wooden benches fixed in recesses, and having sometimes at least curtains in front—a kind of bed not yet entirely obsolete in Scotland. The bedding consisted, no doubt, of a large sack filled with straw, together with a sheet or sheets and coverlet. Mr T. Wright, in his *Homes of Other Days*, gives an illustration of a Saxon double bed of this nature with curtains. He also gives two woodcuts, after drawings in the Harleian manuscript, No. 603, of two Saxon bedsteads, box-shaped, with short corner pillars terminating in balls, and with the head end like that of a couch, but rather higher. The sides of one have thin balusters, but in the other they are plain. It is believed that these bedsteads were only used by persons of rank. The same author gives two figures of Norman beds. One of these so far resembles the isolated Saxon bedsteads, but it has a high panelled foot-board, and the sleeper lies on a slope with an oval disc at his head. The second illustration shows that the tent-bed with a top frame and side curtains was now in use. Louandre's *Les Arts Somptueuses* contains pictures of five beds, taken from a French illuminated manuscript of the 12th century. In these the bedstead takes the oblong form, with four short posts and balls, and much resembles the Anglo-Saxon ones referred to above. Except in the deep closed sides, and that in two of them the sleeper lies in a sloping position, these scarcely differ in general appearance from many plain modern beds; but at the top end there is a large flat disc, apparently swung on pivots, to enable the head to rest at any angle.

In the 13th century, beds were furnished much as at present, with a stuffed quilt, bolster, pillows, sheets, and coverlets. Among the rich, down was used; but feather-beds did not come into general use till the 15th century. All classes appear to have begun in the 13th century to take a pride in the appearance of the bed, while those who had sufficient means furnished it with handsome curtains and coverings. In the 14th century, Chaucer (*Derne*, v. 250) describes a luxurious feather-bed with rich coverings. Illustrations of beds in the following century show that the canopy, curtains, and other parts had together the general appearance of a modern half-tester or canopied bed; but the *tester* or back and the *celure* or roof were fixed to the wall and ceiling of the room.

The large four-post bed was introduced in the 16th century, and continued in use till the middle of the 19th. Many of these beds, especially of the earlier time, were elaborately and beautifully carved, and furnished with rich hangings. Interesting examples of them are still preserved in old mansions and castles in England and on the Continent. The Great Bed of Ware, in Hertfordshire, now at Rye House, is of this age, and is one of the

curiosities of England. It is referred to in the *Twelfth Night* of Shakespeare. It measures 12 feet square (see fig. 2). A kind of camp-bed was also in use in the 16th century, which was carried about on journeys, and was frequently used in residences in place of a stationary bed. Some of

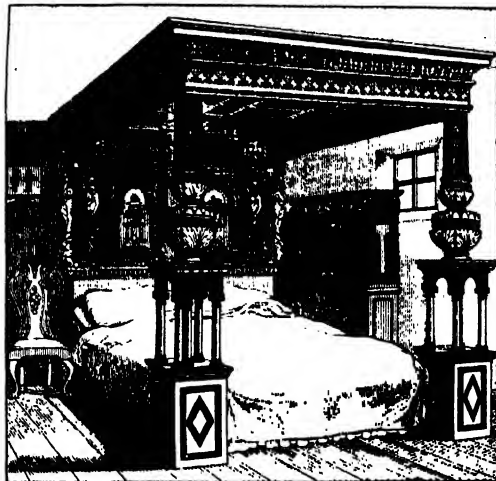


Fig. 2.—The Great Bed of Ware.

these beds were luxuriously decorated. Francis I. made a present to Henry VIII, of England of a rich camp-bed of crimson velvet, embroidered with bands of leaves in gold, and with fruit of large and small pearls, which had cost him 13,500 livres.

Modern Beds.—The heavy four-post bed, which was so long characteristic of a well-furnished English bedroom, is becoming a thing of the past. The comparatively recent and scarcely less massive half-tester bed, which suited so well for the display of the more handsome furniture-woods, has also gone out of fashion. Even the much lighter four-post tent-bed, or its later form without the curtained roof, called the French bed, that was so recently to be seen in nearly every well-to-do working-man's house in Great Britain, is fast disappearing.

For the past fifty years, bedsteads of iron and brass have been slowly gaining ground, and they are now all but universal in newly-furnished houses. Birmingham, the great British centre of light metal goods, furnishes us with some curious statistics concerning this branch of the trade. For that town and its neighbourhood, some 400 metallic bedsteads represented the weekly production in 1849. This number had increased to 5000 per week in 1865, while in 1885 the weekly output was but little short of 20,000. London, Manchester, Glasgow, and Bristol have also extensive manufactories of these bedsteads, which are exported in large numbers to most British colonies, as well as to South America, Egypt, China, and Japan. Some are shipped to the United States, but they are now being made there in considerable quantities. Nearly all the continental nations of Europe manufacture these metallic bedsteads extensively for their own use. Beds in Germany are almost always made of a width suitable for one person only. This is largely the case in most countries of continental Europe.

An iron bedstead is very simply constructed. The strong iron bars forming the sides have simple dovetail joints at the corner pillars, which, as well as the rails for the top and bottom ends of the bed, are made of iron or brass tubing, or of both. The

exposed portions used to be decorated with painted flowers and gilding, but more usually now the ornament consists of polished surfaces, more or less relieved with brass, nickel, or silver-plated joints and mountings. The price of these varies from six shillings for a plain stump bedstead, to £50 or even £100 for a canopied bedstead with much silver-plating. An excellent bedstead of this kind can, however, be had for £8.

Alarm Bedsteads.—At the Great Exhibition of 1851 two 'Alarm Bedsteads' were exhibited. One of these was shown in operation, and caused much amusement, since it was so contrived that by the removal of a pin the foot end fell to the ground and threw the occupant on the floor. Such a bedstead has attached to it a clock with an alarm dial-plate which can be set to any hour. When the proper time comes round, the clockwork, acting upon levers and wires, causes the legs of the bedstead to be drawn from under it by means of a weight attached to the clock. It was expected that these bedsteads would be used by hotel-keepers and others for wakening servants in proper time, but very few appear to have been made.

Mattresses. Hair and straw mattresses are too common to require any description. Covered-spring mattresses filled with wire springs, held in position by chair-web, are now a good deal used. Some years ago a woven wire-spring mattress was invented in America, and of it large numbers have been made. In this, thin wire is twisted into small coils, which are interlocked by a process known as double weaving. About 8000 feet of wire are required to make one of these of ordinary size. It is considered soft and comfortable, and has been found serviceable in cases of protracted sickness (see also AIR-BEDS and WATER-BEDS). Stronger spring mattresses, which are really spring and chain mattresses, one kind of which is called 'the Excelsior,' are also coming much into use. These spring mattresses are usually covered with another thin mattress stuffed with hair or wool, feather-beds being now rarely used.

Mats and Pillows in Warm Countries.—In most parts of Africa, and the tropical and subtropical islands of the Pacific Ocean, it is a common custom

from the roofs of tents or from trees. At least one form of the ancient Egyptian bedstead appears to have been like the one still common in that country, namely, a low frame formed of wicker-work of palm-sticks. Much more curious, however, is the pillow used in Egypt in ancient times, since it forms the type of many used at the present time in far-distant countries. These Egyptian pillows or head-rests were generally made of wood, but sometimes of alabaster or earthenware. Fig. 3, c, represents one of wood, from the Tombs of Thebes. The same kind of wooden pillow or support for the head is still found in Abyssinia, the delta of the Zambesi, and in that direction as far south as Swaziland. It is also used in the country around Lake Tanganyika, in Ashanti, and in other parts of Africa. Much the same form of head-rest is made in the Fiji Islands, in Tahiti, and in New Guinea; while in China and Japan we find a somewhat similar pillow of wood, lacquered it may be, with a small cylindrical cushion on the top. The preceding figures show several of these pillows.

Bed, or STRATUM, is a layer of rock of similar materials, and of some thickness, cohering more or less firmly together, as a rule. Of course, in the case of soft unconsolidated strata, the materials of a bed may not be coherent. Beds are often composed of many fine laminae or plates. The laminae are the results of intermissions in the supply of materials, produced by such causes as the ebb and flow of the tide, river-floods, or the more or less turbid state of the water under which they were deposited. When the intervals between the supply of materials were short, the numerous laminae closely adhere, and form a bed cut off from the superior deposit, by the occurrence of a longer interval, during which the bed became consolidated more or less before the next was deposited. When the lamination is obscure, or not distinct from the stratification, it would seem to indicate that the materials had been supplied without any intermission.

Bédarieux, a town of France, department of Hérault, situated on the river Orb, 26½ miles NNW. of Béziers by rail. It is neat and well built, with manufactures of cloths and woollen goods, hats, paper, leather, and oils. There are glass-works, and a copper-foundry at Clairac in the neighbourhood. Pop. (1881) 6397.

Bedchamber, LORDS OF THE, officers in the British royal household, twelve in number, who, in the reign of a king, wait in turn upon the sovereign's person. They are under the groom of the stole, who attends his majesty only on state occasions. There are also thirteen grooms of the bedchamber, who take their turns of attendance. The salary of the groom of the stole is £2000; of the lords of the bedchamber, £1000; and of the grooms, £500 a year. These offices in the reign of a queen are performed by ladies. Corresponding to the groom of the stole is the mistress of the robes, and to the grooms of the bedchamber are bedchamber women. These offices are objects of high ambition, from the access they give to the person of the sovereign, and are for the most part filled by 'the prime nobility of England.' In 1839 the queen's refusal to part with the ladies of her bedchamber, on the occasion of a change of government, led to Sir Robert Peel's declining to form a ministry, and to Lord Melbourne's return to office.

Beddoe, JOHN, anthropologist, born at Bewdley, Worcestershire, in 1826, was educated at Bridgnorth, University College, London, and Edinburgh University, graduating B.A. of London in 1851, and M.D. of Edinburgh in 1853. He served as a civil surgeon during the Crimean war, and afterwards established himself in practice at Clifton. He is the author of *Stature and Bulk of Man in the*

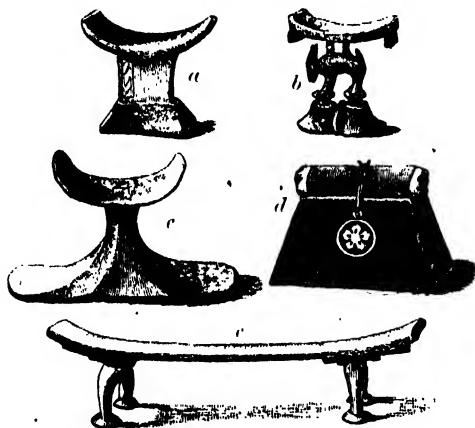


Fig. 3.—Various forms of Pillows:

a, pillow used by the natives of the Zambesi Delta; b, from Swaziland, South-east Africa; c, ancient wooden pillow from the Tombs of Thebes; d, Japanese lacquered wooden pillow with cushion; e, wooden pillow from Fiji Islands.

to sleep on mats of some vegetable fibre, but sometimes skins are used for this purpose. Many South American Indians sleep on hammocks suspended

British Isles (1870), *The Races of Britain* (1886), and other anthropological and ethnological works.

Beddoes, THOMAS, physician, born at Shiffnal, Shropshire, in 1760, passed from Bridgnorth grammar-school to Pembroke College, Oxford, and afterwards studied medicine at Edinburgh and London. In 1788, after taking his M.D. at Oxford, he was appointed reader in chemistry there, but his sympathies with the French Revolution rendered his post so uncomfortable that he resigned it in 1792, and retiring into the country, wrote his work *On the Nature of Demonstrative Evidence*. Several patriotic pamphlets followed, and the *History of Isaac Jenkins*, in which he laid down, in a popular style, rules of sobriety, health, &c. for the working-classes. Of this work 40,000 copies were sold in a short time. He married Anna, sister of Maria Edgeworth. In 1798, after careful study of the use of artificial or medicated gases in the cure of diseases, especially consumption, aided by his father-in-law, Mr Edgeworth, and pecuniarily assisted by his friend, Thomas Wedgwood, he opened a 'pneumatic' hospital at Clifton. It did not succeed in its main object, which was to show that all diseases being referable to an undue proportion or deficiency of some elementary principle in the human organism, could be cured by breathing a medicated atmosphere; and Beddoes, whose zeal had abated, retired from it in 1801. He died 24th December 1808. The chief result of Beddoes' enterprise was the introduction to the world of Sir Humphry Davy, who was the superintendent of the institution, and who says of Beddoes: 'He had talents which would have exalted him to the pinnacle of philosophical eminence, if they had been applied with discretion;' and Southey wrote on hearing of his death: 'From Beddoes I hoped for more good to the human race than any other individual.' See the Life of Beddoes by Dr Stock (1811).

Beddoes, THOMAS LOVELL, eldest son of the above, and nephew of Maria Edgeworth, was born at Clifton, 20th July 1803. From Bath grammar-school he passed in 1817 to the Charterhouse, and thence in 1820 to Pembroke College, Oxford. In 1822 he published *The Bride's Tragedy*, which achieved a brilliant success. In 1825 he went to Göttingen to study medicine, and thenceforth led a strange wandering life as doctor and democrat, in Germany and Switzerland, with occasional visits to England. Suffering from blood-poisoning, and from the amputation of a leg, he died in the hospital at Basel, 26th January 1849. From 1825 he was engaged at intervals in the composition of a drama, *Death's Jest-book*, which, with his poems and a memoir by T. F. Kelsall, appeared in two posthumous volumes (1850-51). The merits of these dramatic fragments are peculiar. They exhibit no power of characterisation, no ability in the conduct of a story; but the fullness of thought and image, the tone of music, and the depth of colour are marvellous.

Bede, or BÆDA, the VENERABLE, the greatest name in the ancient literature of England, was born in the neighbourhood of Monkwearmouth, in the county of Durham, about the year 673 A.D. He was educated under the care of the learned and liberal abbot, Benedict Biscop, and his successor, Ceolfrid, in the Benedictine abbey at Monkwearmouth, to which the young scholar came an orphan child in his seventh year. Ultimately he entered the monastery at Jarrow, an offshoot of the same foundation, and here he remained until his death. Here he took deacon's orders in his nineteenth year, and was ordained priest in his thirtieth, by John of Beverley, then Bishop of Hexham. In the shelter of his quiet and sacred retreat he devoted

himself to study, while he was diligent in observing the discipline of his order, as well as in the daily service of the monastery church. His industry was enormous, and he was continually employed in reading, writing, and teaching. Besides Latin and Greek, classical as well as patristic literature, he studied Hebrew, medicine, astronomy, and prosody. He wrote homilies, lives of saints, hymns, epigrams, works on chronology and grammar, and commentaries on the books of the Old and New Testament. His calm and gentle spirit, the humanising character of his pursuits, and the holiness of his life, present a striking contrast to the turbulent temper of his time. When labouring under disease, and near the close of his life, he engaged in a translation of St John's Gospel into Anglo-Saxon, and dictated his version to his pupils. The well-known story of how he finished the last sentence of his version on the very day of his death casts a light on the serene and simple piety of his life. His brethren had all gone to the festival, and he was left alone with the scribe. 'Dearest master,' said the latter, 'there is one chapter wanting, and it is hard for thee to question thyself.' 'No, it is easy,' said he; 'take thy pen and write quickly.' When evening came, the young scribe said, 'There is yet one more sentence, dear master, to write out.' He answered, 'Write quickly.' Shortly after the boy said, 'Now it is finished.' 'Well,' said the aged saint, 'thou hast spoken truly "it is finished."' Then he bade them place him where he could look on the spot on which he was wont to kneel in prayer. Then he chanted the *Gloria Patri*, and as he uttered the words 'the Holy Ghost,' he breathed his last, and 'so passed to the kingdom in heaven,' on the day of the Feast of the Ascension, 26th May 735. He was buried in the monastery of Jarrow; long afterwards (in the middle of the 11th century) his bones were removed to Durham. His most valuable work is the *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum*, an ecclesiastical history of England, in five books, to which we are indebted for almost all our information on the ancient history of England down to 731 A.D. Bede gained the materials for this work partly from Roman writers, but chiefly from native chronicles and biographies, records and public documents, and oral and written communications from his contemporaries. King Alfred translated it into Anglo-Saxon. At the close of his great work he gives the names of the thirty-seven books which he had written up to 731. His *De Sex Aetatibus Mundi* was an important book in chronology. 'First,' says Green, 'among English scholars, first among English theologians, first among English historians, it is in the monk of Jarrow that English literature strikes its roots. In the six hundred scholars who gathered round him for instruction, he is the father of our national education.' Among the editions of Bede's History may be noticed: the first, supposed to have been printed at Strasburg about 1473, others, more correct, at the same place, in 1483 and in 1500; a much better edition, by Canon J. Smith (Cambridge, 1722); one not less valuable, by J. Stevenson (2 vols. Lond. 1838); another, by the late Dr Hussey (Oxford, 1846); that by G. H. Moberley at the Clarendon Press (1869); and that by Holder (Freiburg, 1882). Editions of his complete works have been published in Paris (6 vols. folio, 1544-45), Basel (8 vols. folio, 1563), Cologne (1612 and 1688), at London in 12 vols. by Dr Giles (1843-44), and at Paris by J. P. Migne as vols. xc.-xcv. in the *Patrologia Cursus Completus* (1844). English versions of the *Ecclesiastical History* were published by Stapleton in 1655; by Stevens in 1723; by Hurst in 1814; by Dr Giles in 1840; and by L. Gidley (1870). See also H. H. Hanson's *Essays on Bede's Ecclesiastical History* (1888).

Bedeau, MARIE ALPHONSE, a French general, born near Nantes in 1804, entered the army in 1825. Sent in 1836 to Algeria, as commandant of a battalion he took part in most of the military operations, and in 1847 was for three months governor of Algeria. In 1848 he was commissioned by Marshal Bugeaud to suppress the February revolution in Paris, but failed. He took office under the Provisional Government, and was named vice-president of the Constituent Assembly, always voting with the Republican party. Along with Cavaignac and Lamoricière he was arrested in December 1851, and went into exile; he died at Nantes, 30th October 1863.

Bedeguar (Persian and Arabic *bādīwār*, literally 'wind-brought'; sometimes explained as made up of Persian *bād*, 'wind,' and Arabic *ward*, 'rose'), a remarkable Gall (q.v.) of roundish shape, but covered with shaggy branched processes, like those familiar in the moss-rose, often found on the branches of various species of rose, particularly of the sweet-brier, upon which account it is sometimes called sweet-brier sponge. Although of course sharing the astringent properties of galls in general, it has long ceased to be of any medicinal repute.

Bedell, WILLIAM, Bishop, born at Black Notley, Essex, in 1571, was educated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge. From 1602 to 1613 he was incumbent of St Mary's at Bury St Edmunds, save that during 1607-11 he was chaplain to Sir Henry Wotton, the British ambassador to Venice, where he made the friendship of Father Paul Sarpi. In 1616 he retired to the neighbouring parish of Horningsheath, whence in 1627 he was called to become provost of Trinity College, Dublin. Two years afterwards he was promoted to the united bishoprics of Kilmore and Ardagh, the latter of which he resigned in 1633. He immediately set himself to reform the crying abuses that prevailed in his diocese, and with so happy a combination of wisdom, firmness, and charity, that even his enemies were constrained to do homage to his virtues. The translation of the Old Testament into Irish was accomplished under Bedell's direction (the New had been already translated). On the breaking out of the rebellion in 1641, his popularity for some time saved his family from violence, his being the only English house in County Cavan that was spared. At length he was seized and imprisoned in Loughoughter Castle. He was soon allowed to remove to the house of a Protestant clergyman at Drumlor, but there catching a fever, he died 7th February 1642. See the *Life* by his son, edited by T. W. Jones for the Camden Society (1872).

Bedford, the county town of Bedfordshire, is situated on the navigable Ouse, 49 miles NNW. of London by rail, and in the midst of a broad expanse of rich pasture and corn lands. The Ouse is spanned here by two bridges—a stone one of five arches, 306 feet long, built in 1811 at a cost of £15,000, and an iron one, built in 1883 at a cost of £6000. Bedford itself is clean and well paved, and the drainage and water-supply have been greatly improved. The charitable and educational institutions are mostly due to Sir W. Harpur, Lord Mayor of London (d. 1574). He in 1566 founded a free school, and endowed it with 13 acres of land in Holborn. The enormously increased value of the property (from £150 to £15,000 a year) enables the trustees to maintain grammar, modern, and preparatory schools for boys, the same class of schools for girls, and almshouses. Under the scheme (1874) of the Endowed School Commissioners, the funds are divided thus: One-eleventh to the almshouses; two-elevenths to elementary education;

four-elevenths to the grammar-school and high-school for girls; and four-elevenths to the modern schools. The county school was opened in 1869. The chief manufacture is that of agricultural implements. Lace-making is also carried on; straw-plaiting has declined. An embankment beside the Ouse forms a pretty promenade; and a people's park has been opened. Bedford returns one member (till 1885 two) to parliament. Pop. (1851) 12,693; (1881) 19,532. Bedford is of great antiquity, and is mentioned in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* under the name of Bedican-fortha, as the scene of a battle between the Britons and Saxons in 571. The Danes burnt it in 1010. Afterwards its old castle, said to have been built by Edward the Elder, is frequently mentioned in history. Bunyan (q.v.), who was born at Elstow, near Bedford, was for twelve years a prisoner in Bedford gaol, and ministered to the Nonconformist congregation in Mill Lane from 1672 to his death in 1688. His chapel has been twice rebuilt, in 1707 and 1849; but his chair and other relics of him are preserved; whilst a colossal bronze statue of him by Boehm was erected at the cost of the Duke of Bedford in 1874.

Bedford, JOHN, DUKE OF, third son of Henry IV., was born about 1389. During his father's lifetime, he was governor of Berwick-upon-Tweed, and warden of the Scottish marches. In 1415 his brother Henry V. created him Duke of Bedford; and during the war with France he was left in command of the forces in England. After Henry's death (1422), in accordance with his dying wish, Bedford resigned the affairs of England to his brother Gloucester, and went to France to look after the interests of the infant prince, their nephew. The regency of France he offered to the Duke of Burgundy, who refused it; he then assumed it himself, but not without consulting Burgundy as to the best method of carrying out the treaty of Troyes, by which Charles VI. declared Henry V. next heir to the French crown. On the death of Charles, a few months after Henry V., Bedford had his nephew proclaimed king of France and England, as Henry VI. In the wars with the dauphin which followed, Bedford displayed great generalship, and defeated the French in several battles—most disastrously at Verneuil in 1424. But, in consequence of the rather parsimonious way in which men and money were doled out to him from England, and the withdrawal of the forces of the Duke of Burgundy, he was unable to take full advantage of his victories. The appearance of Joan of Arc, notwithstanding his utmost energy, was followed by disaster to the English arms; and in 1435 a treaty of peace was negotiated at Rouen between Charles VII. and the Duke of Burgundy, which effectually ruined English interests in France. The death of Bedford, which took place September 19, 1435, fourteen days before the ratification of that treaty, was mainly, if not altogether, occasioned by his anxiety and vexation on account of the union thus formed. Bedford, who was a patron of letters, purchased and removed to London the Royal Library of Paris, consisting of 900 volumes. For the present dukedom of Bedford, see RUSSELL.

Bedford Level, an extensive tract of flat land in the east of England, embracing nearly all the marshy district called the Fens. It extends inland around the Wash into the six counties of Northampton, Huntingdon, Cambridge, Lincoln, Norfolk, and Suffolk, and has an area of about 750,000 acres. Its inland boundary forms a horseshoe of high lands, and reaches the towns or villages of Brandon, Milton (near Cambridge), Earith, Peterborough, and Bolingbroke. It is divided into three parts—the north level, between

the rivers Welland and Nene; the middle, between the Nene and the Old Bedford River; and the south, extending to Stoke, Feltwell, and Mildenhall. It is intersected by many artificial channels, as well as by the lower parts of the rivers Nene, Cam, Ouse (Great and Little), Welland, Glen, Lark, and Stoka. It receives the waters of the whole or parts of nine counties. This district seems to have been a great forest at the time of the Romans, who cut the forest down, formed great embankments to exclude the tide, and rendered the tract for a time a fertile inhabited region. In the 13th century, violent incursions of the sea stopped the outflow of the rivers, and it became a morass. The practicability of draining this extensive region seems to have been thought of as early as 1436, and many partial attempts were made after this. The first effectual effort was in 1634, when Francis, Earl of Bedford, after whom the district was thenceforth called, obtained, along with thirteen others, a grant of 95,000 acres of the reclaimed land on condition of draining the level. The work was partially accomplished in three years, at a cost of £100,000; but was pronounced inadequate by government. Charles I. tried to get the work, with a greatly increased premium, into his own hands; but the civil war stopped further progress. In 1649 parliament confirmed William, Earl of Bedford, in the rights granted to his father; and after a fresh outlay of £300,000, the contract was fulfilled. In 1688 a corporation was formed for the management of the level. The middle level has always been the most difficult to manage; and the work on it, with one drain 11 miles long, was only completed in 1852 at a cost of £400,000. The St Germain's sluice, at the confluence of that drain with the Ouse, was considered perfectly secure. But in May 1862 it gave way under the pressure of a strong tide, and the western bank of the middle-level drain burst, speedily flooding about 6000 acres of fertile land. This led to the construction of a permanent cofferdam of pile-work to shut off the tidal waters; and for the drainage of the middle level, Slater's Lode sluice, the old outlet to the Ouse, was taken advantage of; and siphon pipes were laid over the cofferdam, the flood-waters let off by them and by drains; the siphons acting as a permanent sluice. See Heathcote's *Reminiscences of Fen and Mere* (1876).

Bedfordshire, a midland county of England, surrounded by Huntingdon, Cambridgeshire, Herts, Bucks, and Northamptonshire. It stands 37th of the 40 English counties in size, and 36th in population. Extreme length, 31 miles; breadth, 25; area, 461 sq. m. The general surface is level, with gentle undulations. In the south, a range of chalk-hills, branching from the Chilterns, crosses Bedfordshire in a north-east direction from Dunstable, and another parallel range runs from Ampthill to near the junction of the Ivel with the Ouse. Between the latter ridge and the north-west part of the county, where the land is also somewhat hilly, lies the corn vale of Bedford. No hill in Bedfordshire much exceeds 500 feet in height. The chief rivers are the Ouse (running through the centre of the county, 17 miles in a direct line, but 45 by its windings), navigable to Bedford; and its tributary, the Ivel, navigable to Shefford. By these rivers Bedfordshire communicates with the counties of Cambridge, Huntingdon, and Norfolk. The south and south-east parts of the county consist of chalk, and the north and north-west of oolitic strata. Freestone is quarried, as well as chalk or clunch, to be burnt for lime. The soil varies greatly. In the south of the county it is chalk thinly covered with earth, and fit only for sheep-walks; but three-fourths of the county is

clay, which is very stiff between the Ivel and Ouse. A rich gravelly loam exists along the rivers. In the vale of Bedford the soil is chiefly rich clay and deep loam; and to the north the clay is stiff, poor, and wet. There are extensive market-gardens, especially on the rich deep loams. Bedfordshire is the most exclusively agricultural county in England, its cultivated area being 88.1 per cent., against 79.3 for the whole kingdom. Pop. (1801) 63,393; (1841) 107,936; (1881) 149,473. The principal proprietor is the Duke of Bedford; and his seat, Woburn Abbey, is the chief mansion. Lace-making and straw-plaiting—for which Dunstable is celebrated—are leading industries, and they are carried on almost entirely by women. Bedfordshire is divided into nine hundreds and 122 parishes. Two members of parliament are returned for the county of Bedfordshire, one for the Biggleswade, and one for the Luton division. Many British and Roman antiquities exist in the county, as well as the ruins of several monasteries, and some fine relics of Romanesque and Gothic architecture among the parish churches. Three Roman roads crossed the county, and several earthwork camps remain.

Bedlam (now officially written *Bethlem*), the London lunatic asylum, originally founded in 1247 as a priory at Bishopsgate, its mother-church being St Mary's of Bethlehem (or Bedleem in Wyclif's spelling). It is spoken of as a hospital for lunatics in 1472, and as such it was granted at the dissolution to the mayor and citizens of London, being incorporated as a royal foundation in 1547. In 1676 it was transferred to Moorfields, and in 1815 to St George's Fields, Lambeth. This the present hospital was extended in 1838; but when Broadmoor was built in 1863, the criminal wings were pulled down, so that it now accommodates 300 patients. In the old Moorfields days, the management of Bedlam was deplorable. The patients were exhibited to the public, like wild beasts, as we see in Hogarth's picture, and read in Pepys and Boswell; whilst partial convalescents, with badges on their arms, were turned out to wander and beg in the streets. Edgar, in *King Lear*, personates one of these 'Tom-o-Bedlams.' This practice, however, would seem to have been stopped by 1675.

Bedlington Terrier, a breed originated about the beginning of the 19th century by Mr Aynsley of Bedlington, near Morpeth, in Northumberland, to which county it was almost entirely confined for many years. Its chief points are the following: Muzzle, long and fine, but very powerful; head, high in the skull and rather narrow, the hair on the top being softer and of a lighter colour than on the rest of the body; eyes, small, dark, and slightly sunk; ears, rather large and filbert-shaped, hanging close to the cheeks, and slightly feathered; neck, long, slender, but muscular; body, well proportioned, and deep chested, though rather lightly ribbed; legs, straight and somewhat long; tail, of moderate length, tapering to a point, with no feather; coat, fine but not soft, short and rather thin; colour, liver or sandy, with flesh-coloured nose, or blue-black, with black nose, the latter being the commoner colour; weight, from 16 to 20 lb.; height, 13 inches. The Bedlington terrier is remarkably high couraged, and makes a splendid vermin dog, on account of its activity and pluck, and will face even an otter or badger without flinching. It also makes a capital water-dog, and may be broken to the gun, for which purpose its speed and cleverness make it highly useful.

Bedmar, ALFONSO DE CUEVA, MARQUIS DE, born in 1572, won an enduring notoriety on account

of his daring and unscrupulous plot for the destruction of Venice, to which city he had been appointed ambassador from the court of Spain in 1607. He first leagued himself secretly with the Duke of Ossuna, viceroy of Naples, and Don Pedro of Toledo, governor of Milan, then purchased the services of a large number of foreign mercenaries, while Ossuna furnished him with a band of privateers, or rather pirates. The day chosen for carrying out his purpose was that on which the doge wedded the Adriatic, when all Venice was intent on beholding the august ceremony. Fortunately, the night before, one of the conspirators betrayed the plot. Several persons were executed; but curiously enough, Bedmar, the arch-delinquent, was only dismissed. The event forms the subject of Otway's *Venice Preserved*. Bedmar now went to Flanders, where he became president of the council, and in 1622 was made a cardinal by the pope. He then went to Rome, and finally returned to Spain as Bishop of Oviedo, where he died in 1655.

Bednor', BEDNUR, or NAGAR, a decayed city, now a village, of Mysore, India, situated in the midst of a basin in a rugged tableland of the Western Ghats, at an elevation of more than 4000 feet above the sea, 150 miles NW. of Seringapatam. It was at one time the seat of government of a rajah, and its pop. exceeded 100,000. In 1763 it was taken by Hyder Ali, who pillaged it of property to the estimated value of £12,000,000, and subsequently established an arsenal here.

Bed of Justice (Fr. *lit de justice*), literally, the seat or throne occupied by the French monarch when he was present at the deliberations of parliament. Historically, a bed of justice signified a solemn session, in which the king was present to overrule the decisions of parliament, and to enforce the acceptance of edicts or ordinances which it had previously rejected. The theory of the old French constitution was that the authority of parliament was derived solely from the crown; consequently, when the king, the source of authority, was present, that which was delegated ceased. Acknowledging such a principle, the parliament was logically incapable of resisting any demand that the king in a bed of justice might make, and decrees promulgated during a sitting of this kind were held to be of more authority than ordinary decisions of parliament. Monarchs were not slow to take advantage of this power to overawe any parliament that exhibited signs of independence. The last bed of justice was held by Louis XVI. at Versailles in September 1787, when the whole parliament were arrested and confined in prisons in different parts of France.

Bedos de Celles, DOM FRANÇOIS, a Benedictine monk of the congregation of St Maur, and the most learned and practical master of the art of organ-building in the 18th century. He was born at Caux in 1706, and entered his order in 1726 at Toulouse. He was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences in 1758; in 1766-78 was published for the academy his great work, *L'Art du Facteur d'Orgues*, in 4 vols. large folio, with 137 copperplates, beautifully executed. He died in 1779.

Bed'ouins (Arab. *Bedawi*, 'dwellers in the desert') are Arabs who lead a nomadic life. The most ancient notices found in Scripture agree, in their descriptions of the manners and customs of the Bedouins, with the facts of the present time. As nomads, the Bedouin Arabs have no united history, but only a collection of genealogies. They have but seldom appeared as a united people taking a prominent part in the world's politics, and have never been entirely held in subjection by any

foreign power. The desert of Arabia is their central place of abode; but even in ancient times they had spread themselves over the deserts of Egypt and Syria; and in later times they entered Mesopotamia and Chaldea. The conquest of Northern Africa in the 7th century opened up to them still vaster tracts. At present they are to be found from the western boundary of Persia to the Atlantic, and from the mountains of Kurdistan to the negro countries of Soudan. In the cultivated lands of Mesopotamia, Chaldea, the Syrian confines, Barbary, Nubia, and the north of Soudan, the Arabs are found intermingled with other nations; but in the deserts they have maintained their distinct character and independence. They form a seventh part of the population of Arabia. The characteristics of the Bedouins, as herdsmen and robbers in the desert, are intimately connected with the nature of their habitation. Their abstinent, precarious, and often solitary mode of life makes them disposed to exercise mutual hospitality; but their independence, love of liberty, and other good qualities, are associated with violent passions and an infamous love of plunder, reckless of the rights of property. They are lean, sinewy, and active, but commonly below middle stature. Their senses, especially sight, are keen; the nose is commonly aquiline; in complexion they are of various shades of brown. With the exception of certain tribes in Syria, all the Bedouins are professedly Mohammedans, but are as much Sabaeans, and have, beyond a belief in one God, extremely little religion. Clergy are unknown, except where dread of the Wahabists extends. Though the Bedouin's intellectual powers are naturally good, they are miserably destitute of solid knowledge. Their endless tales and poetical effusions show a wonderful activity of imagination and an oriental love of hyperbole. The relation of the sexes to each other is less constrained than among the settled peoples of the East. Bigamy is rare, polygamy scarcely known; divorce of the wife is extremely common and easy. Their diet is principally derived from their herds, but includes rice, a few vegetables, honey, locusts, and even lizards. They manufacture their own woollen clothing. Many tribes shave the head; but among all the beard is a favourite object of cultivation. The political condition of the Bedouin is patriarchal. One or more families form the core of a tribe, and constitute a kind of aristocracy. Out of their number the superior *sheikh* is elected, who leads those of the tribe that choose to follow, and the *kadi*, who judges between such litigants as accept his award. But custom is law, and each tribesman is his own executive. This sketch of the Bedouin applies chiefly to the true nomads, or 'dwellers in the desert,' and is subject to modifications with regard to tribes in Barbary, Syria, and Mesopotamia, who practise agriculture, and dwell in houses.

Bed-sores are often a very troublesome complication of disease, to which a patient is liable when, confined for a long time to bed, he is either unable or is not allowed to change his position. They attack the skin over bony prominences, especially the lower parts of the spine, the haunch bones, the heel, and the elbow. The skin becomes red at first, and its surface is gradually abraded; this may end in the death of a portion of the skin, which separates as a *slough*, and a deep ulcer appears beneath it. General debility, the continued fevers (especially typhoid), paralysis, and old age, are strong predisposing causes. The immediate causes are continuous pressure on the affected parts and a lack of care in nursing; as, for instance, incomplete cleanliness, where the evacuations escape involuntarily, and where

the undersheet is not kept smooth and free from irritating particles. The patient sometimes complains of a sense of discomfort at the parts, as if he were lying on dry crumbs of bread; at other times, he seems to feel nothing. Hence, in all cases of prolonged confinement to bed, the parts naturally pressed upon by the weight of the body should be carefully examined every day or two, as prevention is far easier than cure. When a long confinement to bed is expected, attempts should be made to thicken the cuticle, and enable it to bear pressure better, by rubbing the skin with a stimulant such as spirits or eau-de-Cologne. If the part, when first seen, looks red and rough, further damage is often prevented by covering it with a piece of calico, on which soap-plaster has been spread; the local pressure may be removed by air-cushions specially constructed for cases of this kind, and in many instances Arnott's Water-bed (q.v.) affords great comfort. If the case is one in which it is admissible, the patient should be made to alter his position frequently. Should an abrasion form, it must be painted over with a layer of collodion, which forms a protective covering to the part; at this stage, also, all pressure must be removed from the part if possible. When the dusky colour of an insulated piece of skin shows that a *slough* is forming, a water-dressing must be applied and renewed every eight hours. It consists of four layers of borie lint cut a little larger than the size of the livid portion of skin. The lint, wrung out of hot water, is covered by a piece of oiled silk that overlaps it for half an inch in every direction. When the slough separates, a similar dressing should be continued for the ulcer, on the surface of which a little iodoform is sprinkled before the water-dressing is applied. In severe cases, where there is enlargement of the sores, or increased discharge from them, a 'prone couch' should be used, on which the patient lies on his face. This gives great relief, and allows healing to take place.

Bedstraw (*Galium*), a genus of Rubiaceæ (q.v.). The species are very numerous, natives chiefly of the colder parts of the northern hemisphere, or of mountainous regions within or near



A, Common Great Bedstraw (*Galium clatum*);
B, Yellow Bedstraw (*Galium verum*).
a, flower; b, fruit.

the tropics. About eleven species are found in Britain, some of them very common weeds. Amongst these is the Ladies' Bedstraw, or Yellow Bedstraw (*G. verum*)—sometimes called Cheese

Rennet, because it has the property of curdling milk, and has been long used for that purpose (whence the generic name from Gr. *gála*, 'milk')—a small plant with linear deflexed leaves and dense panicles of bright yellow flowers, very abundant on dry banks. The flowering tops, boiled in alum, furnish the Icelanders with a bright yellow dye; while the Highlanders used to employ the root-stock for dyeing yarn red. Their colour being essentially that of the allied madder, the cultivation of the plant was attempted many years ago. Certain North American species, especially *G. tinctorium* and *G. septentrionale*, have been used in the same way. Like madder, they possess the property of imparting a red colour to the bones and milk of animals which feed upon them. Medicinal virtues were ascribed to some of the species, as *G. rigidum* and *G. mollugo*. The roasted seeds of some, as *G. aparine*, the troublesome Goosegrass, or Cleavers, of our hedges—remarkable for the hooked prickles of its stem, leaves, and fruit—have been recommended as a substitute for coffee; but it does not appear that they contain any principle analogous to caffeine. Its expressed juice is in some countries a popular remedy for cutaneous disorders, and is used as a safe and efficient diuretic. The roots of *G. tuberosum* are farinaceous, and it is cultivated in China for food. The name *bedstraw* is due to the old legendary name of one of the species, 'Our Lady's Bedstraw,' analogous to 'Our Lady's Garters, Mantle, Slippers,' &c.

Bedworth, a market-town of Warwickshire, 3 miles S. of Nuneaton. Pop. of parish, (1881) 5375.

Bee. Bees form a family of insects belonging to the order Hymenoptera, and to the same sub-order as the wasps and ants. Like other Hymenoptera, they possess four membranous naked wings with well-developed nervures, and mouth organs, in part at least, adapted for biting. The head is freely attached to the middle part of the body—the thorax, and the first ring of the latter (the prothorax) is much reduced. The life-history exhibits a complete metamorphosis. In the special sub-order to which bees belong (Aculeata), the imperfect females (workers) have a poisonous sting at the posterior end of the body, and their feelers or antennæ have twelve joints, one fewer than in the males. The posterior part of the body—the abdomen—is distinctly stalked; the legs and mouth-parts are modified in relation to their diet of nectar and pollen. The larvae are footless grubs, and are usually hatched in special cells. A high degree of social life and intelligence is very frequent.

History.—Bees must have been among the first insects to engage human attention. Their comparatively large size, abundant occurrence, social life, and honey-storing habits appear to have been from very early times facts of common observation. Aristotle has gathered up some of the opinions of his contemporaries in regard to bees—opinions, however, in which much fancy is mingled with some acute observations. Virgil has described the habits of bees in his fourth Georgic with all the license of a poet and the enthusiasm of a lover of nature. Pliny repeats, as he was wont, all the floating bee-gossip of his time, but without criticism or analysis. For about fourteen centuries after Pliny, bees were unmolested by the naturalist, and were, as far as we know, only thought of as the sources of occasional luxury. With the Renaissance, however, the natural history of bees became again the subject of study. Works by Edward Wotton and Conrad Gesner contain numerous trustworthy observations, and were the preface to a series of careful studies by

various naturalists in the latter half of the 17th century. Conspicuous among these are the works of Swammerdam (*General History of Insects*, 1669); the memoirs of Maraldi (1712), who is said to have been the first to use glass-hives; and the clear observations of John Ray and his friend Willughby. On a higher plane of detailed anatomical research stands the immortal work of Réaumur (*Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire des Insectes*, 1732-44), from which the systematic and thoroughly scientific study of bees may be said to date. His contemporary Bonnet also was the author of numerous important observations; while among the crowd of naturalists who have worthily continued the researches of Réaumur, the patient and ingenious Hübner is undoubtedly pre-eminent (*Nouvelles Observations sur les Abeilles*, 1814). The more modern experimental method of investigation is well represented by Sir J. Lubbock's researches (see *Ants, Bees, and Wasps*).

Form and Structure.—Before noting the more important features in the anatomy of the bee, it is necessary to recall the familiar fact that many kinds of bees are social, that is to say that they live in communities. The following observations apply to the hive-bee. As in the case of ants, various sets of members have come to discharge special functions, and the result of this division of labour has been difference of form, or polymorphism. In fact, the result of restricted function has been the establishment of castes. Thus the ordinary hive contains (1) a single queen-bee—the fertile female and mother of the next brood, (2) the males or drones, and (3) the vast majority of workers or imperfectly developed females, which only exceptionally become fertile. In describing the anatomy, the ordinary hive-bee (*Apis mellifica*, L.) will be principally referred to. Like that of other insects, the body of the bee is readily divisible into three portions—head, thorax, and abdomen. The *head* is well defined from the body, and bears the organs of sight, touch, mastication, and honey-collecting. There are two compound eyes, borne on the sides of the head. They are largest in the males, and meet on the crown. Besides these there are, on the top of the head, three *eye-spots* or ocelli, concerning the exact function of which there is some difference of opinion. Below the eyes are (1) two jointed feelers or antennae, most essential organs of sensation. The basal joint is much the largest, and the stalk formed from the eleven or twelve smaller ones extends outwards at a sort of knee-like angle (geniculate). In the antennae of the males there are thirteen joints; in those of the females, twelve. (2) Next come the horny, toothed mandibles, freely articulated to the head, and well adapted for cutting the resinous cement or propolis into shapes, for the finer work of handling the pollen, for biting through the corollas and other obstructions of flowers, and the like. The other two pairs of head appendages are greatly modified for collecting the nectar from the flowers. (3) The *first pair of maxillae* are much elongated flattened blades, embracing the second pair, and forming the outer sheath of the proboscis, as the entire collecting organ is called. They form the outer wall of a sort of suction-tube. The tips of these blades, however, remain sharp, and act as efficient piercing organs. The external portions of this first pair of maxillae, the so-called maxillary palps, degenerate, and only remain as much-reduced structures with a few joints. (4) The fused basal portion of the *second pair of maxillae*, the *mentum*, as it is called, is in movable membranous and elastic connection with the cardines or bases of the first pair.

This mentum bears internally the long structure known as the *ligula* or *tongue*. This is a much

elongated slender hairy organ of varying firmness throughout its course. It occupies a number of very different positions according to the business of the bee at the moment, but a description of these would involve inconvenient detail. The four main positions are very lucidly depicted in Hermann Müller's *Fertilisation of Flowers*. When at rest, the internal portion of the tongue is somewhat



Fig. 1.—Mouth Organs of Honey-bee (*Apis mellifica*):
a, tongue; b, b, labial palps; c, c, first maxillae.

curled up and retracted into the lower end of the mentum. It is capable of very rapid protrusion and of free motion in almost every direction. The external lateral portions or labial palps are comparatively small, and consist of two long and two short joints. Their tips remain as tactile organs, while their internal joints are elongated to form a sheath for the base of the tongue. Between the palps and the tongue there are also two very small structures known as *paraglossae*. The whole proboscis thus consists of hairy tongue, of minute paraglossae, of insheathing labial palps (all belonging to the second pair of maxillae), and further, of external maxillary blades and reduced palps belonging to the first pair. The hairs which cover the tongue appear to serve for the upward passage of honey. The successive whorls have been seen to be erected from before backwards so as gradually, but rapidly, to sweep the nectar to the mouth. The expanded lobe at the tip of the tongue is thrust into the nectar, and a little appears to pass up a central capillary tube to the taste organs, by which the bee determines whether the food does or does not suit its taste. The tip may also be used to lick flat surfaces. The upward passage of the nectar among the hairs on the outside of the tongue and within the outer sheath is doubtless helped by the sucking action of the sides of the body, and of the first part of the food-canal. According to a recent investigator (Breithaupt), the honey may pass up either by the great suction tube of the proboscis, or when that ceases to be efficient, by the capillary tube of the tongue, but the exact action of this complex and beautiful organ is not yet thoroughly understood. The tongue of the workers is twice as long as that of the queens or the drones, who do not collect honey.

The somewhat oval *thorax* bears the two pairs of wings and three pairs of legs, and consists of the usual three segments, of which the most anterior (the prothorax) is greatly reduced. The wings,

which are borne on the last two segments, are membranous and transparent. When at rest, they are folded together over the back; when in action, the two pairs are clasped together by means of small hooks on the fore margin of the hind pair. Perhaps it was this close union of the wings which suggested to Linnaeus the name Hymenoptera or 'welded-wings,' though the term may simply refer to the fact that the wings are membranous. The arrangement secures a very steady and rapid flight. The many-jointed mobile legs do not differ from those of other insects, except in the high development of pollen-collecting hairs. In the workers the hind pair of legs exhibit on their central joint a spoon-shaped cavity fringed with bristles, so as to form an efficient pollen-basket. The pollen is kneaded by mouth and fore-feet, and shifted by the middle pair of legs to the safe hollow behind. The two terminal claws of the feet are used when the bees climb and hang, while the membranous lobe between the hooks probably aids in handling minute bodies and in clambering on smooth slippery surfaces.

The *abdomen*, or posterior portion of the body, is joined to the thorax by a comparatively narrow bridge. The margins of successive segments overlap, and the whole region is capable of free respiratory movements. Like other parts of the body, the abdomen has a dark-brown colour, with somewhat lighter cross bands. The females bear at the end of the body an ovipositor or sting, which consists of a median piece deeply grooved on its lower surface and of two adjacent sharply pointed structures, which being apposed to the median piece, make the groove into a canal. The internal end of the canal thus formed is in connection with the female generative aperture, so that the eggs can pass neatly down from the body of the bee into the cell prepared as a cradle.

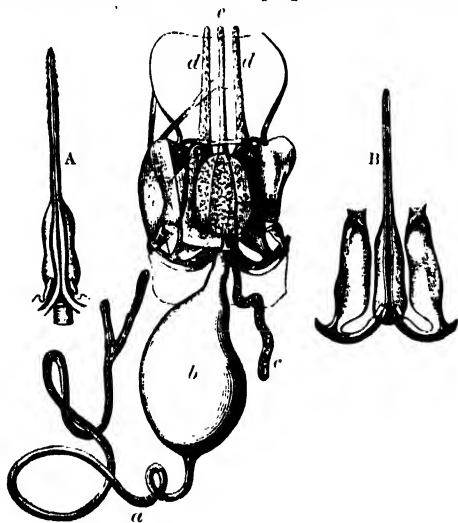


Fig. 2.—Sting of Worker-bee (*Apis mellifica*).
(After Kraepelin):

a, poison gland; b, poison bag; c, necessary gland; d, e, outer supporting pieces; e, inner sheath inclosing sting proper.
A, sting proper; B, sheath in which sting works, seen from below.

But the base is also connected with a poison-bag containing formic acid and other irritants, which are squeezed into the wound made by the sharp sting, and are the obvious causes of the familiar inflammation. In the queen-bees this specialisation of abdominal appendages forms a long, stout,

curved organ, which is occasionally used as a weapon in duels with rivals, but much more frequently for its main business as an egg-laying organ; in the workers it is rarely used except as a sting; in the drones it is represented by the external male genital organs.

The Internal Anatomy—The Food-canal.—The nectar drawn up by the proboscis passes into a short pharynx, and thence into the gullet or honey-bag. This forms a long slender tube dilating into a transparent bag, filled with honey in the bees returning heavy laden to the hive. On the anterior region of the gullet, near the mouth, are several pairs of lobed salivary glands, the secretion of which is used in kneading the pollen into pellets, and in the labour of cell-building. In the honey-bag the nectar begins to undergo chemical change, and so much of it passes onwards into the digestive (chylific) stomach. At the end of the stomach are the usual excretory (Malpighian) tubes, opening into the beginning of the intestine. This dilates into a rectum before ending at the anus.

The Nervous System.—As in other insects, the nervous system consists of a ganglionic mass above the gullet—the brain, and of a ventral chain of ganglia, of which the anterior are connected with the dorsal mass by means of a nerve-ring round the gullet. The two posterior ganglia in the thorax are fused into one, and beyond this are five or six abdominal ganglia. The presence of these separate nerve-centres or ganglia in the body explains the apparent vitality of bees and other insects for some little while after the removal of the head. Reference has been already made to the compound eyes and to the ocelli. The location of the sense of smell is doubtful, though apparently in one or more of the mouth appendages. The results of experiment as to the presence or absence of auditory organs are still for the most part negative.

The circulatory, respiratory, excretory, and reproductive systems do not differ markedly from those of other insects. The usual dorsal chambered heart is present. The main stems of the tracheae or air-tubes, by means of which the air passes throughout the whole body, are very large and dilatable, especially in the abdominal region. The buzzing of bees is partly due to the rapid movement of the wings, and partly to the vibration of the stigmatic membranes which guard the entrance to the air-tubes. The excretory system is represented by the long fine Malpighian tubes already noted as occurring at the beginning of the intestine. The queen is the only female with fully developed reproductive organs; the workers are infertile females, though the skilful dissections of Miss Jurine demonstrated the presence of small ovaries, from which drone-eggs are very exceptionally produced. This occasional fertility has been plausibly explained by supposing that some of the 'royal bread,' which is necessary to rear the queens, falls by chance into cells for which it was not intended, and thus affords a slight additional food-stimulus sufficient to insure in an ordinary worker-grub some development of reproductive organs. The fertile worker is said not to appear unless the hive has long been queenless; it has therefore been suggested that the desire for brood may have stimulated their reproductive development. The female reproductive organs of a queen-bee consist principally of ovaries, oviducts, ovipositor, and a storing chamber for the male elements, known as the spermi-reservoir or spermatheca.

Functions and Habits.—It has been already noted that the social life of bees has resulted in some division of labour. At the beginning of spring the hive contains a single queen and

a much-reduced contingent of workers. Their first care is to restore the normal population. Towards this end the queen lays numerous eggs which develop into *workers*. After the stock has been thus replenished, eggs are laid which turn out males or *drones*. After they begin to appear, eggs are laid which develop into more workers, and also into a few *queens*. The rapid increase of population culminates in the emigration known as *swarming*, when the old queen leads off a large contingent of subjects. The date of swarming is markedly affected by the temperature and the food-supply. The symptoms of emigration are such as these—a clustering of bees in small dense crowds outside the hive, a commotion among the drones, a suspension of the labours of the workers, the excitement of the queen-mother, and, in the case of second or third swarms, the piping of the still imprisoned young queens. She is exasperated by the presence of possible rivals in her own household, and would ruthlessly kill her royal children, were they not guarded by the workers. In the case of swarms centred around an old queen, it seems customary to send out scouts to explore the land before the bees take any decisive steps towards emigration. When at length the pressure and excitement has reached a climax, the emigrants rush out with great rapidity. They form a spreading crowd, concentrating, however, round the egg-laden queen, who is rarely able to fly far. During swarming, the bees are singularly quiet, and may be safely handled. Should the queen be lost or removed, the bees soon return much depressed to their old home. The workers seem to take with them a heavy load of honey, and they at once set about building a comb, in the first cells of which the queen, losing no time, lays some eggs. The disruption of swarming obviously robs the old hive of its queen, but there are princesses ready to be liberated, and these may soon lead off fresh swarms.

A populous stock will often send off three in rapid succession. When the season and necessity for swarming is past, the young queens that remain imprisoned in the royal cells are liberated at once and allowed to fight for the sovereignty. The survivor takes her nuptial flight. By one, or perhaps several, of the males she is impregnated, though some authorities believe that the fertilisation is effected by

drones from another hive. After impregnation has been accomplished, the young queen settles down to begin her egg-laying; she continues this throughout the rest of the summer. When swarming time is over, and the supply of honey decreases, the bees commence to rid the hives of the drones, henceforth mere useless consumers. They appear to drive them into a corner, and keep them without food until their powers of resistance are much weakened. They are then turned out of doors to perish, for the workers seem rarely to use their stings. Even the infant pupæ and the eggs are destroyed. The fact of this massacre

suggests the difficult problem of the meaning of so many males. Their number, of course, insures the fertilisation of the queen. Romanes suggests that the numerous drones represent a survival of past times when the society was less complex, and when the females were probably more numerous, and the males less idle. If there is any chance of drones being needed, when for instance the queen is barren, and fresh ones have to be reared and fertilised, they are allowed to live beyond their usual term. On the other hand, when unfavourable weather prevents swarming, the workers in their despair sometimes massacre the drones.

The queen-bees are reared from special eggs, which begin to be laid after the drones appear on the scene. According to some, the queen herself deposits in the special royal cells the eggs which develop into future queens; according to others, the workers shift the eggs into these specially large cradles. They develop very rapidly in consequence of rich nutrition, attaining their maturity in about sixteen days. The queen is always treated with much respect and care, unless she turn old or become barren. An intruding stranger-queen is not always treated with respect, but may be pulled about by the workers for hours until she dies, and is thrown out of the hive. A queenless hive, without any prospect of a new sovereign, becomes completely demoralised and restless, but in this case a stranger is gladly adopted.

Just as the drones and queens maintain the numbers of the hive so far as reproduction is concerned, so the supplies of food are collected by the myriads of workers. Among these there is some slight division of labour. Members of the community varying in age and constitution, are told off to special tasks. Thus we can distinguish the external workers who collect nectar and pollen from those who attend to more internal domestic duties. Some of the internal workers, usually the young bees, act as nurses, effecting the mastication and semi-digestion of the food for the young larvæ, and caring for all the needs of the brood; while some wait upon the queen. Others again devote their energies, for a time at least, to the architecture of the cells, for which some of the heavy eaters secrete the wax. Others attend to the ventilation of the hive, which is apt to become hot enough not only to be disagreeable, but to soften the wax. These ventilators fan industriously with their wings, and produce air-currents through the hive strong enough to blow out a lighted match. 'When they are tired they are relieved by others.'

Feeding.—Bees feed principally on the nectar and pollen of flowers. In spring they frequent the early-flowering willow, hazel, plane, apple, pear, alder, gooseberry, currant, &c. Later on they turn to the crowfoot, clover, vetch, turnip, cabbage, dandelion, buckwheat, balsam, privet, elder, bramble, and other flowers, which yield abundant nectar and are accessible to their probosces. The borage, the mignonette, the thyme, the heathers, the teasel, are also valuable sources of food. Plants like the furze, which keep flowering for a long time, are obviously of great value to bees and bee-keepers. Some flowers abounding in nectar are avoided because of their strong smell, others like the red clover and the honeysuckle are inaccessible to bees with a proboscis not larger than that of the common hive-bee. Attempts have been made in Britain to rear varieties which would be able to utilise the abundant red clover, inaccessible to the common bee.

When the bee proceeds to rob a flower of its nectar, the tongue, folded up when at rest, is protruded beyond its unsheathing parts, and is pushed as a probe into the flower-tube. By the action of the hairs on the outside of the tongue, or by the

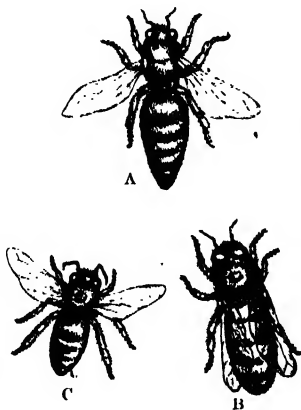


Fig. 3.—Honey-bee (*Apis mellifica*): keep them without food until their powers of resistance are much weakened. They are then turned out of doors to perish, for the workers seem rarely to use their stings. Even the infant pupæ and the eggs are destroyed. The fact of this massacre

general action of the suctorial proboscis, helped by muscular contractions of the body, or by an ascent up the fine capillary tube of the tongue, the nectar is conveyed to the mouth. Thence it passes down the gullet into the honey-bag, and is partly used for the sustenance of the worker itself, being digested in the stomach, and passing thence to the body generally. A large surplus, however, remains as a contribution to the honey-store of the hive, which is stored up for consumption during the flowerless season. Where there is no real winter, as in warmer countries (Australia and California), imported European bees tend to lose their storing instinct, and to become idle.

Besides the nectar, the *pollen* of flowers is essential to the normal life of bees; it is the ambrosia of the hive, and is largely used as food for the young. As the nectar is non-nitrogenous, the necessity for some other kind of food is obvious. Drones and queens, however, never eat raw pollen, and must therefore get their nitrogen indirectly. The special food supplied to the young is formed from pollen partly digested along with honey. The pollen is collected by the hairs of the body, from which it is cleaned off by the feet and jaws, damped with dew or other moisture, mixed with a little honey ejected from the mouth, kneaded into pellets, taken up by the brushes on

the hind-legs, and deposited in the baskets in which it is carried home. The cargo thus brought to the hive may be immediately seized by the nursing bees, or may be stored up for future use. In the first case it is worked up by the nurses into a suitable state and given to the larvae. In the other case the worker frees itself from its burden, pulling it off with its fore-

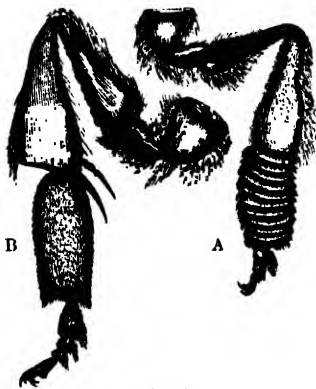


Fig. 4.
Hind-leg of Honey-bee, A; Humble-bee
(*Bombus lapidarius*), B.

legs over a cell in the comb, and starts off again for more, while another bee packs the pollen into the cell, with the addition of a little honey, and covers it over with a varnish. The industrious collectors restrict themselves on each journey to a particular kind of pollen. Bees may also consume the juices of plants, and do not hesitate to suck the bodies of the deceased or murdered grubs. In periods of scarcity, large quantities of the juices ('honey-dew') of aphides, and other small insects, may be stored.

It is difficult to understand on the principles of a selfish philosophy the extraordinary industry of the workers in their food-collecting. It cannot be called greed, since it is more for the good of the society than for their own. It is also well known that the rage for plunder often prompts bees to engage in warfare. Many individual bees try robbery on their own account, attempting to sneak into neighbour hives. In other cases four or five act in concert as highway robbers, waylaying some honey-laden victim, and outrageously despoiling it. It is even said that simple intimidation sometimes results in a submissive handing over of spoil. But in other cases a whole army of bees attacks a hive probably supposed to be at once rich and weak.

Their first care is to demoralise their enemies by killing the queen. This done, the rest is generally easy, and the panic-struck owners may even help the invaders to carry home their own honey.

Bees also collect a resinous, strongly adhesive, reddish-brown substance, known as *propolis*. This is obtained chiefly from the resinous exudations of such trees as fir, poplar, alder, birch, willow, horse-chestnut, &c., and is much used by the bees as a cement. With it they varnish the combs, stop up holes, and 'strengthen the outworks of their city.' It may also be used for stranger and more occasional purposes, such as sealing up an intruding snail. The bees carry it home on their legs; other workers clean it off, and utilise it while still ductile, mixing it with various proportions of wax according to the use to which it is put. Bees also appreciate the honey-dew which appears on the leaves of many trees and herbs, usually in association with aphides.

Secretion.—The wax used in the construction of the comb is manufactured by the bees themselves. It has been shown that they are able to form it even when fed exclusively on honey. After a heavy meal, they often hang together in a small festoon, and secrete large quantities in this state of repose. The secretion is exuded from eight wax-pockets situated on the ventral surface of the abdomen. The wax projects in small flakes between the rings, is removed by the legs, shifted forward to the mouth, masticated by the jaws, and laid in heaps for the use of the comb-builders. In a young hive these wax scales may be found in thousands upon the floor.

Another secretion of a very different nature is the poison. This consists of a transparent fluid with much formic acid and other irritant components, and is secreted by workers and queens in a venom-bag situated near the end of the alimentary canal. There the waste products of honey literally form poison, which flows down between the two barbed piercing organs forming the main part of the sting. The scabbard or sheath of the sting has been already referred to as the ovipositor. The barbed form of the sting makes it very difficult for the bee to withdraw it after striking its foe, and thus death is generally the nemesis of passion, though, as we have seen, this is avoided in the massacre of the drones. The queens have longer and stouter stings than the workers, but are very slow to use them. They rarely have occasion to do so in fact, except in their duels with other rival queens. The best precaution against being stung is quietness. Of the numerous curative applications, ammonia solution (hartshorn) is one of the most serviceable. See POISONS.

In regard to secretion, it is only necessary to notice further that the bee-larvæ, like so many other young insects, secrete a certain amount of silk to form chrysalis-robes.

Hive-life.—During winter and early spring the bees remain at home, but the temperature of the hive (usually 45° F. at least) shows that they are not asleep. In March or April the work of the year begins—the hive is cleaned, the dead bodies are removed, and the queen begins to lay. How the first eggs produce drones, which issue forth in twenty-four days; and how in midsummer some eggs develop into young queens; how the birth of workers increases the population of the community, much reduced during the winter; and how in a short time a swarming occurs, are familiar facts which have been already noticed.

Cell-building.—The bee 'combs' consist of a series of waxen cells constructed by the workers for storing honey and as cradles for the young. They hang perpendicularly within the hive, firmly fixed to the walls. Each consists of a double

row of cells disposed at right angles to the comb. Each cell of this two-sided comb is a hexagonal prism, with its internal apex lying in the depression between three adjacent cells on the opposite side. Of the three figures—the equal-sided triangle, the square, and the hexagon—which can be packed together without interstices, the hexagon is strongest and most convenient. To have the bottoms of the cells formed from three planes of adjacent cells on the opposite side economises labour and material. The amount of possible saving varies with the angle at which the three planes meet. Maclaurin showed by calculation that the angle of the bee-cell was mathematically the best. Though perfect regularity is disputable, there still remains a marvellous accuracy to be explained. On the one hand, some supposed, and one may almost say suppose, that the bees really know what they are about, and that they have by experiment solved the problem. On the other hand, others have tried to give either a mechanical or an historical explanation of the beautiful result. Thus Buffon sought to explain the hexagonal form as the result of the mutual pressure of crowded cylinders. He called attention to analogous results when soap-bubbles are crowded together, or when peas crammed into a bottle expand with boiling. While some, like Brougham, who have repeated this last experiment, denied that regular hexagons resulted, others have corroborated Buffon, and asserted that some of the figures formed are those of the bee-cells. Buffon's mechanical theory was, however, discredited, and indeed laughed at, by most authorities on bees, and the assumption which flattered the intelligence of these insects held ground till Darwin attacked the problem.

Darwin discussed the facts in the main from an historical point of view. He pointed out that at one end of a series the humble-bees either use their old cocoons for honey storehouses, or improve them slightly by the addition of short tubes, or build separate irregular rounded cells. At the other end of the series the hive-bees build their beautiful framework. But between these there are gradations, especially that exhibited by the Mexican *Melipona domestica*. This bee makes a comb of cylindrical cells for its young, and larger spherical cells for honey. These are placed so close that if the spheres were completed they would intersect. This is not, however, permitted, for the bees build flat plates between the cells which tend to intersect. Thus each cell presents an outer spherical portion and two or three or more flat surfaces. As one cell often rests against three others, a pyramid is formed by the union of three flat surfaces. Now if the *Melipona* made its spheres at a given distance from one another and of equal size, the result would be the hive-comb type. Darwin then resorted to experiment. He placed plates of wax in the hive, and on these the bees proceeded to excavate circular pits at equal distances, so that as they were completed the surfaces intersected. When this occurred, the bees built up flat walls along the lines of intersection. 'The work of construction,' he says, 'seems to be a sort of balance struck between many bees, all instinctively standing at the same relative distance from each other, all trying to sweep equal spheres, and then building up, or leaving ungnawed, the planes of intersection between these spheres.' Darwin thus called attention to the gradual evolution of the habit from less perfect expressions, and appealed, of course, to natural selection as tending to develop an instinct which was obviously economical of space, material, and labour. This account of the historical evolution of the habit does not, however, exclude the possibility of purely physical

factors having much more to do with the actual solution of the problem than Darwin supposed. A recent investigator of this much-debated point, Dr Mühlenhof, reverts very much to Buffon's position. After emphasising the perfect plasticity of the wax at the temperature of comb-building (27° - 37° C.), he maintains that the beautiful result is not due to any artistic dexterity on the part of the bees, nor to any direct effect of their body-form, but 'to statical pressure according to the laws of equilibrium.' The cells are such as would naturally result from pressing the maximum number of cylindrical cells into the minimum of space. They really behave, he maintains, as softish cylinders would do in conditions of mutual pressure and continued plasticity. They form equilibrium figures with the smallest surface for given contact. But at any rate it is, on the one hand, certainly gratuitous to credit the bees with the mathematical insight of senior wranglers, and equally unnecessary, on the other, to ignore the neatness and precision of their manipulation.

Into some of the cells honey is placed for winter use. In going up and down over the full cells, bees have been seen to protrude their stings, and to deposit drops of poison on the honey. This has an antiseptic influence, due to the presence of formic acid, without which the honey would ferment. In other cells pollen is stored after being salivated and compressed by indoor workers. A pollen-cell is (frequently at least) sealed with honey, and over this a thin cream-like pellicle is formed, which can be pushed aside for the deposition of more honey, or walked over without causing overflow. But of equal importance are the brood-cells, the cradles of the future young bees. These vary slightly in size. Those for future workers are smaller and lower; those for the drones are broader and longer. In spring-time, after the drones have begun to appear, the royal cradles are formed for the young queens. These cells are usually made at the edges of the combs, have their mouths turned downwards, and are of a large size and more irregular form. In other cases they are merely modified worker-grub cells.

Life-history.—As in the majority of insects, the life-history is divisible into four chapters—the developing egg, the larva or grub, the pupa, and the perfect insect. (1) The eggs have a long oval shape, and a whitish colour. They are, barring an exception already noticed, all laid by the so-called queen. After normal fertilisation she becomes, in fact, little more than an egg-producing machine, turning them out sometimes at the rate of 100 per hour or 3000 per diem, and is often fed while at her work, so that the expenditure of living matter is to a certain extent recouped. If a young queen be not impregnated in the first three weeks of her life, she continues laying drone-eggs only, as above described. The discriminative process of fertilisation of the ova is highly noteworthy: in laying an egg in a worker-cell the queen's abdomen has to be contracted, and a drop of seminal fluid is thus brought into contact with the egg: in the case of the larger drone-cell there is no such abdominal contraction, and consequently no fertilisation of the ovum. The egg is fixed by its end to the base of the cell, and thus it remains for between three and four days, when the worm-like grub appears. (2) The grub grows like any other insect larva, and as it touches the sides of its cell, coils up in a crescent, and floats in the food which has been left in the cell. As it gains strength, however, it rears up to the mouth of the cell and eagerly devours the food supplied by the nursing workers. After the sixth day the worker-grubs only receive unmanicured food. The result is the stunting or atrophy of their reproductive

system. With the queen-grubs it is very different. The grub is seen literally wallowing in the rich and carefully elaborated royal jelly; and this abundant and stimulating nutrition is naturally believed to be the condition of the perfect development of the reproductive system exhibited by the queen-bees. (3) In several days, varying slightly with the season, the grub passes into another stage of its life-history. It has grown greatly and accumulated some reserve material to serve it throughout a period of fasting. The cell is sealed up by the nurses, and the grub becomes a pupa. The queen is 5½ days a larva and 8½ days a pupa, the worker 6 and 11, the drone 6 and 15 days respectively. The nursing workers seal up the cell with a cap of wax, which is more convex in the drone-cells, and in all cases different from the paler, somewhat concave, cover of the honey-cells. The imprisoned grub does not at once fall into inactivity, but proceeds first to spin its chrysalis-robes. Alternately contracting and elongating its body, it at the same time allows filmy threads to exude from the orifices of spinning-glands situated on its lower lip. There are two such organs, and the resulting thread which the grub weaves round itself is therefore double. In a day and a half the worker-grub has spun a complete cocoon, and becomes a true resting pupa or bee-nymph. The male-grubs also spin complete cocoons, but those of the queen-grubs only enclose head, thorax, and the first ring of the abdomen. In this connection it is worth noticing, as an illustration of depraved teleology, that, according to Hübner, the final cause of these incomplete cocoons is that the pupae may be more readily exposed to the sting of the jealous first-born queen, whose instinct prompts her to kill off all possible rivals.

Within the curtain of the cocoon important changes occur. The mummy-like pupa is gradually modified into the young bee. The skin, the segments, the appendages, and the internal organs undergo most marked changes, and on the twentieth or twenty-first day after egg-laying the young insect finally bursts its swaddling-clothes, and emerges as a winged perfect insect or *imago*. They break open their cocoons with their jaws, and are assisted by the kindly workers; they clean themselves of moisture and shreds, and proceed to eat after their long fast. In some cases, after a preliminary meal, they proceed at once to gather honey, but the first flight is usually postponed for about a week, the intervening time being spent in indoor employment. The empty cells may be repeatedly used over again as cradles, or may be filled with honey. The young queens are not allowed to escape when their metamorphoses are over. In the door of their cell a small hole is made, through which the royal prisoners are fed till the tone of their piping probably intimates their complete sexual maturity. If the queen should be lost, and there be no royal grubs, a new queen may be literally manufactured. A young worker-grub is simply fed up to the required pitch in an enlarged cell of the proper spaciousness.

The different members of a bee-community enjoy lives of very varied duration. The drones live from May till August, but were it not for the massacre, would doubtless live much longer. Contrary to the opinions of the ancients, who credited bees with an existence of as much as six or even ten years, the workers seem to have in summer an extremely short but hard-working life, which probably averages about six weeks. Those born in autumn live on till the next spring, though many perish in the hard times of winter. A queen, on the other hand, will live from three to five years.

Parasites of Bees.—Besides having cause to fear

open enemies like the death's-head moth, bees are, like many other insects, subject to the attacks of parasites both on their bodies and within their nests. On the adult bee lice are common pests, while the larvae of the ichneumon do great damage to the grubs. Honey-bees, however, are apparently exempted from the attacks of the latter, which appear to be unable to gain access to their dwellings. The adult honey-bee is greatly troubled by the Bee-louse (*Brachia ceca*) and by the Bee-fly (*Phora incrassata*). The larvae are often devoured by a species of beetle (*Trichodes*). A hairworm of white appearance occurs abundantly inside the drones only: a somewhat remarkable fact, since it is not they, but the workers, which frequent the water-pools where the eggs of the worm are deposited. The wild bees are similarly infested by numerous parasites, such as the larvae of ichneumons, the minute *Anthophorobia*, which may be obtained in hundreds on breaking open a few cells of the leaf-cutter and other species. From larval intruders found in the nest of the wall-bee Lampert reared no fewer than nine different parasites belonging to the Hymenoptera, Coleoptera, and Diptera. Parasitism also occurs between bee and bee. Thus, the 'cuckoo-bees,' *Apathus* and *Nomada*, live at the expense of hosts no larger than themselves, with which, however, they seem to preserve a curious sort of harmony. On the other hand, the larvae of *Stelis nasuta*, found in the nest of the Wall-bee (*Chalcidodoma muraria*), seems to devour not only the food, but the lawful tenants.

Senses.—The sight of bees is well developed; they are able to distinguish objects at some distance, and show a marked preference for certain colours, as might be almost inferred from the history of bee-fertilised flowers. Sir John Lubbock has shown by experiments with baits of honey on strips of paper of different colours that they can distinguish green, yellow, red, and blue, and prefer blue to all. Pink also appears to be a favourite colour. Like other insects, they are attracted to light. Much has been observed in regard to the power bees have of finding their way straight home. Lubbock's careful experiments have shown that the so-called 'sense of direction' is not in all cases a sufficient guide, but must be aided by definite registering of landmarks over the space traversed. This they are certainly able to do, and they can also remember their visual impressions for a considerable time. The sounds made by bees at their respiratory openings or stigmata are not restricted to a monotone, but vary considerably, as in the familiar case of the responses of the queen-bee to the piping of the princess pupa. From the variable sounds, apparently expressive of emotion, it has been inferred that bees are also able to hear. Sir John Lubbock was, however, unable to get them to take any notice of any sound which he could devise, though he is disposed to believe that they can hear higher notes.

Some of the mouth parts, such as the inside of the tongue, evidently act as organs of taste, and are able to discriminate between different kinds of nectar. Bees have also an acute sense of smell, but how far this is physiologically separated from taste is uncertain. It is probably by a fine sense of smell that bees are able to recognise the members of their own hive, and to detect an unwary wanderer or thievish intruder of another house. Sprinkling them with some strong scent appears naturally to obliterate this power. In connection with the recognition of strange bees, it is worth while quoting Mr Langstroth's observation that a stranger laden with honey is received with open arms, while a hungry marauder is very summarily dealt with. 'There is,' he says, 'an air of roguery,

about a thieving bee which, to the expert, is as characteristic as are the motions of a pickpocket to a skilful policeman. Its sneaking look, and nervous, guilty agitation, once seen, can never be mistaken.

Sir John Lubbock's experiments have shown that bees possess a certain power of communication, and other observers also, such as Fritz Müller, have recorded cases where the workers were able in particular ways to bring their friends to some treasure-trove, or in some way told one another the sad news of the loss of their queen, and the like. How they can communicate any definite impression to their fellows is a mystery, but observers have noted that they tap one another with their feelers, and that the notes emitted from their respiratory apertures differ somewhat in character. The antennae are most essential organs of sensation; and an animal deprived of them exhibits a high degree of bewilderment and incapacity virtually amounting to insanity.

Intelligence.—Bees have thus keen sight, enabling them to distinguish objects and colours; acute smell, quick to detect, for instance, stranger bees or attractive food; and presumably a fine sense of hearing, fit to discriminate between the import of slightly varying tones in one another's voices. But they have more, inasmuch as they exhibit in their actions what can only be fairly described as intelligence. Without entering into any discussion, it may be useful here to recall the rough distinction between those instinctive reasonable actions which have become habitual, and those which exhibit a power of accommodation to new conditions or change of habit in the face of new problems. This whole subject, so far as at present understood, is well discussed in Romanes's *Animal Intelligence and Mental Evolution*, on the first of which the following summary is based. To begin at a comparatively low level, bees exhibit indubitable instances of *memory*. They are not only able accurately to register visual impressions of a locality so as to be able to find their way thither, even after considerable intervals, but they can associate their impressions so as to be able, for instance, to recognise a human friend, and have in some cases been tamed and trained. Sir John Lubbock also tells how a bee remembered what it had been shown—that the way out of a bell-jar held with its closed end against a window was not to endeavour to get through the pane, but out at the open end.

It is obvious further, from what has been already said of the habits of bees, that many features in their domestic and social economy suggest foresight and purposeful determination. Such a conclusion must, however, be made with great caution in regard to all actions or sets of actions which are distinctly habitual and shared by the whole race. That several surplus queens are reared to make up for losses; that worker-grubs can, if occasion demand it, be promoted by feeding into queens; that the young queens are not liberated till the old one leads off her colony, and then generally in gradual succession; that the workers allow the rival queens to settle their own affair by duel in which the fitter probably survives; that they massacre their drones when these are no longer of use; and that they do a dozen similar things, is doubtless marvellous, but the marvel must not at least be exaggerated by forgetting that they have been forced and drilled into these reasonable habits throughout the very long history of their social organisation. On the other hand, when an unusual juncture in the social relations occurs, and the bees act sagaciously in extraordinary conditions, then there is purposeful intelligence to admire. Thus Romanes quotes two observations of F. Hüber to the following effect:

Two sole surviving queens, prompted by their instinctive jealousy, were engaged in mortal combat, and were so situated that a simultaneous double sting would end the life of both—an obvious disaster to the hive. They released one another, and intelligence triumphed over instinct. And again, a hive was left queenless, with the not uncommon result that the remaining bees set about manufacturing some new queens from worker-grubs. Hüber restored the old sovereign, and the bees at once proceeded to remove the royal food from the worker-grubs, so as to counteract their previous, but no longer useful intention of rearing new queens. The submission of the bees of an invaded hive when they find that their queen has been killed, is also a curious instance of discretion, and the variations occasionally exhibited in connection with drone-killing, are no less suggestive of intelligence. Again, it is a fact, which any one can verify, that bees bite through the corollas of many tubular flowers near the nectaries, in some cases as a lazy trick to save time, in other cases as an ingenious device to reach nectar inaccessible by the normal process of stretching the proboscis down the corolla tube.

The careful *ventilation* of an over-heated hive is evidently an adaptation to an abnormal state of affairs which would not occur in the rooNy natural hives, and ought not to occur in the artificial. 'It follows,' Büchner writes, 'that the fanning and ventilating can have absolutely nothing to do with an inborn tendency or instinct, but have been gradually evoked by necessity, thought, and experience.' In regard to *cleanliness* also, intelligent adaptations of much interest are exhibited. When possible, the excrement is voided outside; in winter the faeces may be retained till the first fine day; bees have even been known to make a kind of drain for the removal of the waste matter, which, when voided in the hive, often causes dysenteric and other fatal diseases. Small intruding animals, such as slugs, are known to be sealed up with propolis, while an intruding mouse, for instance, too large to be safely left in this way, was killed, and gnawed into bits, which were carried piecemeal outside. The bodies of deceased bees are also removed outside the hive. In regard to their *treatment of intruders*, besides the welcome of those bearing gifts, and the rough detection of those with evil intent, their clever device by which they fortify the hive against their formidable enemy the death's-head moth is extremely suggestive. Hüber was the first to notice that, as the result of repeated attacks, the bees were taught by sad experience to build at the entrance a barrier of wax and propolis, with a hole large enough to admit them and small enough effectually to exclude the invader. Whatever opinion may be held in regard to the intelligence displayed in the habitual *architecture*, there can be little doubt as to the inference to be drawn from cases in which the building habits are modified to suit peculiar conditions. Bees have been seen to make repeated trials of different plans in special cases, as when two combs meet at an angle, to pull down bad workmanship and rebuild it, to adopt ingenious devices when the sides of the hive were made of smooth glass, and so on. To Hüber 'the purest reason seemed to shine out' from the action of the bees in a hive where a piece of comb fell from its proper position. Wiser than many builders, they strengthened the attachments of all the other combs, 'clearly because,' as Romanes notes, 'they inferred that they too might be in danger of falling.' Many similar instances have been recorded.

Emotions.—The intellectual development associated with the complex social relations of bees seems much greater than the culture of their emotions.

Sir John Lubbock describes them as 'thoroughly callous and utterly indifferent to one another,' except, indeed, when attention to their comrades was for their own advantage, or part of the ordinary business of their life. He notes how they pay no regard whatever to the sudden death of a comrade beside them, nor even to the struggles of one in trouble. Other observers, both ancient and modern, give them credit for a little more sympathy, and have noticed cases, perhaps exceptional, where they did seem to exhibit active compassion for an unfortunate fellow-worker.

Relation to Flowers.—It is now well known that in the majority of flowering plants the female cell is fertilised by male elements or pollen grains carried by insects from another flower of the same species. Insects, more especially bees, and flowers have, in fact, grown up together in mutual dependence and with mutual influence. They have perfected one another. Bees are attracted to suitable flowers partly, no doubt, as the result of experience, but also by odours, and especially by colours.

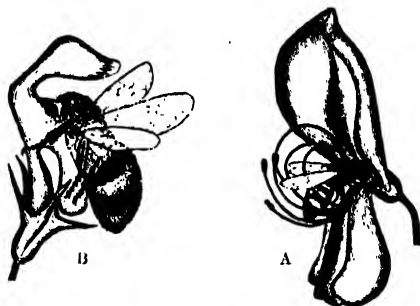


Fig. 5.

A, Honey-bee on broom-flower; B, Wild-bee on white dead-nettle.

These colours exhibit a gradual evolution from yellow to blue. They 'follow a regular law of progressive modification, but have been fixed and stereotyped in each species by the selective action of the proper beetles, bees, moths, or butterflies.' Blue colour is characteristic of many highly-developed flowers, and bees are especially fond of this blue colour, probably because they have learned to associate it with flowers peculiarly suited to their access and taste, and the result of this preference is to insure the fertilisation and survival of the higher flowers. And again, numerous flowers, especially those visited by the higher bees, exhibit mechanical adaptations which insure that the bee in diving down for the nectar becomes thoroughly dusted with pollen. The wild sage (*Salvia*) and the orchis are two good examples of very different modifications securing fertilisation. There can be little doubt that at least the more mechanical of these pollen-dusting contrivances have resulted as direct adaptations in association with the continual visits of bees. See FERTILISATION OF FLOWERS.

Pedigree of Bees.—These adaptations are, however, mutual ones: just as flowers have been modified in relation to bees, so have bees in relation to flowers. Bees thus appear to be the last result of a long series of progressive changes, the steps of which are still to some extent discoverable. According to Hermann Müller, the primitive ancestor was a form like the common sand-wasp, carnivorous in its diet, and bringing its insect or spider prey to its larvæ. From these arose forms which adopted a floral diet, and thus filling up a more or less unoccupied corner in nature's household, got on amazingly well. They thrive, were

fruitful and multiplied, and were, in the course of time, likewise modified into the numerous types of modern bees. The chief modifications, as above noticed, are associated with the development of social life, the elaboration of honey-sucking mouth structures, and the equipment with pollen-collecting appliances. Müller's main stages are as follows:

(1) Starting from the sand-wasp, we find in *Prosopis* a bee but slightly advanced above the ancestral type. It is almost hairless, with mouth parts but slightly elongated, and feeds its young on honey and pollen, which are simply crammed into the brood-chamber. (2) *Sphecodes*, *Halictus*, and *Andrena* occupy a somewhat higher level. They are more efficient pollen-collectors, inasmuch as they have become hairy. In the first there appears the first trace of feathery-collecting hairs, and the primitive fashion in which they feed the young with the disgorged surplus of food is also interesting. *Halictus* has more hairy hind-legs, and special brushes on some of the terminal joints. The young are fed with pollen. In *Andrena* the whole hind-leg is hairy. (3) *Dasypoda* and *Panurgus* exhibit yet another step in the direction of more efficient pollen-collecting. The hairs occur on the long tibia (second-last portion) and on the terminal part or tarsus. (4) The last step in this direction is exhibited by those forms in which the pollen is moistened with honey before it is stowed away. In *Macropis*, heaps of consolidated pollen are fixed without special contrivance to the hind-legs; in *Bombus* (humble-bee) the outer side of the hind-legs exhibits the familiar pollen-basket fenced in with long hairs—an obvious economy of both hairs and time; while *Apis* (honey-bee) shows a yet more evolved arrangement of collecting-brushes and receiving-basket. Besides those forms with collecting-hairs on the hind-legs, culminating in *Apis*, there is a separate division, in which the pollen is collected on the lower surface of the abdomen upon brushes or backward-directed bristles. The mason-bee (*Osmia*) and the leaf-cutter (*Megachile*) are good examples. In the same way, Müller traces throughout a series of gradations the evolution of the honey-collecting organs. This progress is chiefly concerned with the lengthening of the tongue and the extension of the membranous and elastic parts between the bases of the two pairs of maxillæ (between mentum and cardines). The tongue is in the lower bees decidedly shorter than the basal joint or mentum, but ends with becoming very much longer. The first pair of maxillæ also elongate into insheathing laminae for the tongue, and the same is true of the proximal joints of the labial palps (i.e. of the external lateral portions of the second pair of maxillæ). In power of extension and retraction, in equipment with honey-catching hairs, in the differentiation of a terminal lobe, &c., the tongue exhibits a progressive evolution.

Evolution of Social Life.—Just as among ants, so with bees we have to distinguish solitary and social genera, of which the former are greatly in the majority, and, in origin at anyrate, the more primitive. Starting from completely solitary forms, we next find bees whose nests are individually separate, but at the same time closely adjoin those of their neighbours. From such a beginning the various grades of development up to the complex social life exhibited in the communities of humble and honey bees are still distinctly traceable.

(a) **Solitary Bees.**—*Colletes* is a common and widely-distributed genus, the females of which closely resemble the common honey-bee. The males differ in several features, and are decidedly

smaller. They form colonies of considerable size in loose soil or in the soft mortar of walls. Each cell is lined with a fine coating resembling gold-beater's skin. *Prosopis* is also a common bee of wide distribution. It closely resembles a sand-wasp, and is destitute of the usual means of carrying pollen, being on that account long regarded as a parasite. They make their cells in the pith of bramble-sticks, and line them, like *Colletes*, with a delicate membrane. The British species appear in June, and continue during the two succeeding months. When hatched they give off a pleasant odour. The genus *Sphex* includes four British species, of world-wide distribution, but of infrequent occurrence. They also are often regarded as parasites on other bees (*Halictus*), but Mr F. Smith's observations go to show that both in burrowing and pollen-gathering they are entirely independent. The nests occur, indeed, side by side with those of *Halictus*, but each bee seems to keep to its own home. In spring females alone are met with, while in autumn both sexes occur together. The genus *Andrena* is the most numerous of all the *Apidae*, the British species alone numbering sixty-three. They have been fitly called the harbingers of spring, as they appear even in the cold of March. They are all burrowers, making holes which measure from 6 to 12 inches in depth, and give off lateral passages, each terminating in a cell. In this the female deposits its egg on the top of a mass of pollen about the size of a pea. After devouring this, the larva falls into a lethargy, which lasts till the following spring, when the rest of the metamorphosis is rapidly completed.

Halictus is a large genus, the members of which resemble *Sphex* in many characteristics, and in this among others, that they alone among solitary bees are impregnated in the autumn, and remain dormant during winter. The most beautiful bees found in Britain are the wasp-bees or *Nomada*. In their gay colours they resemble wasps. They are widely distributed in the northern hemisphere. Their life-history is still veiled in obscurity, little being known beyond the fact that they enter the hives of other bees (*Andronidae* and *Apidae*). All the British species emit when captured very agreeable balmy odours. The mason-bee, or *Osmia*, includes a large number of species with most interesting diversity of instincts. They occur abundantly in temperate climates, and their nests are found in the most diverse localities, from the shells of snails to the branches of brambles. In regard to these wood-boring bees (such as *Xylocopa*), it has been a commonly received opinion, originating with Réaumur, that the young forms at the lowest portion of the excavated tunnel escaped first, and that the others followed suit in regular order from below upwards. Each young bee had thus simply to cut its way through the bottom partition of its cell, towards which its head was said to be pointed, and was thus not only saved trouble, but kept from disturbing the less mature inmates of the upper stories. This pretty observation is, however, denied by Mr Smith, with respect to the numerous British wood-boring bees. *Megachile*, the genus of leaf-cutters, is the most cosmopolitan of all genera of bees, and three hundred species are known to exist. They all excavate burrows in the ground or in wood, which they line with cuttings from the leaves or petals of flowers. *Anthophora* is a very numerous genus, of world-wide distribution, and includes one hundred and thirty species, of which four occur in Britain. Some of them are true carpenters, and others are burrowers.

(b) *Social Bees*.—The genus *Bombus* includes one hundred species, of which twenty are British. Of all the wild bees, the species of *Bombus* (humble-bee) are the most familiar, being extremely conspicuous on account of their large size

and noisy hum. In different parts of the country they receive different names, such as bumble-bees, hummel-bees, dunble-dores, foggie-bees, &c. Some species build their nests on the surface of the ground amongst moss and grass (e.g. *B. muscorum*, *B. pratorum*, and *B. clegans*), while others form subterranean homes (e.g. *B. lapidarius*, *B. subterraneus*, *B. virginialis*). At the first approach of spring, the females, which have been hibernating, come forth from their retreats, and at once set about establishing a homestead, choosing for instance the deserted abode of a shrew, or simply looking for a cosy nook on the surface. Having found a convenient site, the bee builds a nest of withered grass, moss, &c., in the centre of which a mass of pollen mixed with honey is then deposited. On this she lays several eggs, side by side, and covers them over with pollen. When the eggs hatch, the larvæ cut their way in different directions into the surrounding store until they reach their full growth, when they spin for themselves a strong oval cocoon. At the side of the mass are a set of shallow receptacles containing coarse liquid honey. These are probably designed either for the moistening of the pollen, or as a store for a rainy day. Within the cocoon the larvæ soon become perfect insects, but are not on emerging ready for active work, nor equipped with their full-coloured dress. The empty cocoons afterwards serve as store-chambers. The workers appear to issue first, and to take upon themselves the entire maintenance of the colony, while the queen now restricts herself more or less completely to maternal duties. Along with more workers small females appear, which are not unnaturally supposed to be only capable of producing drones. Later on the drones appear, while the last brood consists solely of large females, which, on being fertilised, hibernate, and thus complete the life-history.

The industry of the humble-bees appears to surpass that of any other bees, which is saying a great deal. From the earliest morning till the last streak of evening light, they seem to continue most indefatigably at work. The temper and courage of the different species varies very considerably; the nests of the surface-bees are readily taken, while the underground homes can hardly be outraged with impunity. No species is more courageous than the red-backed *B. lapidarius*. In autumn, however, the courage seems to wane, and a general listlessness prevails; the males especially being often found on the heads of thistles and other composites in a dazed and helpless state, capable only of twisting their legs over their head and back in a beseeching fashion, this condition being more probably due to the stupor caused by cold, than to over-indulgence in nectar. *Bombus* has a curious semi-parasitic double-goer, called *Apathus*, which is a very shadow of its host, and is thus able to enter the nest without molestation. The parent deposits her eggs in the pollen of a humble-bee nest, the larvæ are reared with those of the latter, and the adults enter and leave the nest as if perfectly at home. The association is by no means a friendly partnership, for the aristocratic idlers gather no pollen, and prey upon the innocent *Bombi* with which they live. They consist entirely of males and females, are veritable 'cuckoos,' and do no good to the flowers which they may visit.

Different Kinds of Honey-bees.—The genus *Apis*, to which the hive-bee (*Apis mellifica*) belongs, has a cosmopolitan distribution, and numerous local varieties have arisen in response to peculiarities of habitat and nutrition. The number of true species is a point of considerable debate. The fifteen enumerated in the General Catalogue of *Apidae* published by the British Museum, have

been reduced by Mr F. Smith to nine—viz. *A. dorsata* (India, Borneo, &c.), *A. zonata* (Celebes), *A. indica* (India, Java, Sumatra, &c.), *A. nigro-cincta* (Celebes, Borneo, &c.), *A. sinensis* (China), *A. florea* (India, Ceylon, Borneo, &c.), *A. adansonii* (Africa), *A. unicolor* (Madagascar, Rodriguez), *A. mellifica* (cosmopolitan). Of the last there are several varieties.

Within the limits of this article it has not been possible to do more than touch on some of the most important facts in regard to bees. Enough, however, has been said to show that the perfected complexity of their social state, the marvels and mysteries of their family relations, the exquisite adaptations of their structure, the dexterity and intelligence of their work, and the part they have played in the history of flowers, justify us surely in sharing the enthusiasm of those who, from the time of Aristotle downwards, have gained in the study of these insects some insight into the wonder and beauty of nature. See ANTS, FERTILISATION OF FLOWERS, HONEY, HYMENOPTERA, INSECTS, WASPS, &c.

BEE-KEEPING as a source of profit has largely extended in recent years, owing to the improvement of modern appliances, and the more thorough knowledge of the habits of the honey-bee. The only species of bee cultivated in Europe for its honey-gathering powers is the *Apis mellifica*. Of this, the leading varieties are the Ligurian or Italian bee, the Carniolan or Hungarian bee, the Cyprian, and the common black bee of our own country. Bee-keepers differ as to which of those varieties is the most profitable; but, as a rule, the Ligurian is most sought after. The Ligurian queens are more prolific, and the swarms are therefore larger. Their progeny seem to work harder during the honey-season, going earlier abroad in the morning, and working till later in the evening. In Italy and Germany, as well as in Cyprus and Palestine, the rearing of queens for exportation is largely carried on; and the different foreign varieties have been introduced into our country to such an extent that our own black bee is now scarcely ever to be met with in its pure state.

Hives.—It is necessary to the well-being of a colony of bees that their hives should protect them from the changeable influences of the weather. While the hive should be light, so as to be easily moved about, its walls should be thick enough to protect the bees alike from the extreme cold of winter and the excessive heat of summer, and should be constructed of a material that will effectually protect them from rain or damp. The hive in use in Britain for ages past has been made of straw, sewed tightly together with narrow belts of cane or bramble. The straw-skep answered the purpose of its construction very well. It was light and comfortable and durable, and formed a picturesque object. The straw-hive is unknown in the United States, the frame-hive being the only form known. In Russia, round logs of wood, hollowed out in the centre, are used. The introduction of the movable comb method of management has made the skep give way to what is known as the bar-frame hive; and now in many parts of Scotland and England the straw-hive is looked on as a relic of the past. The principle of the movable comb hive is of very ancient origin, having been employed by the Greeks; but it has been reserved to our own times to develop it. To the Rev. L. L. Langstroth, an American bee-keeper, belongs the credit of conceiving a hive in which the combs are built in frames, hung side by side in a box. The Langstroth hive made its appearance in the United States in 1851; and since then profitable bee-keeping has

advanced rapidly. The great advantage gained by the movable comb system of management is that the capacity of the hive may be regulated to accommodate any number of bees, however great or small. As winter comes on, and the bees decrease in number and cling more closely together, the hive is contracted by means of a division board, so that the internal heat is economised. As spring advances, comb by comb is added until the hive is filled. Other advantages of the method are that weak hives may be strengthened by combs taken from more prosperous colonies; that the drone-producing powers of the hive may be regulated, so as to allow breeding from the best stocks only; that on signs of anything having gone wrong in the economy of the hive, the bee-master is generally able to detect the cause, and to effect a remedy at once; and that the hive is so simple in construction as to be easily put together by any amateur joiner.

The frame, made of four bars of wood joined at the corners, is usually $14\frac{1}{2}$ inches long by $8\frac{1}{4}$ inches deep, and is made of wood about $\frac{3}{8}$ inch thick. If one examines a skep in which the bees have been allowed to work at will, it is found that the combs are about an inch in thickness, and hang at a distance of about half an inch from one another. Accordingly, the frames are made 1 inch broad, and are hung at a distance of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches from centre to centre. The number of frames depends on the size of the swarm to be accommodated, and on the honey-yielding capabilities of the district. Ten frames have generally been considered sufficient, although many bee-keepers use hives containing as many as fifteen or even eighteen frames. A hive, then, containing ten frames must be 15 inches long, 15 broad, and $8\frac{1}{4}$ deep. A passage of $\frac{1}{4}$ inch is thus allowed at the ends and under the bottom bar of the frames. If more than this be given, the bees will fill up the interval with comb, and if less, they will seal the frames to the walls and the bottom of the hive with propolis. The box thus constructed is the brood-chamber and storehouse of the bees, and is never despoiled of its sweets. It is necessary to provide accommodation for the storage of the surplus honey, of which the bees are to be deprived.

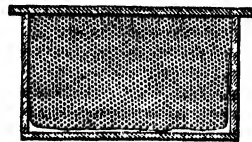


Fig. 6. — A Bar-frame filled with Honey-comb.

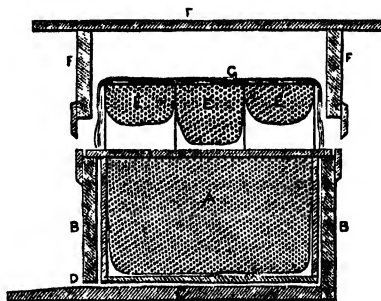


Fig. 7.—Section of Bar-frame Hive:

A, bar-frame with comb; B, walls of hive; C, floor-board; D, doorway; E, sectional super; F, cover of hive; G, quilt.

Bees, in their wild state, store the honey above the brood-combs; accordingly, a box of corresponding dimensions is fitted above the hive, while the whole is protected by a sloping roof. A doorway

6 inches in length, and $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in height, and a suitable floor-board, complete the bar-frame hive in its simplest form. Though the bars thus are hung at regular intervals, the bees would almost always work their combs irregularly on them, and the advantages of the frame-hive would be lost. To obviate this, guide-combs are fixed to the under side of the top bar. Thin pieces of old comb, or even strips of melted wax,

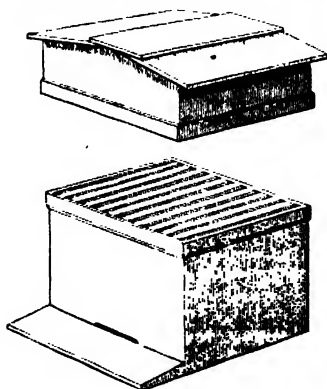


Fig. 8.—Bar-frame Hive, with cover raised to show arrangement of bars.

were formerly used for this purpose. A septum of wax has recently been brought into use, however, that answers this purpose perfectly. This is known as 'comb-foundation,' and consists of thin sheets of wax impressed in a machine on both sides with the forms of the base of the cells. The bees take to this at once, and work combs of perfect regularity and flatness. The strips of foundation used may be of any breadth, from $\frac{1}{4}$ inch to a full comb. By using full sheets the bee-master is able to control the birth of drones in the hive; for if worker-foundation—i.e. foundation bearing the impress of worker-cells—he used, the comb will necessarily be capable of containing only worker-brood. The bee-keeper is thus enabled to assist nature in preserving the fittest by breeding drones from his best queens only. Several thicknesses of carpet or felt are used as a quilt over the bars to confine the bees to their own chamber, as well as to prevent the escape of heat.

Quieting Bees.—Every one who has any knowledge of bees knows how rarely bees sting whilst they are swarming. This is owing to their being gorged with honey, when a bee will not sting unless hurt. If, then, the bees can be made to fill themselves with honey, they are in the bee-master's power. The general method of attaining this end is by blowing amongst them a little smoke. This may be done by a miniature bellows called the 'smoker,' in which a piece of cotton is kept smouldering; or a piece of brown paper rolled like a cigar may be used, from which the smoke is blown over the bees. A puff from a tobacco pipe serves the purpose equally well. The bees, frightened by the smoke, seem to fear that they are about to be driven from the hive, and they run to their store to gorge themselves, as they do preparatory to swarming, and in a few minutes they may be handled at will.

Swarming.—A pound weight of bees contains about 5000 individuals, and swarms are often found to weigh 8 lb., or even more. A populous hive will thus contain from 40,000 to 50,000 bees. In spring, however, the number is much smaller, amounting to only a few thousands. As the season advances and food becomes abundant, the

queen deposits her eggs at the rate of from 2000 to 3000 a day, and the colony soon becomes too numerous for the limits of their dwelling. Swarming is a matter of necessity, not of choice, on the part of the bees, and may be almost wholly prevented by providing sufficient accommodation for the increasing numbers. In Scotland, swarming rarely commences before the close of May, while in the south of England it is a few weeks earlier. The chief indications that a swarm is about to issue are the clustering of the bees at the entrance of the hive, and a cessation of the usual activity amongst the community. Previous to swarming, the bees gorge themselves with honey that they may have some store of provision for their new home. A first swarm will rarely leave the parent hive in bad weather. The time usually chosen is the early part of the forenoon, though a swarm has been known to go off as early as seven in the morning, or as late in the afternoon as five o'clock. The bees pour from the hive door in a constant stream. The swarm is not led forth by the queen as is generally supposed, for she is sometimes seen to issue amongst the stragglers at the close. They fly round in circles until the whole have left the hive, filling the air with a busy hum. Gradually a knot of bees is seen to gather on some bush or tree close at hand, and this knot increases in size until the whole swarm have joined it. If left to themselves, they will remain at rest for an hour or more, when they will again take wing and go off in a 'bee-line' to some chimney top or decayed tree that has previously been decided upon. As soon, however, as the cluster is complete, the bee-keeper proceeds to skep the swarm. This he does by placing a straw-skep over it, and allowing the bees to crawl up of their own accord; or he may hold the skep under the cluster, and give the branch a sudden shake, when almost every bee will fall into the skep. He then shakes them into the bar-frame hive, which is either left till evening where the cluster has gathered, or is removed at once to its permanent station. Previous to swarming, the rearing of half a dozen, or more, of young queen bees had been commenced. Eight or ten days after the swarm issues, the most advanced of these queens comes to maturity, and issues forth from her cell. Her first impulse is to destroy the remaining royal grubs. If the hive be of sufficient strength to swarm a second time, the workers keep guard over the cells, when the newly-hatched queen takes flight with a second colony. Unless increase of stock is aimed at, second swarming should be avoided, and when they do occur, they should be returned again to the hive.

'Ringing' or 'tanging' the bees is an old custom not yet extinct. On the issue of a swarm, the owner proceeded to make hideous noises by beating on old pans and the like, thinking thus to prevent the bees from leaving his garden. The practice is so entirely ineffective, that some have thought it was originally meant merely to proclaim the ownership of the swarm.

Artificial Swarming.—As has been already noticed, a swarm left hanging in its original cluster will go off and establish a home for itself. The hives during the swarming season should therefore be carefully watched. To avoid the necessity of watching for swarms and the chance of eventually losing them, methods of artificial swarming are now practised by all advanced bee-keepers. This is a process easily accomplished, especially with the bar-frame hive. An empty hive is placed on the site of the hive to be swarmed, which is itself moved aside. The frames of bees are lifted out and examined one by one until the queen is discovered, when the comb on which she is found is placed in the empty hive. One or two brood-

combs are also removed and placed along with it. The hive is filled up with empty bars and covered up as before. Empty bars take the place of those removed from the old hive, which is taken to a new situation in the garden, when the work is complete. All the bees on wing during the operation, as well as the old bees in the swarmed hive, will make their way to the new hive on the old site. In the case of swarming from a straw-skep the principle is the same, but the method of procedure is somewhat different. As the combs cannot be removed in the search for the queen, the bees must be driven from them. In order to do this, a warm day is chosen when the bees are busily engaged at work. The hive must first be quieted as already described, when it is inverted, and an empty skep of about the same size is placed over it at an angle of 45°, touching it at a point where the combs converge. The skeps are held together at this point by a skewer pushed through their edges, while the empty one is supported by another skewer in front. Then a gentle and regular rapping with the palms of the hands is commenced on the sides of the hive, when the bees begin to run, slowly at first until a buzz arises, and they rush in a long stream into the empty hive. A sharp watch should now be kept for the queen, who will be seen running up with the other bees, and after a little experience, she will rarely pass without being noticed. The new hive with the swarm containing the old queen is then placed on the old stool, and the parent hive is removed to a new site.

Feeding.—A hive should have at least 20 lb. of honey stored for winter use. After the season is over it may be found that the supply is deficient, and as bees should never be fed during the winter months, the quantity should be made up before cold weather sets in. If fed in autumn, a strong colony will easily store away a quart of sirup in 24 hours, and the whole winter supply may be thus given in a few days. A good feeding sirup may be made by dissolving 4 lb. of cane-sugar in 2 pints (40 oz.) of water over a gentle fire. A tablespoonful of vinegar should be added to prevent the sirup from recrystallising in the combs. One-fourth of a pint of this given daily will be found to be sufficient. Gentle feeding in early spring is also frequently advisable. The simplest method of feeding is to fill a jar or squat bottle of sufficient size to hold one day's supply. Over this a piece of linen should be tied, when the bottle may be inverted over a hole cut in the quilt.

Getting the Honey.—In olden times, the invariable method pursued in this country of taking the honey was by allowing the bees to work at will in small straw-skeps until the close of the season, when they were destroyed by sulphur fumes. This has almost everywhere now given place to a more humane method of management. The method usually adopted by advanced bee-keepers is what is known as 'extracting.' This method is only possible in the movable comb hive. A box of equal dimensions to the body of the hive, and filled like it with bars, is placed above the bars. The quilt is removed, and its place is taken by a sheet of 'excluder zinc'—i.e. zinc with slits cut of sufficient width to let the worker bees pass freely, but effectually to bar the progress of the queen. The upper story is thus kept free from brood, and the honey got is pure. When this box is filled, it is removed, and an empty one is put in its place. The capping of the cells is then cut off, and the bars are put into a machine known as the 'extractor.' This is a large cylinder containing wirework cages, that may be set in rapid rotatory motion. The centrifugal force throws out the honey, and the empty combs are replaced on the hive, to be

again filled by the bees. By this method of working, the bees are saved the labour of comb-building, and large harvests of honey may be secured. As much as 400 lb. of surplus honey has been taken from a single hive in this way. It should be noted that heather-honey, being of a thicker consistency than flower-honey, cannot be extracted in this way. Another method is to fill the upper story of the hive with boxes of thin wood known as 'sections,' placed side by side. The sections are usually made to contain 1 or 2 lb. of honey, and are fitted, like the bars, with guides of comb-foundation. The advantage gained here over the old method of producing large supers, is that the surplus-chamber, like the hive, may be enlarged or contracted at will, while the sections may be removed as they are filled, and their place supplied by empty ones. The honey, too, is put into the market in a form much more convenient for use. The quantity of honey that may be taken from a hive differs with the locality as well as with the season. In a good season, a populous hive will yield from 50 to 100 lb. of comb-honey, besides laying up a sufficient store to keep them through the winter, while, if the extracting system be followed, double this amount is easily got.

The honey of various regions is flavoured by the flowers predominant in the districts where it is gathered—heather, rosemary, lavender, orange-flowers, white clover, bass-wood, lime-tree; that gathered from the flowers of some kinds of African Euphorbia and other plants is poisonous. In Scotland, it is not unusual to transport the hives in the flowering season to the neighbourhood of heathery tracts. The honey most famous in the ancient world was that of Mount Hybla in Sicily, and Mount Hymettus in Attica. Supplies are imported into Britain from various quarters; but it is to the United States and Canada that we must turn for bee-farming on the largest scale, and California, especially Southern California, is the paradise of bee-keepers. In 1880 there were said to be 700,000 hives in the United States, kept by 35,000 persons, of whom 5000 were professional bee-keepers. Some bee-keepers have from 2000 to 3000 hives; and as much as 700 lb. of honey has been obtained from one hive. The most improved hives, honey-extractors, artificial combs, and comb-foundations are in general use. In California the bees swarm in March or April, and the taking of the honey begins about the 20th May. See ADULTERATION, HONEY, WAX.

For further information, consult E. Bovan, *The Honey-bee* (1827); C. Claus, *Der Bienenstaat* (1873); Curtis, *British Entomology*; Darwin, *Origin of Species*; Girdwoyn, *Anatomie et Physiologie de l'Abeille* (1875); F. Hüber, *Nouvelles Observations sur les Abeilles* (2d ed. 1814); Kirby and Spence, *Introduction to Entomology*; Kirby, *Monograph of British Bees*; L. Langstroth, *Hive and Honey-bee*; Latroille, *Histoire Naturelle des Insectes*; Sir John Lubbock, *Ants, Bees, and Wasps* (International Science Series, 1882); A. S. Packard, *Guide to the Study of Insects* (1876); G. J. Romanes, *Animal Intelligence* (International Science Series, 1886), and *Mental Evolution* (1886); Schmiedeknecht, *Monograph of European Bees* (1887); F. Smith, *Catalogue of British Bees* (British Museum, 1876); Smith, *Bees of Great Britain*; St Fargenau, *Histoire Naturelle des Hyménoptères*; Müller, *Fertilisation of Flowers* (Eng. ed. by Thomson, 1883). And on bee-keeping, see Pottigrew, *Handy Book of Bees* (4th ed. 1880); Robinson, *British Bee-farming* (1880); Cook, *Manual of the Apitry* (Chicago, 1878); Hunter, *Manual of Bee-keeping* (3d ed. 1879); Quinby, *New Bee-keeping* (New York); and especially Cheshire, *Bees and Bee-keeping* (2 vols. 1886-88).

Beeberu. See GREENHEART.

Beech (*Fagus*), a genus of Cupuliferæ (q.v.). There are about fifteen species, all forest-trees of great beauty. The COMMON BEECH (*F. sylvatica*), forms whole forests in many parts of Europe. It

is one of the stateliest of our forest-trees, and rivals the oak in its dimensions and outline. Its bark is smooth, of a gray colour; and it is remarkable for the frequency with which hard wooden knobs—abortive buds—occur in it. Grass does not grow readily under the shade of the beech, but some rare plants are almost peculiar to such situations. The beech thrives best in light soils; and does not send its roots deep into the ground. The wood is very



Branch of Common Beech :
a, flower; b, fruit.

hard and solid, but brittle; and when exposed to the open air, very liable to rot and to be worm-eaten. It is therefore not adapted to the purposes of the house-carpenter; but when kept always under water, it is very durable, and is accordingly employed in the erection of mills, and for weirs, sluices, &c. It is extensively used by cabinet-makers in the making of chairs, tables, bedsteads, &c., and by turners in making wooden bowls, ladles, butchers' trays, and many other articles of everyday use. It is used also in the manufacture of carpenters' planes and other tools. Berkhamstead, Hertfordshire, is noted for its trade in beech turnery-ware. The wood is also employed by wheelwrights, cartwrights, and coachbuilders. It is much used in France for making *sabots*, being preferred for that purpose to any other, except walnut-wood, on account of its not readily absorbing water. It is regarded as being superior to that of most other trees as fuel, and the green wood is generally preferred to the dry, as it burns more slowly. It also makes an excellent charcoal. The ashes yield a large amount of potash of superior quality. The leaves are sometimes used for making mattresses, and the male catkins in packing. The raspings of the wood are used in the preparation of vinegar; the bark is sometimes employed for tanning where oak-bark is scarce, and also for making pyroligneous acid. The beech bears lopping well, and is often planted for hedges. Beechmast, when fresh, has a sweet taste, like that of a walnut. A volatile, narcotic, poisonous principle called *Fagin* is found in it, but more in the rind than in the kernel. This poisonous principle is, however, easily dissipated by drying; after which the kernels are in some countries ground into flour. Pigs, poultry, and cattle have been long known to thrive and fatten on it, but it is injurious to horses. It yields to pressure a great quantity of oil which is said to be equal in flavour to olive oil, and keeps longer sweet; it is used for many domestic purposes and in the arts. The marc left after the oil is expressed is given as food to swine, cattle, and poultry, but swine are apt to be attacked by a distemper called *garget* when they are fed exclusively upon it. Cocoa is sometimes adulterated with beech-mast:

Beeches from 90 to 100 feet high, with stems from 12 to 22 feet in girth, are not rare in Britain. The finest one in the kingdom is at Newbattle Abbey, Midlothian. It is 95 feet high, and girths 37½ feet at 1 foot, 21½ at 5 feet, from the ground, while the spread of its branches is 350 feet in circumference. The beech is not, in general, found in Europe north of 59° lat., although it occurs two degrees farther north in Scandinavia. It is found in the temperate parts of Asia and in North America; the WHITE BEECH of the latter country being generally regarded as the same species. In gardens and pleasure-grounds a variety is very frequently to be seen of which the leaves have a red colour or purplish-brown, and is named the PURPLE or COPPER BEECH. The same colour appears also in some degree in the narrower and longer leaves of the RED BEECH of North America (*F. ferruginea*), which forms extensive forests; and its wood, which is of a reddish colour, is more valued than that of the White Beech.—Two species of beech are found on the mountains of Java; four are natives of the more elevated parts of the south of New Zealand; several belong to the south of South America. The genus is, in fact, more characteristic of the colder latitudes of the southern than of the northern hemisphere. *F. betuloides* is the 'myrtle-tree' of the mountains of Tasmania—a large tree with small, evergreen, leathery, serrate leaves. The same species is the evergreen beech of Terra del Fuego, where it forms forests of which the dark green foliage contrasts strikingly in winter with the dazzling snow. The wood makes tolerable planks, and is carried to the treeless Falkland Islands for roofing houses. *F. antarctica* ascends higher on the mountains about the Strait of Magellan. It has deciduous leaves, and much resembles the common beech. *F. procera* grows in the Andes of Chili, and attains a majestic size. It is a valuable timber-tree.

Beech-drops. See CANCER ROOT.

Beecher, one of the most remarkable families that America has produced since the settlement of the continent. Its founder settled in 1638 at New Haven, Connecticut; and there LYMAN BEECHER, an eminent divine, was born October 12, 1775. He graduated at Yale College in 1797, and became a Presbyterian minister. He preached at East Hampton, on Long Island, from 1798 till 1810; at Litchfield, Connecticut, from 1810 till 1820; and in the latter year was called to a pulpit in Boston, with the avowed purpose of counteracting the growth of Unitarianism, which, under the influence of Channing and others, was then rapidly advancing. Of an energetic and positive character, Beecher was always among the foremost to combat what he considered the evils of his time. As early as 1806 he attacked the practice of duelling, in a sermon suggested by the killing of Alexander Hamilton by Aaron Burr, and he laboured earnestly in the cause of temperance in the early days of that reform. In 1832 he became president of Lane Theological Seminary, near Cincinnati, Ohio, a position which he held for twenty years. Though a professed Calvinist, he was arraigned for heresy by the extremists of his faith, but was acquitted by the presbytery, and thenceforth was a recognised new school leader in the controversy which rent the Presbyterian Church into old school and new school factions. He resigned the presidency of the seminary in 1852, and died January 10, 1863. In 1864 was published his autobiography and correspondence, edited by his son. Mr Beecher was the father of thirteen children—seven sons (all of whom became clergymen) and six daughters.

CATHERINE ESTHER, the eldest child of the family, was born at East Hampton, on Long Island, September 6, 1800. In early life she became engaged to a Professor Fisher, of Yale College, who was lost by shipwreck, and she never married. From 1822 to 1832 she was principal of a seminary in Hartford, Connecticut, and subsequently devoted her energies and her pen to the advancement of female education. She wrote numerous volumes, principally relative to the needs and duties of women. She died May 12, 1878.

HARRIET ELIZABETH (Mrs Harriet Beecher Stowe), author of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, was born in Litchfield, Connecticut, June 14, 1812. In her childhood she received careful training both at home and at the academy of her native village, and she early developed a fondness for writing—often upon the most abstruse subjects—that amounted almost to a passion. It is recorded that when twelve years of age, at an annual exhibition of the academy, she surprised her friends by the production of an essay on the negative side of the question, 'Can the Immortality of the Soul be proved by the Light of Nature?' On leaving the academy she joined her sister Catherine at her school in Hartford—first as pupil and afterwards as teacher. There she remained until the appointment of their father to the presidency of Lane Theological Seminary, when the two daughters established a school at Cincinnati, Ohio, adjoining the slave-state of Kentucky. Here Harriet saw much of the practical workings of the institution of slavery, and became acquainted with many of those scenes and incidents which she afterwards so graphically described in her anti-slavery writings.

In 1836 she married the Rev. C. E. Stowe, a theological professor in Lane Seminary, with whom she subsequently removed to Brunswick, Maine, and in 1849 she issued her first work, *The Mayflower, or Sketches of the Descendants of the Pilgrims*. In 1851 she engaged to contribute a story to *The National Era*, an anti-slavery paper published at Washington (the seat of government), the result of which was the production of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (unquestionably the most famous novel ever issued in America), which, besides being translated into many foreign languages, has been repeatedly dramatised and represented upon the stage with great success. Probably more than a million copies of this work have been printed in the English language, a large number of which have circulated in the British dominions. It is said that the library of the British Museum contains copies of 35 different editions in English. In 1854 appeared her *Sunny Memories of Foreign Lands*, a charming volume of letters from Europe, where she had spent the preceding year.

Mrs Stowe's other principal works are *Dred, a Tale of the Dismal Swamp* (1856); *The Minister's Wooing* (1859); *The Pearl of Orr's Island* (1862); *Agnes of Sorrento* (1862); *Oldtown Folks, a Story of New England Life* (1869); *Lady Byron Vindicated* (1870), a work which, even had its monstrous allegations been true, should never certainly have seen the light; *My Wife and I* (1871); *Pogonuc People* (1878), &c. Of late Mrs Stowe has resided at Hartford, Connecticut.

HENRY WARD, the most distinguished member of the family, was born at Litchfield, Connecticut, June 24, 1813. He graduated at Amherst College, Massachusetts, in 1834, studied theology under his father at Lane Theological Seminary, preached for two years at the small town of Lawrenceburg, Indiana, and in 1839 was called to Indianapolis in the same state, where he laboured for eight years, acquiring considerable reputation as a pulpit orator, and becoming

noted also for his active interest in the secular questions of the day. He early became identified with the anti-slavery movement of the country (then in its infancy), and introduced into the synod, amid much opposition, a resolution declaring it to be the duty of every clergyman to preach against slavery, and followed this act by a course of sermons depicting the horrors of the institution as it then existed in the United States. In 1847, on the organisation of Plymouth (Congregational) Church, in Brooklyn, New York, he accepted the pastorate, and practically ignoring formal creeds, announced his determination to preach the gospel of Christ, and to do battle in the causes of temperance and anti-slavery. An immense congregation was attracted by his ministrations, and during his subsequent career of forty years (less a few months) he laboured in this chosen field with an almost unparalleled earnestness. He aided in establishing *The Independent*, a politico-religious journal, to which he was for nearly twenty years a prominent contributor. He favoured the free-soil party in the presidential campaign of 1852, and denounced the repeal of the Missouri Compromise (1854); and in the contention which followed between the pro-slavery and anti-slavery factions in the settlement of the territory of Kansas, he openly counselled the meeting of force with force if necessary in the protection of the Free State settlers in their rights. He was an ardent supporter of the republican candidates in the presidential contests of 1856 and 1860, and on the breaking out of the civil war, his church raised and equipped a regiment of volunteer soldiers for service in the field. Some rest to his overtaxed powers becoming necessary, he visited Europe in 1863, and on his return to England from the Continent, he delivered addresses on the condition of his country to crowded meetings, often of unsympathetic auditors; and it is not unreasonably claimed by his friends that he did much at this time towards convincing the British public that his government would ultimately triumph. On the close of the war in 1865, Mr Beecher became an earnest advocate of reconciliation between the two sections on the broadest ground of charity and goodwill. He even alienated, by his liberal course, many of his former political friends, among others the editor of *The Independent*; and his connection with that journal ceased. Later (1870) he assumed the editorship of *The Christian Union*, the circulation of which increased in one year from 3000 copies weekly to over 30,000. Of the charge of adultery with a member of his church, preferred against him in 1875, it is enough to say that one trial resulted in the disagreement of the jury; whilst another before an ecclesiastical council was decided in Beecher's favour. The decade of active usefulness which followed served to restore to the great preacher a large measure of public confidence and esteem. He visited Great Britain in the summer of 1886, delivering numerous addresses, and on his return resumed his pastoral duties, in the active discharge of which he died of apoplexy, March 8, 1887.

Of his published writings, the principal are *Star Papers* (1855), first published in *The Independent*; *New Star Papers* (1858), republished under the title of *Summer in the Soul*; *Thoughts as they Occur*, contributed to the *New York Ledger*, and republished, under the title of *Eyes and Ears* (1864); *Lectures to Young Men* (1844; revised ed. 1850); *Aids to Prayer* (1864); *Norwood, or Village Life in New England* (1867); *Lecture-room Talks* (1870); *Yale Lectures on Preaching* (3 vols. 1872-74); *The Life of Jesus the Christ*, unfinished (Part I. 1871), &c., besides many separate sermons and addresses. See his *Life*, by Joseph Howard, jun.

(1887), and the largely autobiographical *Authentic Biography*, by his son and son-in-law (1888).

Beechey, SIR WILLIAM, R.A., born at Burford, Oxfordshire, in 1753, entered the Royal Academy as a student in 1772, and devoted himself chiefly to portrait-painting. In 1793 he was elected an associate of the Royal Academy; and in 1798 he received the honour of knighthood, and was made a Royal Academician, for his picture of the Cavalry Review in Hyde Park by George III., which is reckoned his best work. Beechey now received the patronage of the royal family and court. Among his portraits are those of Lord Nelson, Sir William Hamilton, Lord St Vincent, Lord Cornwallis, John Kemble, and Mrs Siddons. Beechey was not a painter of the first rank, but his portraits are generally characterised by easy attitude and naturalness of expression. He died at Hampstead, 28th January 1839.—His son, FREDERICK WILLIAM, born in London in 1796, entered the navy at the age of ten. In 1818 he took part under Franklin in a scientific voyage of polar discovery; and the services he rendered with his pencil during this voyage gained a grant of £200 from parliament. In 1819 he was engaged in another arctic expedition under Parry; and in 1821 rendered further important services to science by his exploration of part of the north coast of Africa, of which the results were published in 1828. In 1825 he received a commission to proceed by the Pacific Ocean and Behring Strait to the Polar Sea, in order to communicate, if possible, with Franklin, who was to make the journey overland from North America. The explorers did not meet, although at one time they were within 150 miles of each other. Beechey returned in 1828, and in 1831 published a narrative of his voyage. Port Clarence and Port Grantley, to the south-east of Cape Prince of Wales, were discovered by him in 1827. He was made Rear-admiral of the Blue in 1854, having in 1843 published his *Voyage of Discovery towards the North Pole*. He died 29th November 1856.

Bee-eater (*Meropidae*), a family of birds nearly allied to kingfishers. Numerous forms occur, widely distributed in Africa, India, Moluccas, and Australia, and are well known for their bee-eating propensities and bright plumage. The Common Bee-eater (*Merops apiaster*) very rarely occurs in Britain,



Common Bee-eater (*Merops apiaster*).

but is an exceedingly abundant summer visitor in Southern Europe. Even Aristotle speaks of its ravages among the bees, which the bird seizes on its swallow-like flight, or by watching beside the hives. They excavate long holes which honey-comb the banks of rivers like the Don and Volga.

These nests are sometimes 10 feet deep, and the wearing away of the rather long bill testifies to the amount of labour which they expend to secure the safety of the young. These are often seen sunning themselves at the openings of the holes, tumbling back when alarmed by the approach of reptilian or other enemies. When the flowers wither and the bees cease to work, the birds migrate southwards, and breed again in Africa, where Livingstone has described their excavations on the banks of the Leeba. Their bright, predominantly green plumage is often used to decorate ladies' hats, and they have further some practical importance on account of their destructiveness to bees, which is compensated to some extent, however, by their ravages among wasps and other insects. The Hottentots watch their flight in order to find the bee-nests.

Beef. See CATTLE, FOOD.

Beef-eater (*Buphaga*), a small genus of African perching birds, nearly related to the starlings. The name Ox-pecker is more accurately descriptive of their habit of feeding on the larvae of gallflies and the like, which they find on the backs of cattle, camels, rhinoceroses, and other large animals. Livingstone notes how the sharp eyesight of the South African Buffalo Birds (*B. africana*) make them useful sentinels to the cattle herds, and the same has been observed in regard to the rhinoceros. Their habit of devouring the insect pests, which they generally do without irritation to the infested animals, is evidently convenient and pleasant both for themselves and the cattle.

Beef-eater, a term now applied jocularly to certain functionaries belonging to the Yeomen of the Guard (q.v.), who, ever since the time of Henry VII., at whose coronation they made their first appearance, 30th October 1485, have formed part of the train of royalty, attending the sovereign at royal banquets and other state occasions. The Tower Warders are a distinct corps from the Yeomen of the Guard, and had their origin in the reign of Edward VI., when fifteen of the Warders were sworn in as Extraordinary Yeomen of the Chamber. They received liveries like the Yeoman of the Guard in ordinary, but are distinguished from them by the absence of the cross-belt. The costume has varied somewhat during the four centuries; a slight alteration was made in 1858; and in 1885 a cloth hat was given to be worn with the undress uniform of the Tower Warders. Their costume has had much to do with their attractiveness to sight-seers. The word has of late been usually regarded as a corruption of *buffetier* (Fr.), or *beaufetier*, one who attends the buffet or sideboard. It would thus be an instance of what Latham calls 'foreign words simulating a vernacular origin;' like *sparrow-grass* for *asparagus*, *ancient* for *ensign*. But Skent holds that *beef-eater* is simply *eater of beef*, a servant or dependant, and quotes *caters* (from Ben Jonson) and *powder-beef lubbers* used in a similar sense. See T. Preston's *Yeomen of the Guard* (2d ed. 1887).

Beef-tea is a light and pleasant article of diet, obtained from the flesh of the ox. It is best made as follows: A pound of lean beef is cut into small pieces and placed in a closed jar with a pint of cold water; after an hour the jar is allowed to stand for another hour in a pan of gently boiling water; the contents are then strained through a coarse sieve. A much more concentrated beef-tea may be made by placing the meat in a jar without water and simmering it as above for two or three hours. Salt is then added according to taste. Either of these processes removes from the meat almost all its salts and extractive matters, with a proportion of its albumen and gelatine.

Beef-tea is popularly supposed to contain all the nourishment of the meat from which it is made. This is a great mistake; for though the substances which give the beef its flavour are extracted, far the larger part of the nutritious albumen and gelatine remain in the tasteless and hardly digestible residue: more complex processes are required to obtain highly nutritious extracts from meat. It is, however, of great value in the treatment of invalids, for the nutritious elements which it does contain are, so far as they go, in a digestible form; it is, moreover, a pleasant stimulant, a relish which may enable a sick person with poor appetite to eat other food with enjoyment, and a suitable vehicle for the administration of more nutritious material, for example, some of the easily absorbed 'peptones' or 'infants' foods' in the market. It must always be borne in mind that beef-tea alone has not a high value as a food, and that the increased sense of strength and well-being often following its administration is due to a stimulating more than to a nourishing effect, and is therefore transient and sometimes harmful. Moreover, in some diseases, particularly gout and kidney-disease, it is usually injurious. Mutton, treated in a similar manner, yields a broth or tea which is not so easily digested, and is hurtful to persons of weak stomach, especially if the fat be not skimmed off from the liquid. A knuckle of veal affords a similar broth or tea; but it is not so light as beef-tea, and, moreover, gelatinises on cooling. A broth or tea prepared from a young chicken is, of all decoctions of animal matter, the most readily digested, and is specially suitable for invalids, where great irritability of the stomach exists.

Beef-wood. See CASUARINA.

Beehive Houses. The beehive plan of construction is a primitive method of throwing a roof of dry-stone masonry over a chamber of the same. In building with hewn stones and mortar, a stone-roofed chamber would be vaulted on the principle of the arch; but in primitive building with undressed stones and without mortar, the method was adopted of setting inward each successive course of the upper part of the side walls, until the space to be

in the chambered cairns or barrows of Britain and Ireland; and as these have been shown by their contents to belong to the stone age, it is therefore the earliest method of constructing a roof of which we have extant evidence in the British Isles. It is also the usual style of the basement chambers of the Brochs, or so-called 'Pictish towers' of Scotland, which belong to the iron age. In the early Christian period, many of the small churches and oratories of the Celtic Church in Scotland and Ireland were still constructed in the same primitive manner; and the dwellings of the monks in early Celtic monasteries have been termed 'beehive houses,' from their being almost invariably built of dry stone and roofed in this manner. In some districts of Ireland, as in Kerry, the remains of beehive houses, called by the country-people *cloghams*, are still abundant. They are not connected with ecclesiastical sites, but seem to have been the common dwellings of the inhabitants at some time probably not extremely remote, but now unknown. O'Flaherty, mentioning the *cloghams* of West Connaught in 1684, describes them as buildings of stone, brought to a roof without any manner of mortar to cement them, some of which would hold forty men on their floor, and which were so ancient that nobody knew how long ago any of them were made. In the Western Isles of Scotland there are many remains of beehive houses of quite recent date. Captain Thomas saw forty or fifty in a limited area of the island of Lewis in 1857; and Dr Mitchell records in 1880 that not more than from twenty to thirty were then inhabited. These, however, were not the permanent dwellings of the people, but the huts of their summer shielings, erected usually on grassy spots in the glens to which they proceed with their cattle, and remain making butter and cheese in July and August, 'during which time,' says Captain Thomas, 'they dwell in these circular stone-roofed houses called *bothan*, or in timber-roofed ones called *airidhean*.' The *bothan* are seldom larger than 10 feet in diameter; a row of stones is placed across the interior for a seat, on one side of which is the fire, and on the other the sleeping-place. Many of the older ones, however, have several chambers, each with its beehive roof. Captain Thomas considers them a survival of the Celtic type of the earliest artificial dwelling. Beehive constructions of various types and periods are described and figured in Dr Arthur Mitchell's *Past and Present*, Dr Joseph Anderson's *Scotland in Early Christian and Pagan Times*, and Lord Dunraven's *Sketches of Irish Architecture*. Huts of beehive shape, but of light materials, are used by various savage peoples.

Beelzebub ('god of flies'), the form of Baal worshipped by the Philistines at Ekron. The Greeks also had Zeus 'Apomyios' or 'Myiagros' ('dispenser of flies'), doubtless a god of flocks and herds. As the heathen deities were all regarded as demons by the Jews, the name Beelzebub became, in course of time, commonly applied to the chief of evil spirits, and in this sense it is employed in the Gospels. The more correct reading of the word is *Beelzebub*, variously explained as 'lord of the dwelling,' 'lord of the dunghill.' See BAAL.

Beer and Brewing. Beer is the popular term applied to an infusion of malted barley which has been boiled with hops and afterwards undergone fermentation. Like other alcoholic beverages, it possesses great historical antiquity and interest. Egyptian manuscripts written at least 3000 years before the Christian era show conclusively that even at that primitive period the manufacture of an intoxicating liquor from barley or other grain was extensively carried out in Egypt. Pliny also records in his time the regular use of a fermented drink, made from 'corn and water,' in



The larger Beehive Cell in Skellig Mhichel.
(From a Photograph by Lord Dunraven.)

spanned was so reduced that it could be covered in by a single stone, or by several stones laid lintel-wise, side by side. This method of constructing a stone roof is found in many varieties of prehistoric structures. It is the usual style of roofing the chambers

all the districts of Europe with which he was acquainted. In Britain, little was known about beer before the Roman conquest, the beverages then being chiefly mead and cider. With the improvements in agriculture, however, which followed the conquest, we learn that ale was made from barley and other grain, although differing somewhat from its latter-day representative. By the aid of biology and chemistry, the product has vastly improved within recent years; and it has become the general beverage of many of the leading nationalities of the world. In considering the various processes employed in the different stages of its modern manufacture, it may be best to take them up in their natural sequence, as the ordinary reader may in that way be the better able intelligently to follow. Firstly, then, as the crude basis in brewing, we have to consider the barley. The barleys used at the present day are very various, and many countries are called upon to contribute to the contents of the modern brewer's barns; but practically speaking, the barleys used may be divided into two distinct classes—viz. heavy barleys, weighing from 54 to 58 lb. per bushel, and light barleys, weighing from 48 to 52 lb. They have all their special virtues or drawbacks according to the vicissitudes of the seasons—some being specially serviceable one season, and utterly useless another. And of course the skill of the brewer is displayed in selecting and blending each season in his mash-tuns only those barleys that produce a malt yielding the proper proportions of extractive matter that will, after being boiled with hops and fermented, give him a sound, bright, and delicately flavoured beer. This is a matter requiring somewhat elaborate practical and chemical experimental preliminary examination (beyond the ordinary judgment of experience), and it is impossible to enter into it in detail here. One remark may, however, be made generally on the choice of brewing barleys; they should be thoroughly well and equally ripened, well 'got' or harvested, and as far as possible presented to the brewer in the perfect husk or envelope with which nature has furnished the kernel. Ancient and modern modes of thrashing and dressing to a greater or less extent damage both the husk and the kernel, and thus at the very threshold introduce one of the causes of disease. Whenever the grain is broken or bruised, it is liable to be attacked when moist by a variety of moulds which lead to more or less serious disaster.

Having selected the barley, the next thing is to prepare it for the mash-tun, or in other words to transform it into malt. This is done by steeping the barley in water in iron cisterns with a perforated draining gutter in the bottom, for a period of from 72 to 96 hours, according to the condition and character of the barley. The water is run off and renewed every 24 hours in order to keep it sweet and fresh. At the end of the steeping period the water is thoroughly drained off, and the barley cast on to the malting floor, and the process of germination watched with the greatest care. In cold weather the saturated grain is kept from 12 to 18 inches thick for the first 24 or 36 hours. As soon as the growth begins, the 'floor' is thinned out, and the thickness must now be regulated by the rate of growth. The changes of atmospheric temperature have to be constantly noted and compensated for by the thickening or the thinning of the 'floors,' and by letting in or shutting out the colder or the warmer outside air. In all well-regulated malt-barns provision is made for an abundant supply of fresh air, as this is essential to sound and regular growth; and when under proper control, it should be judiciously used to equalise and regulate

the growth of the malt. The use of further water on the floors is necessary in order to stimulate the growth, and this is applied by means of a sprinkling-pan, which is simply a species of watering-pan specially designed for the purpose. In this way a gentle or a heavy shower can be administered to the floor as the maltster may think fit. The process of growth goes on for various periods according to the varying temperature and the kind and quality of the barley. In mild weather about ten days may be stated as the average period from steep to kiln, and in cold weather about twelve days. It is, however, important to have the growth gradual and at a comparatively low temperature, because the chemical change or modification that is brought about by the progress of the acrospire (the future blade) over the cruder material of the kernel is the main object of malting; and if this growth is irregular, or allowed to proceed at too high a temperature, then you have the apparent requisite growth without the corresponding work done. Lighter barleys malt and mature faster than the heavier varieties; and the maltster must study the peculiarities of each variety, and work it accordingly.

The malt being satisfactorily finished on the floor, is then removed to the drying kiln (fig. 1),

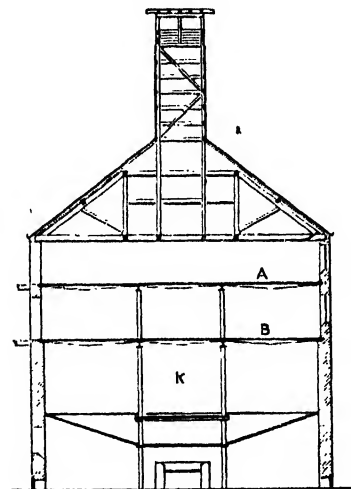


Fig. 1.—Malt-kiln :

A, upper drying floor; B, under or finishing floor.

where it is kept for three or four days. Kilns are large square buildings varying in height (according as they are single or double storied), with wire-cloth floors, an ample ventilator on top, and an open fire underneath. Most kilns have only one drying floor; but those of recent construction have two floors, the one seven feet above the other. The fresh malt is laid on the top floor (A) for two days, and then lowered to the under or finishing floor (B), to be succeeded on the top by another fresh supply. The advantage and economy of this method will be apparent, and American brewers are adopting three stories instead of two. The heat is gradually applied until the moisture is driven out of the malt, when the temperature is further increased to 170°–190° F., and after being kept for some hours at that point, the malt is removed to the store to await the summons to the mash-tun. The chemical change that takes place during malting is not great, and the operation may therefore be regarded as the preliminary preparation of the

barley for the revolutionary changes in the mash-tun. The next step is to crush the malt in order to make it amenable to the action of hot water. This is usually done by an ordinary pair of steel rolls (E, fig. 2); but in large breweries two pairs are at work, the one crushing the small, and the other the large grains. The crushed malt, or 'grist' as it is now called, is then conveyed by means of an elevator (F) to hoppers (G) placed in a position to command all the mash-tuns (I) in the mash-house. At the bottom of each hopper is a shoot, placed immediately above the external mixing or mashing machine (H), which consists of a short cylinder, with a shaft having a number of attached arms and screw-propeller revolving inside. There are two apertures at one end for the admission of the hot water and the grist respectively, while the other end is left open to allow the free exit of the mash. When the operation of mashing commences, the hot water is turned on, and the shoot of the hopper partially opened to allow the grist to come in contact with the water, and the mixture or mash passes out into the tun with the consistency of ordinary porridge. In most breweries there are also internal mashing-machines in the mash-tub. These machines serve the same purpose as the external ones, and consist of a series of rakes worked by means of a shaft under the tun. When mashing is conducted by means of the internal arrangement *alone*, then the whole or greater portion of the mashing liquor is run into the tun, the machinery set in motion, and the grist gradually added.

Great importance is attached to the 'initial' temperature of the mash, but there are so many considerations which regulate its range (within reasonable limits), that they cannot be entered into in detail. They are briefly quality, kind, and condition of malt, variety and character of beer to be brewed, and the relative thickness or thinness of mash. It is also a general practice to raise the temperature of the whole mass by the admission of hot liquor at the bottom of the tun a short time after the first mash. Speaking generally, about 150° F. is the average striking temperature with the English and Scotch systems. As soon as the mash is finished, the tun is carefully covered up to prevent as much as possible any loss of heat during the period of infusion. And now an extraordinary transformation process goes on inside the mash-tun through the action of a soluble albuminoid or unorganised ferment in the malt, known as diastase, which possesses the power of converting the modified starch of the malt into malt-sugar and dextrine. Although this change or conversion takes place very rapidly, the mash is usually allowed to stand for about two hours, when the taps at the bottom of the tun are opened to allow the extract to

drain off through the perforated false bottom. The operation of 'sparging,' or washing out the extract, now proceeds at the same time as the running off, and is accomplished by means of a rotatory copper pipe (K), perforated on alternate sides, which distributes a gentle and continuous shower of hot water equally over the surface of the mash. When the sparging is finished, the waste liquor in the tun is drained off, leaving behind the well-known feeding material, draff or brewer's grains. The extract, or 'wort' as it is

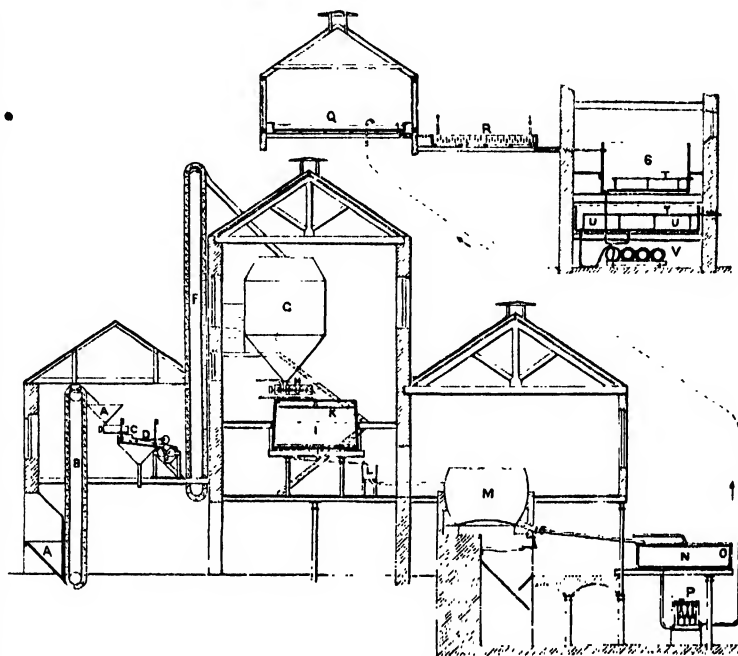


Fig. 2.—Transverse Section of Brewery:

A, malt-hoppers; B, malt-elevator; C, malt-cleaner; D, shatter; E, malt-mill; F, grist elevator; G, grist-hopper; H, mashing-machine; I, mash-tun; K, sparger; L, wort-receiver; M, copper; N, hop-drainer; O, sparger; P, wort-pumps; Q, coolers; R, refrigerator; S, fermenting-tun; T, attenuators; U, settling-square; V, casks.

now termed, is received into an intermediate vessel (L), and either pumped or run direct into the coppers (M), where it is briskly boiled for about two hours with its allotted portion of hops.

Hops.—It is the female flower of the plant that is used by the brewer, and it is difficult to say how long he has appropriated it to his special purpose. It was certainly known in very ancient times, and Pliny mentions in his *Natural History* that the Germans preserved ale with hops. Coming to our own country, there is no doubt the hop was known in England before the Conquest, and passages in contemporary writers show that some use was made of the plant by the Saxons in their primitive process; but the date of its practical introduction for brewing (judging again from contemporary writers) was most probably the middle of the 15th century. The hops exert a purifying, a preservative, and an aromatic influence over the wort. The tannin precipitates the excess of albuminous matter, thus ridding it of a certain source of after-trouble, while other constituents of the hop in different ways play their preservative part.

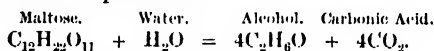
From the copper, the wort passes into the hop-back or drainer (N)—a vessel provided with a perforated false bottom, through which the wort

drains on to the cooler, leaving the hops behind in the back. In many breweries the wort is forced by means of a pump (P) from the drainer to the cooler, but this is not necessary when the site and construction of the brewery allow of the wort running by gravitation from the mash-house to the fermenting-vorn. The cooler (Q) is a large shallow vessel constructed of fine metal plates, but since the introduction of improved refrigerators, it does not occupy the important place it once did in the breweries of this country—those good old times when brewers had to sit up all night waiting on the evening breeze to perform the functions of the cold-water pipe. Coolers are now much reduced in size, and in some cases are abolished altogether, the wort being run direct from the hop-back through the refrigerators. Refrigerators (R), though varying slightly in form, are all similar in principle. They consist of a series of flat copper tubes or pipes, with cold water circulating through them, while the hot wort circulates outside, and gets gradually cooled as it passes each alternate set. The wort and the water circulate in opposite directions, so that the gradually cooling wort is always meeting with colder water in its passage through the refrigerator. As the wort passes directly from the refrigerator to the fermenting-tuns (S), the flow must be regulated in accordance with the temperature at which you wish to 'pitch' or start your fermentation. The pitching heat is a point of pre-eminent practical importance, as upon it depends, to a great extent, the success of the fermentation that is to ensue. Every fermentation must be kept within certain bounds, and if the initial control is lost, it can never be altogether recovered. From 55° F. for strong beers, up to 61° F. for weak beers, is a fair range of pitching temperature, while the quantity of liquid yeast added to start the fermentation varies from 6 lb. to 1 lb. per barrel according to quality of beer and vitality of yeast. Immediately on the addition of the yeast the fermentative action is set up, and in a few hours the surface of the liquid is covered with a brownish cream, which gradually increases in volume owing to the rapid multiplication of the yeast-cells. These are buoyed up by the escaping gas until the yeasty head rises to a height of 2 or 3 feet, and carbonic acid gas is given off in great abundance. During the first 12 hours the fermentation proceeds slowly, but after that period the vigour increases, accompanied by a rapid rise in temperature, and correspondingly rapid decrease in the specific gravity of the liquid. After about 40 hours the contents of the fermenting-tun are generally run off into some intermediate vessel to regulate and control the finish of the fermentation. All settling vessels are provided internally with a series of pipes called attenuators (T), through which cold water can be passed in such quantity as may be necessary to cool the beer to its normal racking temperature. In Burton the beer is pumped into large casks called 'unions,' while in Scotland it is generally finished in large square vessels called 'settling'-squares (U).

When the fermentation is finished and the beer so far 'settled' or freed from suspended yeast, it is racked into casks, and stored in the cellars until ready for consumption. This period varies with the character and kind of ale; local mild ales being fit for use in about a week; pale ales, in two to four months; while strong and export ales require ten to fifteen months to fit them for the market. With all export and pale ales, a quantity of the finest hops is added to the casks as they are filled. This greatly improves the flavour and the keeping and clearing qualities of the beer. Various theories have been advanced at

successive periods in explanation of the phenomenon of fermentation, but that of Pasteur holds the field. Recent researches in molecular physics doubtless give some support to Nägeli's molecular-physical theory, but it is far from satisfactory. On the other hand, Pasteur's beautiful theory of alcoholic fermentation is at once scientific and rational. He has clearly proved that it is a vital phenomenon caused by the living yeast-cell, out of contact with free oxygen, attacking and breaking down the maltose molecules of the wort to satisfy its own requirements. In further support of this theory, Pasteur and Muntz have proved beyond question, that the cells of plants (morphologically similar to yeast-cells), when deprived of the requisite supply of free oxygen by being placed in an atmosphere of carbonic acid gas, give rise to the ordinary products of vinous fermentation. The cells attack the sugar already formed in the plant, depriving it of its oxygen, and producing alcohol and carbonic acid in the same way as yeast does in any saccharine solution. See FERMENTATION.

The yeast-ferment belongs to the lower order of Fungi, and when added to beer-wort, it assimilates the free oxygen, then attacks the sugar, decomposing it into alcohol and carbonic acid, with a number of minor products, such as succinic acid, glycerine, &c. The simple form of rearrangement may be thus represented:



Pasteur's researches have further enabled him to expose and to explain the insidious and destructive working of some of the wild ferments and bacteria which occasionally play such havoc with the produce of the brewery.

Nothing has yet been said regarding the water-supply of the brewery, and although it comes in last, it is by no means the least important element in the process. Absolutely pure water is essential to the successful brewing of all beers, and for high quality keeping ales it is also necessary that it should possess considerable permanent hardness. This is the case with the Burton and Edinburgh wells, hence their product is deservedly held in high repute.

We have not in describing the mashing said anything about the substitutes that are used to partially replace the malt extract, but since Mr Gladstone's Inland Revenue Act of 1880, they have become so general as to decidedly deserve mention. They consist either of a preparation of raw grain, or some variety of brewing sugar. The raw grain consists of specially prepared rice or maize-meal, and while such a substitute may be used in the mash to the extent of 5 to 10 per cent. for ordinary beers, it cannot be used with the same degree of freedom for fine pale or export ales. The ordinary brewing sugars, manufactured mostly from rice and maize-meal by the action of heat and dilute acid, are perhaps the safest substitutes, provided a proper brand is secured; but nothing has yet been brought before the scientific brewer to take the place of malt extract which can compare or compete as a 'substitute' with O'Sullivan and Valentin's 'Dextrine Maltose.' It is manufactured from raw starch, like the sugars, by the action of dilute acid, but the transformation is checked just at the moment when the relative proportions of dextrine and maltose are similar to those found in normal malt wort. The moderate use of genuine substitutes for malt does not in any way diminish, but rather tends to promote the purity of the beer, and the prejudice against them is altogether misguided and mistaken. In some countries barley is discarded altogether in many cases; the native grain being used in its stead, producing naturally a

'native' beer, and differing somewhat from our idea of what a beer should be like. Thus in Japan a popular drink (*Saki*, q.v.) is made from rice; in South America and India, from maize; while in some parts of Africa the millet seed is the source of the intoxicating beverage. See also *AVA*, *PULQUE*.

Varieties of Beer.—There are various technical terms used to distinguish the different kinds and qualities of beer. Thus, 'Table Beer' is a beer of light gravity, and as its name signifies, was meant originally for general table use; though still greatly in favour, it has been largely replaced by other varieties, notably Pale Ale. 'Pale Ale' is a highly hopped beer made from the very finest selected malt and hops, while 'Mild Ale,' or as it is called in Scotland 'sweet ale,' is of greater gravity or strength, and is comparatively lightly hopped. There is also a difference in the mode of fermentation. Pale Ales may be allowed to attenuate very low, but the mild ales must be brewed and fermented so as to keep them at a higher finished attenuation. This gives them a rounder, fuller flavour, while the moderate proportion of hops makes the mildness or sweetness more pronounced. 'Porter' again is a black beer, and requires to be differently manipulated in the mash-tun from any of the varieties just mentioned. It is necessary to have in the mash a mixture of pale amber and roasted malts in the proportion requisite to give the desired flavour and colour, and having achieved this, porter thereafter goes through almost the same process as ordinary ale. Stout is the name given to better-class porter, in other words, a *stout* or strong porter.

In the foregoing epitome of the process of brewing as generally practised in this country, mention of special systems—such as the skimming and Yorkshire Stone Square—has been purposely omitted, as likewise has any reference to the vatting and blending of stouts. These are subjects for a book on brewing; but a sentence may be added regarding lager beer, which, although only manufactured in a few isolated instances in Great Britain, is now growing rapidly in favour in America and in nearly all the warm climates of the globe.

The difference between the manufacture of lager and ordinary beer lies in the system of fermentation, the type of yeast used, and the manner of storage. The fermentation is carried on at a temperature from 20° to 25° F. below the ordinary average of this country, and the yeast, in place of rising to the top, falls to the bottom of the fermenting-square. It is essentially a 'bottom' yeast fermentation as opposed to the typical 'top' fermentation of English and Scotch beer, while the yeast-cell is rather smaller and more irregular. In consequence of the low temperature the fermentation is naturally more prolonged, occupying from ten to twenty days, and the type of alcohol differs from that produced at a higher temperature, being considered physiologically more beneficial. Some years ago, great stress was laid on the German system of mashing called the 'thick mash,' which consisted of boiling or cooking a portion of the mash, and running it back and remixing it with the portion left in the tun; but it is now found perfectly possible to brew the finest lager beer with a slight modification of our own mashing method. As soon as the lager fermentation is finished, the beer is stored in large vats in cellars kept at a temperature of from 38° to 42° F. In about four months' time the beer is ready for consumption, when it is racked into casks, and each day's supply sent out to the customers fresh from the brewery every morning.

In consequence of the low temperature at which it is fermented and stored, lager beer holds in solution a large quantity of carbonic acid gas,

hence its crisp refreshing palate flavour and fine creamy condition.

With the passing of Mr Gladstone's Inland Revenue Act of 1880, a somewhat important change has come over the brewing industry of the country. Previous to the passing of that act the tax was levied on the malt in lieu of the beer—in other words, on the raw material instead of the finished product. Since October 1880, however, brewers can be charged duty either on the beer produced or on the materials used, and if the beer produced from say 40 qrs. of malt is less than the excise authorities presume should be got from that quantity of material, then the brewer has to pay on the quantity mashed, and not on the barrels in the fermenting-tun. The standard which the Inland Revenue have fixed is 18 gallons of beer of 1057° specific gravity for every 42 lb. of malt mashed. Many of the smaller brewers, without proper plant appliances, are placed at considerable disadvantage under the new act, owing to their inability to obtain the presumptive extract from the lighter varieties of malt; and owing to this and other causes they are decreasing in number year by year, as the following figures, which must be of general interest, show. In the year ending September 1880—the last year of the malt-tax—there were 21,223 persons licensed as brewers for sale in the United Kingdom, while in the following year—the first year of the beer-tax—there were only 17,110, or a decrease of 4113 licensed brewers in one year. The decline continued down to September 30, 1886, the return for that year showing only 14,166 licensed brewers. It is at the same time significant and remarkable that, notwithstanding the great decrease of 7057 licensed brewers during the six years, 1880-86, the quantity of beer produced in the United Kingdom remained practically the same. There are treatises on brewing and malting by Black (1875), Steel (1878), Faulkner (1884), Stopes (1886), and Bickerdyke's *Curiosities of Ale and Beer* (1886).

In these days when so much attention is paid in all countries to the consumption of malt liquor, the following table showing the consumption (in gallons) of beer per head in the important beer-drinking countries of the world may not be out of place:

	Production. Barrels.	Consumption. Gals. per head.
Belgium.....	5,800,000	36·00
United Kingdom.....	27,500,000	23·27
Germany.....	26,500,000	20·00
United States.....	22,000,000	14·14
Denmark.....	600,000	11·65
Holland.....	900,000	8·46
Austria Hungary.....	7,700,000	7·10
Norway.....	376,000	6·36
Switzerland.....	440,000	5·87
France.....	5,500,000	5·21
Sweden.....	537,000	4·20
Canada.....	370,000	3·17
Russia.....	2,000,000	0·84
Italy.....	94,000	0·18

With reference to the above table, it should be mentioned that in the case of Germany the figures refer to the whole German empire. The consumption varies enormously in the different states, being as much as 40 to 50 gallons per head in Württemberg.

Beer Acts. See LICENSING ACTS, INN.

Beer-money was a peculiar payment to non-commissioned officers and soldiers in the English army. It was established in the year 1800, at the suggestion of the Duke of York, and consisted of one penny per day for troops when on home-service, as a substitute for an issue of beer and spirits. It continued as an addition to the daily pay until 1873, when, the stoppages for rations having been

abolished, the opportunity was taken to consolidate beer-money and pay proper.

Beer'sheba, now BIR-ES-SEB'A ('well of swearing,' or 'well of seven'), so called because of the covenant Abraham entered into here with Abimelech the Philistine king, which he ratified with an oath and a gift of seven ewe lambs. Beersheba was situated on the southern border of Palestine, about 52 miles SW. of Jerusalem, and formed the limit in that direction of the Israelitish dominion. In the 4th century A.D., it was the seat of a large village, with a Roman garrison; some of its churches were standing in the 14th century. A heap of ruins now marks the site of the village. Two of its wells are still almost always full of water. The shafts are of round masonry, worn with the water-drawers' ropes, and they have no parapet.

Beestings (technically *colostrum*) is the term applied to the first milk yielded after delivery. It differs not a little from ordinary milk, and generally appears as a turbid, yellowish, viscid fluid, similar to soap and water. When examined under the microscope, it is found to contain, in addition to the ordinary milk corpuscles (see MILK), peculiar conglomerations of very minute fat granules, which are hence known as *colostrum* corpuscles. The chief chemical differences between beestings and milk are, that the former is very deficient in casein and proportionately rich in albumen, and that it contains nearly three times more salts than the latter. It is probably this excess of salts that usually causes it to exert a purgative effect upon the new-born offspring, and thus to remove the Meconium (q.v.) which has accumulated in the fetal intestine.

Beeswax. See WAX.

Beeswing (so called from its appearance), a filmy crust of tartar formed in port and some other wines after long keeping. See WINE.

Beet (*Beta*), a genus of *Chenopodiaceae* (q.v.). The species are not numerous; they are mostly biennials, with smooth, ovate, stalked root-leaves, and tall, leafy, flowering stems. They are natives of the temperate parts of the Old World. The Common Beet (*B. vulgaris*) is a native of the shores of the Mediterranean, but is now in very



Common Beet.

general cultivation both in fields and gardens, chiefly for the sake of its large succulent roots, which are used as food for man and cattle, and from which also sugar is extracted (see SUGAR). The variety known as Red Beet is the most esteemed for garden cultivation. Of this there are many sub-varieties, distinguished by the form of their roots, some being tap-rooted or carrot-like, others turnip-shaped, and by the depth of purple or crimson colour they all more or less exhibit. The darkest crimson coloured are the most highly esteemed, partly on account of their more pleasing appearance when cooked, but also because they contain a larger amount of mucilage and saccharine matter than the lighter tinted kinds. Roots of medium size are preferred to those that are larger. It forms a favourite pickle, is used in salads, and is also very agreeable as a boiled vegetable when properly dressed. It is more nutritive and whole-

some than any other cultivated root except the potato. When deprived of the greater part of their juice by pressure, the roots may be used as a substitute for malt. They have also in times of scarcity been ground and mixed with flour for bread-making in continental countries. The seed is sown late in spring that the plants may not produce flowering stems the first year, which would render the root fibrous and useless.—Mangold-wurzel (q.v.), so valuable as a field-crop for food of cattle, is, in general, regarded as merely a larger and coarser variety of the common beet, in which the red colour is comparatively little exhibited.—The White Beet of our gardens (*B. cicla* of some botanists) is now also generally supposed to be a mere variety of the common beet, with little or no red in its roots or leaves, and a comparatively slender root. It is cultivated for the sake of its leaves, which are used in the same manner as spinach, and form an excellent substitute for it, especially in summer, when heat and drought deprive it of its essential succulence. The leaf-stalks and midribs of the leaves, especially of a variety in which these parts are unusually developed, are blanched and dressed for table in the same manner as sea-kale, and named *Chards*. Sea-beet (*B. maritima*) grows wild upon the shores of Britain, and differs from the common beet in its perennial root, its partly prostrate stems, and other characters. The leaves are used for food in Ireland, as are also those of *B. Bengalensis* in the East Indies.

The process of making beet-sugar will be treated at SUGAR. The development of this manufacture in France, Austria, and Germany has enormously extended the cultivation of beet-root, and the importations of beet-sugar have seriously affected the sugar trade in Britain. The quantity of beet-root sugar made in Europe in the season 1850-51 is estimated at 160,000 tons; in 1884-85, it was 2,510,000 tons, which is 2½ times the total imports into Europe of tropical sugar in 1851. The importation of tropical sugar has not merely not increased in the same proportion, but has in some places actually diminished. The growth of the manufacture has been especially rapid in Germany, where in 1863-83 the production of sugar increased by 338 per cent. The production in Austria doubled in 1872-82; in France the growth has not been so rapid, though manufacture and exportation are stimulated by bounties. In 1881 Germany sent 2353 tons of raw beet-sugar to the United States, and in 1884 as much as 45,889 tons. In Germany, by improved processes, nearly 11 per cent. of sugar is obtained from a given weight of beet-root; 9.26 cwt. of beet produce 1 cwt. of sugar. It should be noted that a large proportion (from ¼ to ½) of the saccharine matter of the sugar-cane is not saccharose, but glucose, which is not available for sugar; whereas in beet there is little or no glucose at all, nearly the whole of the saccharine matter being saccharose.

The question of growing beet for sugar-making has been repeatedly raised in Ireland, and two unsuccessful attempts have been made to establish factories for the purpose. Irish beet-root has been grown containing from 10 to 14 per cent. of sugar. For sugar-raising, beet should be sown early, and not taken out of the ground till November; and close-growing of the roots favours the production of sugar.

Beet-fly (*Anthomyia betæ*), a dipterous insect which sometimes infests crops of beet or mangold-wurzel. In spring the very small eggs are laid in patches on the under surface of the leaves. The hatched maggots, which are about a third of an inch long, devour the soft parts, and after about a month of voracious life become pupæ, which are

usually buried in the ground. In about a fortnight the flies appear, measuring about half an inch from tip to tip of expanded wings. There seem to be two or more broods, and the last set of pupæ remain as such during the winter. It has not been noted as a frequent pest in Britain, but did great damage in 1880. Dressing with guano, soot, and especially superphosphate, was found efficacious. The genus includes a large number of forms. Compare CABBAGE-FLY, TURNIP-FLY, POTATO-FLY; and Miss Ormerod's *Injurious Insects*.

Beethoven, LUDWIG VAN, one of the greatest of musical composers, was born at Bonn, December 16, 1770. The family was originally Dutch, from near Louvain. The father was a tenor singer in the elector's band at Bonn, at £25 a year, a man of irregular life and severe temper. The mother appears to have been of no account. Ludwig's teachers were his father, Pfeiffer, and Van den Eeden and Neefe, both court-organists; also Ries for violin, and Zambona for letters. He was soundly and solidly taught, except in counterpoint, but was not precocious. Thus his first symphony dates from his 31st year, an age at which Mozart had written forty-five, including many of his greatest works. He joined the band, April 26, 1783, as accompanist, and on June 27, 1784, was made second organist. In 1787 he paid a short visit to Vienna and played to Mozart. About this time he began to be intimate with Count Waldstein and with the Breuning family, at Bonn. In 1788 the elector remodelled his band, and formed a national opera, at which the best works were performed. Beethoven played the viola in it, and Reicha, Ries, and Romberg were members. On November 20, 1789, the father's salary was transferred to Ludwig, and he became head of his family. In 1790 he wrote a cantata on the death of Joseph II. (not discovered till 1884). In the Christmas of that year he first saw Haydn. In 1791 we first hear of Beethoven's extempore playing, and he is already using the sketch-books so characteristic of him. In July 1792 Haydn again passed through Bonn, and warmly praised and encouraged him; and very shortly afterwards the elector sent him to Vienna to study under that great composer. He left Bonn in November, at the end of his twenty-second year. His compositions up to this date were unimportant; the cantata, two string Trios (ops. 3 and 8), two easy Sonatas (op. 49), the two piano Rondos (op. 51), are all that can be said to survive. But though thus backward, his character and his musical knowledge were fast maturing and consolidating. He displays the obstinacy, the humour, the absorption, the power of attachment of his later life; the best people of Bonn are devoted to him, and all believe strongly in his future. He is already one of the finest extempore players of the day.

In November 1792 he is established in Vienna, taking lessons in counterpoint from Haydn, and, during Haydn's absence in London, from Albrechtsberger; also from Schuppanzigh on the violin. He learned also from Salieri and E. A. Förster. In July 1795 he published the three Trios (op. 1); and on March 9, 1796, the three piano Sonatas (op. 2); the two piano Concertos in B flat and C were composed before April 1795; *Adelaide* was written that year; the Sonata in E flat (op. 7) was published October 1797; that in D (op. 10, No. 3), September 1798, &c.

Henceforward his works are composed in regular succession:

1800. Six String Quartets; C minor Concerto; Symphony No. 1; Septet; *Prometheus*; *Mount of Olives*.
1801. Quintet in C; Sonatas ops. 26, 27, 28.

1802. Symphony No. 2; Sonatas, piano and violin, op. 30. His deafness becomes serious. Letter called 'Beethoven's Will,' dated October 6.
1803. *Kreutzer* Sonata; piano Sonatas, op. 31.
1804. *Eroica* Symphony; *Waldstein* and *Appassionata* Sonatas.
1805. *Fidelio* produced November 20 (Overture 'No. 2'); piano Concerto in G; three Quartets, op. 59. This year the French occupied Vienna.
1806. *Fidelio* (2d version, Overture 'No. 3'); Symphony No. 4; violin Concerto.
1807. Overtures *Coriolan* and *Leonora* 'No. 1;' Mass in C.
1808. Symphonies 5 and 6; piano Trios in D and E flat; Choral Fantasia. This year brought an offer from King Jerome Bonaparte to direct his music at Cassel, but it ended in a guarantee from the Archduke Rodolph and Princes Lobkowitz and Kinsky to pay him an annual income of 4000 paper florins—at that time worth £210.
1809 was the year of Aspern and Wagram, and the second French occupation of Vienna; but composition went on, and we find the piano Concerto and Quartet in E flat, the Sonatas in F sharp and E flat (op. 81a), and many small works. Haydn died May 31.
1810. *Eymont* music; the Quartet in F minor, besides some small military pieces.
1811 produced the piano Trio in B flat; the music to *King Stephen*, and the *Ruins of Athens*. The latter part of this summer he spent at Teplitz.
1812. Symphony No. 7, May 13; second visit to Teplitz, Carlsbad, and Franzensbrunn; meeting with Goethe; returns by Linz, where he completed the 8th Symphony, and two pieces for trombones, to Vienna; Sonata for piano and violin, op. 96, completed and played at Vienna before the close of the year.
1813. Battle of Vittoria, June 21; composition of the *Battle Symphony*, produced with Symphony 7 at a great concert, December 8. Summer spent at Baden.
1814. Symphony No. 8 produced February 27; *Fidelio* rewritten, and given May 23; Sonata, op. 90, August 16; Overture, op. 116, October 4; Congress at Vienna; Cantata, *Der glorreiche Augenblick*, November 29; *Tournament* music (still in MS.), November 23. Lawsuits with Maelzel and with Count Kinsky's heirs—the beginning of troubles.

Up to this date, notwithstanding the drawbacks consequent on his deafness, which was now total, he seems on the whole to have enjoyed life. The next period was a far more painful struggle.

1815. Troubles still continue. Quarrel with Stephen Breuning. Death of his brother Carl, November 15. Compositions few; Sonatas, piano and 'cello, op. 102; *Alceste's Lullaby*; Sonata, op. 101; arrangement of Scotch songs.
1816. *Liederkreis* composed, April. Lawsuit with Carl's widow; appeals; terrible troubles. Lawsuit with Professor Lobkowitz; pension reduced to £110; Philharmonic Society buys Overtures *Ruins of Athens*, *King Stephen*, and op. 115, for £78, 15s. Last appearance in public, April 20.
1817. Nothing but worries and troubles. Beginning of *Choral Symphony*.
1818. Piano sent by Broadwood, February. Sonata, op. 106, and Mass in D both begun; 9th Symphony continued. Summer and autumn at Mödling; anxieties about his nephew.
1819. At Mödling; work and worries still continue.
1820. Appeal decided in his favour (January), and his nephew goes into his charge. Sonata, op. 109. Mass proceeding.
1821. Sonata, op. 110, December 25.
1822. Sonata, op. 111, January 13; Mass completed March 19; at Baden, Overture, op. 124; 9th Symphony proceeding. Reconciliation with Stephen Breuning.
1823. Symphony proceeding; 33 Variations, op. 120; Symphony finished at Baden, September 5. Visit of Weber and Benedict, October 5; Rossini—fever at its height, and neglect of all other music;

- proposal to write an opera, and worries thereon; subscriptions to Mass unsuccessful.
1824. Mass in D and 9th Symphony performed May 7. Quarrels with his best friends. Autumn at Baden. Quartet, op. 127, completed. October. On returning, moves into Schwarzschanerhaus, where he died; illness in the winter.
1825. At Baden from May 2 to October 15. Quartets in A minor, op. 132, and B flat, op. 130, completed.
1826. C sharp minor Quartet, op. 131, written; young Carl banished Vienna for misdeeds; they visit Johann Beethoven at Gneixendorf; last Quartet, op. 135, composed October 30; present finale to B flat Quartet composed November; returns to Schwarzschanerhaus at Vienna, December 2; Beethoven takes to bed, which he never again leaves; receives £100 from Philharmonic Society, also Handel's works from Stumpff of London. Makes acquaintance with Schubert's music.
1827. He died March 26, at a quarter to six P.M., during a thunderstorm, and was buried on the 29th at the Währinger Friedhof, outside Vienna.

Beethoven's music has not yet become at all antiquated. *Fidelio* still fills the theatre to overflowing, and a performance of his Mass in D is still the great ambition of conductors. His symphonies are now more played than ever before, and form the staple of all orchestral concerts. The same is equally true of his quartets and trios. His sonatas are not only the test of the greatest executants; but they are the indispensable material by which thousands of humble piano students are taught; and yet no one ever wearies of them. The reason of this is partly the nature of the thoughts, apart from the extraordinary energy and the stern conciseness which animates and controls them, and which are synonymous with his name; they are always noble, simple, unpretentious, and yet containing a depth of meaning which is ever fresh; they are also free from affectation or passing triviality; they seem to reach down to the common basis of humanity to that which lies at the bottom of every heart; and thus his melodies often have a surprisingly fresh and modern effect, as if made yesterday. At the same time they are not vulgar; they have the geniality and common-sense of Haydn's thoughts, but are of a loftier and wider cast. In his music, as in life, the serious and the humorous mix, and set off one another, as they do in the works of Shakespeare. He must not be thought of merely as a musician. He himself has told us that he always worked to a picture or a scene. His music was as truly the expression of the mental image and emotion as is the language of the greatest poet or dramatist; it was never an exercise in mere technicality. Even the complicated fugues of his latest sonatas are as full of meaning as the other and less scientific movements. In some cases the 'subjects' which form the texts of his music are abrupt and individual beyond all precedent, in others they are steeped in heavenly beauty and feeling, in both instances because they are the representatives of corresponding emotions; and in all cases the world, which began by scoffing or shrinking, has approved them. The contrasts and varieties in the instrumentation and setting of his thoughts are truly wonderful; it is as if he had his hearers constantly in his eye, and was always thinking how his thoughts could be presented in some new light, and how the attention could be best kept up until the end of his discourse. His last works, those composed during and after the period of trouble and distress, which reached from 1815 to 1820, have something of their own—something rarely if ever found in the earlier years, and unknown in his predecessors. They seem to breathe more than beauty, energy, or variety of sound, and in some mysterious way to mingle morals with music, and to lift us into a higher

region and a keener air than any other compositions. But this cannot be explained; and no one who has felt what is meant will ask for an explanation. Another point is the extraordinary variety of the music. Not only each work, but each movement is entirely different from all the others of the same name or class; and here again is a point of resemblance to Shakespeare.

This pre-eminence is not the result of any sudden impulse or impromptu effort; on the contrary, it was the effect of enormous care and labour. Fortunately, many of his sketch-books are preserved, and they enable us to see how insatiable he was in altering and rewriting his work till he got it into exactly the proper shape, and the oftener rewritten the more spontaneous does it become in the end. There is hardly a bar in his music of which it cannot be justly said that it has been written fifteen or sixteen times. His best themes often first appear in a mere commonplace form, but by repeated alterations they are brought to their present natural and eternal shape. And when he has found the proper vehicle for his thought, he is never weary of repeating it, until, as in the Pastoral Symphony, the music seems to consist of the continual reiteration of a few pregnant ideas. His music was the expression of his great mind, and no pains were too great that could make it more noble or truly refined, or could add to its beauty. And the same attention is shown in everything. No one before was so careful to mark the intended pace, or the changes of expression, or the minutest nuances, or to see that his publications were correctly printed.

Beethoven was no doubt an innovator; but he was so as every original thinker must be who wants means to express what no one before has thought; only that in his case the thoughts were far greater and the expression far more varied than elsewhere. His early works can often be hardly distinguished from Mozart, and it is only by degrees that the nature of the man shows itself. (The Sonatas op. 7 and op. 10, No. 3; the Coda of Finale to Symphony No. 2, are some of these early steps.) But his innovations were legitimate, never for their own sake. He worked on the old lines till he found that he needed to enlarge or modify them. Thus he enlarged the introduction and the coda; he introduced episodes in the 'working-out'; he changed the minuet into the scherzo; he multiplied the key-relations of the movements; he introduced the chorus into the finale of a symphony; he invented the 'cycle of songs'; he put variations on a new footing, which has been adopted and extended by his successors; he initiated the modern use of 'programme-music'; and everything that he did was more serious, more thoughtful, and therefore more permanent than any one else's. At the same time, it is pure music of the grandest, most touching, and beautiful sort. While adhering to the framework which seems essential for all art that is to appeal to the race and not to cliques of individuals, he shows that such framework need be no impediment to the most passionate, most personal, most universal ideas. Other men have followed the road which he opened, and have carried still further his extensions of form; but no one has done it with the same powers, or with such unabated freshness, or has met with such wide recognition by all hearers and all minds of whatever tendencies or constitution. We often hear of 'Beethoven's three styles.' It means that he began writing as his predecessors wrote; that by degrees his own genius asserted itself and made his music stronger, broader, more deeply coloured, more beautiful, than music had ever been before; and that lastly his deafness, his poverty, the troubles of life, the

approach of the end, brought a peculiar and unearthly sentiment into his thoughts.

He accepted the orchestra as he found it, for the trombones were nobly employed by Mozart, and the double bassoon formed a part of the orchestra at Bonn, and was also used by Haydn. But there is much of the highest interest in his employment of the various instruments. Every one is sooner or later immortalised—the drum in the 4th Symphony, and in the E flat Concerto; the horn in the *Eroica*, 7th and Choral Symphonies; the bassoon in the 8th Symphony; the trombones in the *Benedictus* of the Mass in D, and so on. The orchestra of the 2d Symphony is obviously founded on that of *Figaro*, but in the *Eroica* all that is changed.

He raised the status of musicians as much as he had enlarged the bounds of the art. Mozart and Haydn had been salaried lackeys, but Beethoven would be no man's servant, and by his mere independence, and some secret spell which counteracted all his discourtesy, compelled the highest classes of Vienna to treat him as an equal. No one before or since can show such a list of dedications of his works, and all were apparently purchased by regard and not by money.

His character was simplicity itself; falsehood was absolutely foreign to his nature, and he carried truth and sincerity into *brusquerie*, and often into shocking rudeness. The books are full of stories of this, which cannot be given here. And yet, so great was the influence of his personality, that those to whom he was rudest were fondest of him. Princes, cardinals, high-born beautiful ladies, women like Rachel, and men like Goethe, were devoted to him, and put up with every unpunctuality and every incivility. Varnhagen von Ense, after several weeks' intimate communication, 'found the man in him much stronger than the artist.' His simplicity sometimes became credulity, blinded him to real facts, and made him often unfair and harsh. This showed itself unjustifiably towards his relations, and towards many of his best and truest friends. Such conduct must have been greatly due to his deafness, his sensitive nature, and his absorption in his music, and he was always ready to confess his error; he was full of the deepest feeling, and there is something wonderfully touching in his devotion towards his nephew, one of the meanest, most graceless scamps on record; but on whom, partly because he was left to him, partly because of his craving for affection, he lavished all his tenderness. His nature and his deafness drove his goodness inwards, and we must look to his music, and to the mystical aspirations with which he salutes God in the sunrise, or the beauty of the woods, for the deeply religious feelings of his great heart.

Though a Catholic by birth, and dying in that faith, he had little formal religion. And yet a more deeply religious mind never existed. In every trial his thoughts flew upwards, and his note-books are full of the most passionate ejaculations. God was to him the most solemn and intimate reality, whom he saw and welcomed through all aspects of nature, and in every mood of joy and sorrow. Living in a profligate city, and in a time of the loosest morals, and himself singularly attractive to women, his name is not connected with a single *liaison* or scandal. 'It is one of my first principles,' says he, 'never to stand in any relations but those of friendship with another man's wife.' Again, 'O God! let me find the woman who is destined to be mine, and who shall strengthen me in virtue.' He wrote no second opera because he could get no libretto of the virtuous, elevating cast which he thought essential, and which alone he would consent to set.

Beethoven was 5 feet 5 inches high, very broadly

and firmly built; his head large, and the hair black, thick, and abundant. His eyes were dark in colour, very bright, and peculiar. His voice was rough on occasion; but when he was touched it had a light tone which was peculiarly affecting.

For the details of Beethoven's life, and the best books to study regarding him, the reader is referred to the article in Sir George Grove's *Dictionary of Music and Musicians* (Macmillan), and still more, to the American Thayer's *L. van Beethoven's Leben* (3 vols. Berlin, 1876-79).

Beetle, the name of an order of insects technically known as Coleoptera. There are indeed some insects popularly called 'beetles' which are not Coleoptera, and some Coleoptera which would hardly be termed 'beetles,' but for practical purposes the two words are synonymous. They have generally the usual four wings, but the front pair form hard and horny covers for those behind, which alone are used in flight. The feelers or antennae have only a few joints; the jaws or mandibles are almost always biting organs like those of the Cockroach (q.v.), and the fourth pair of mouth appendages (second pair of maxillae) are completely fused together. They go through a complete metamorphosis (q.v.), the young beetles being caterpillar-like forms, usually with six legs, and always unlike the adult. The males are usually distinguishable from the females by differences of size, form, colour, fighting organs, sounds, &c. For general anatomy, see INSECT. There are probably about 100,000 different species, more than twice the total number of backboneed animals, and among these myriads there is, within a small range, such a marvellous diversity of form, colour, size, and habit, that general characteristics are hard to note. About the beginning of this century, Latreille divided this vast multitude into four great groups according to the number of small joints in the lowest part of the leg. But his four divisions (Pentamera, Heteromera, Tetramera, and Trimera) are artificial, and are abandoned by many modern coleopterists, who arrange the host in seventy-five families. It may be said of most beetles that they are strong, voracious insects, acting as 'universal scavengers,' preferring to remain concealed during the day, and only on occasions taking to flight. Their food varies greatly from hard wood to soft fruits, from the carcasses of animals to dung, and a few become parasites. They are found in water and on land, on plants and among stones, burrowing in the ground and drilling holes in wood, in fact in almost every variety of habitat. Fossil-beetles begin to appear in the carboniferous strata, and are often found imbedded in amber. Their practical importance in regard to vegetation, and their numerous interesting peculiarities of form and habit, will be discussed under special articles.

See the following articles on various beetles:

Bark-beetle.	Death-watch.	Meal-worm.
Blister-beetle.	Devil's-coach horses.	Oil-beetle.
Burying-beetle.	Dung-beetle.	Scarabæus.
Cantharis.	Fire-fly.	Stag-beetle.
Churchyard-beetle.	Glow-worm.	Water-beetle.
Cockchafer.	Lady-bird.	Weevil.
Colorado-beetle.		Wire-worm.

Beetling. In some rural districts of Scotland the peasantry, when they have not ready access to a mangle, beat clothes, newly washed and dried, with a wooden mallet on a flat stone, and the operation is called beetling. The same term is applied to a finishing process in the manufacture of linen, and also of some kinds of cotton goods. Just as in the hammering by hand, the object is to fill up and give a finish to the cloth by flattening its surface. It is done by the rising and falling of upright wooden stamps, placed close together in a row, with their square butts resting on a roller over which the cloth passes under them. The stamps

are worked by the rotation of a horizontal shaft, acting with tapets, like the cylinder of a barrel-organ.

Linen weft yarns, and especially such as are used for heavy sail-cloth, are also beetled by this machine to soften them. But finer weft yarns of this material are now, instead of being beetled, passed through what is called a *softening machine*, which consists of two pairs of grooved wooden rollers with the requisite driving gear.

Beet-root Sugar. See BEET and SUGAR.

Beets, NICOLAUS, Dutch poet and writer, was born at Haarlem, 13th September 1814, and studied theology at Leyden. After serving at Heemstede, near Haarlem, he was in 1854 appointed to the pastorate of Utrecht, and in 1874 to the chair of Theology there. His poetical works have been collected (4 vols. 1873-81). Through the earlier pieces runs a strong vein of misanthropic sentiment, due probably to Byron, some of whose works he translated into Dutch (2 vols. 1835-37). His prose writings include *Camera Obscura* (13th ed. 1880), a series of tales and sketches of life and scenery in Holland, published under the pseudonym of 'Hildebrand'; they display keen observation and considerable humour. Besides several critical works, he has published in theology, notes on the life of St Paul (3d ed. 1858), and *Stichtelijke Uren* (new ed. 8 vols. 1872).

Befana, a corruption of *Epiphania* (Epiphany), which name in Italy has become personified for children as a toy-bringing old woman called *la Befana*. She is a kind of female counterpart of the Wandering Jew and Santa Claus combined, and is employed as a kind of bugbear to frighten naughty children. According to the popular story, she was busy cleaning the house when the three wise men of the East passed by on their way to offer their treasures to the infant Saviour, and when called to the window to see them, she said she could do so when they returned. They went home by another way, and she has ever since been watching for their return. On Twelfth Night she brings good children toys and sweetmeats, but bad children only find their stockings full of ashes. It was also customary in Italy, on the evening before the Epiphany (5th January), to carry an effigy called the *befana* in procession through the streets amid great rejoicings, but this has fallen greatly into disuse.

Beffroi. See BREACHING TOWER.

Beg, now always BEY ('lord'), a Turkish title, rather vague in its import, and commonly given to superior military officers and distinguished foreigners. In rank it stands between *Effendi* and *Pasha* (q.v.). It is often assumed without any authority, and nearly every young Turkish dandy allows himself to be addressed by the title. 'Beglerbeg,' or, more correctly, *Beilerbegi* ('lord of lords'), is the title given to the governor of a province.

Begas, KARL, court-painter to the king of Prussia, was born near Aix-la-Chapelle in 1794. He painted a great many biblical subjects for churches, as well as several historical pictures and portraits. He died November 23, 1854. Of his four sons, two became known as painters, and two as sculptors.

Begg, JAMES, D.D., born in 1808 at New Monkland manse in Lanarkshire, was educated at Glasgow University, and was licensed as a preacher in 1829. Minister of Liberton from 1835 to 1843, he 'came out' at the Disruption, and thenceforward to his death (29th September 1883) held the neighbouring Free Church of Newington, Edinburgh.

A man of fine presence and vigorous intellect, he distinguished himself by his old-world orthodoxy, his humour and combativeness, and his efforts to improve the houses of the poor. See the Memoir by Professor T. Smith (2 vols. 1885-88).

Beggar. See MENDICANCY.

Beggar-my-neighbour, a game at cards played by two persons, between whom the pack is equally divided. Holding their cards back-upwards, the players lay down a card alternately, till an honour is turned up, which is paid for by the adversary—four cards for an ace, three for a king, two for a queen, and one for a knave. Such payment being made, the winner lifts the trick; but if an honour is laid down during the payment, then the opposite party must pay for that in the same way; and so on, till a payment is made without an honour. The object is to win all the cards in the pack. The game is as old at least as 1777.

Beghards. Societies of laymen under this name first appeared in Germany, the Netherlands, and the south of France in the beginning of the 13th century, and were known in Italy as *Bizachi* and *Bocasoti*; but they never obtained the reputation enjoyed by the Beguine sisterhood. Towards the end of the 13th century they were commonly stigmatised as *bons garçons*, *boni pueri*, and such contemptuous titles, which expressed the low estimation in which they were held. On account of heretics of all sorts retreating into these half-spiritual communities, they were subjected to severe persecutions after 1367, and were gradually dispersed, or joined the orders of Dominicans and Franciscans. In the Netherlands, where they had preserved a better character than elsewhere, they maintained their ground longer, and were protected by Pope Innocent IV. (1245), in Brussels by Cardinal Hugo (1254), and in Liège by Pope Urban IV. (1261); but their communities disappeared in the 14th century. The most probable origin of our word *beggar*, according to Dr Murray, is none other than the old French *begart*, *begard*, or its synonym, *beguin*, whence the verb *beguigner*, *beguiner*, 'to act the beguin.' If this etymology be true, it serves to show how widely these lay mendicants must have been spread over Western Europe.—See BEGUINES; Mosheim, *De Beghardis et Beguinibus* (Leip. 1790).

Begharmi. See BAGIRMI.

Beglerbeg. See BEG.

Begonia. This genus (which gives its name to a small order of doubtful affinities) contains a



Begonia rex.

large number of species which are cultivated in our greenhouses, partly on account of their usually

pink, unisexual flowers, and partly for their remarkable unequal-sided and often coloured leaves, to which they owe such various popular names as 'Elephant's ears' in the East Indies, or, more poetically, 'Angel's wings' in the Spanish Antilles and Mexico. They are almost all tropical plants; but a small species of *Begonia* ascends the Himalayas to at least 11,500 feet, often growing on the trunks of trees. The leaves and young stems are succulent and acid, and those of several species are used as pot-herbs or in tarts like rhubarb. The roots of some are used in their native countries as astringents, and some of the Mexican species are used as drastic purgatives. According to London, begonias were introduced into Great Britain from Jamaica in 1777, but they were little cultivated till 1840.

Beg-Shêhr, or KERELI GÖL, an extensive mountain lake in Asia Minor, 44 miles SW. of Konia, situated almost 3700 feet above the sea. It is over 30 miles long, and from 5 to 10 miles broad, and contains several islands. Its only visible outlet is a rivulet connecting it with the much smaller lake, Soghla Göl, the waters of which occasionally disappear altogether; and it is evident that a great part is carried off through subterranean channels in the limestone range of the Taurus. On its east and north shores are the towns of Begshehr and Kereli.

Beguines (BEGUINÆ, BEGUTTÆ), a sisterhood within the Catholic Church, first formed during the 12th century in the Netherlands. The origin of the word is doubtful. It is ascribed by some to a St Begga, who is said to have founded the first sisterhood in 696; by others to a priest named Lambertus le Bègues or le Bèghe, who founded in Liège, about 1180, a society of pious women who were called by his name. The Beguines were not restricted by vows, nor did they follow the rules of any order, but were united under a superior for the exercise of piety and benevolence, and lived generally in separate small cottages, which, collectively, formed the *Beguiniatum*. Their establishments were often enriched by liberal donations. A church, a hospital, and a house of reception or common entertainment, generally belonged to every community. The sisters were distinguished from the rest of the laity only by their diligence and devotedness, piety, modesty, and zeal for the purity of youthful education. Their most flourishing period was during the 12th and 13th centuries, when they spread themselves widely over France, Germany, and the Netherlands. As the pietists of the middle ages, they were often subjected to persecution by the mendicant orders of friars; but on account of their practical usefulness were long sheltered by the popes and councils as well as by the secular authorities. In the 13th and 14th centuries, through their sympathy with the persecuted Fraticelli (q.v.) and the 'Brethren and Sisters of the Free Spirit,' they were brought under the scrutiny of the Inquisition; and on account of certain immoralities, a synod held at Fritzlar in 1244 required that all candidates must be forty years old before they could enter a society of Beguines. These sisterhoods maintained their position in Germany and the Netherlands longer than in other countries. In Holland, they existed at the close of the 18th century; and in the present day we find here and there so-called *Beguinen-huizen* in Germany; but they are now nothing more than almshouses for poor spinsters. At Ghent, there is still a celebrated institution, the *Béguinage* of St Elizabeth, containing some 700 sisters, who live in a separate quarter of the town in 103 little brick-built cottages, with 18 convents and 2 churches, arranged in streets and squares within a common

wall, open to the visits of strangers. Living here a life of retirement and piety, the Beguines, in their simple dark dresses, go out as nurses to the hospitals, and perform other acts of kindness among the poor. Though they are under no monastic vow, it is their boast that none is known to have quitted the sisterhood. See BEGHARDS; also Hallmann's *Geschichte der Belg. Beghinen* (Berlin, 1843).

Begum (a feminine form corresponding to *Beg*, q.v.), an Indian title of honour equivalent to 'princess,' conferred on the mothers, sisters, or wives of native rulers. The Begum of Oudh (see HASTINGS, WARREN) is well known in Indian history.

Behaim, MARTIN, a famous cosmographer, was born at Nuremberg about 1459. He early entered into mercantile life, and in 1480 went to Portugal, where he soon acquired a reputation as a skilful maker of maps. In 1484 he accompanied the Portuguese navigator, Diego Cam, in a voyage of discovery along the west coast of Africa, and sailed as far as the mouth of the Zaire or Congo River. In 1486 Behaim sailed to Fayal, one of the Azores, but in 1490 he left Fayal and returned to Nuremberg. There he constructed a large globe, principally from the writings of Ptolemy, Pliny, Strabo, Marco Polo, and Sir John Maundeville. It is still preserved by the family of Behaim in Nuremberg, and is a valuable record of the progress of discovery, though it exhibits little accuracy, even for that date. Behaim again resided in Fayal from 1494 to 1506, and then removed to Lisbon, where he died in the same year.—MICHAEL BEHAIM (1416-74) was a German *meistersänger*, a native of Sülzbach, and by profession a weaver. His poems have been edited by Karajan and others (1843-67).

Beham, two brothers, natives of Nuremberg, and both of them painters and engravers—Hans Sebald (1500-50) and Barthel (1502-40). They are reckoned amongst Dürer's seven followers, the 'Little Masters,' and form the subject of a monograph by A. Rosenberg (Leip. 1875).

Behar, or BAHAR (also spelt *Bihar*), once one of the three *subahs* or provinces under the Nawab of Bengal, now one of the four great provinces of Bengal, occupying part of the valley of the Ganges, comprising the two divisions of Patna and Bhagalpur, and subdivided into 12 administrative districts. Area, 44,139 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 23,127,104. The Ganges divides the province almost into two equal parts; it is watered besides by several of its important tributaries. Among the minerals, the most important are coal, lead, silver, copper, and mica, but these are scarcely worked. European vegetables have been introduced, and succeed well. Of indigenous productions, the chief are rice, wheat, barley, maize, pulse, sugar, cotton, indigo, and tobacco. Oil-seeds, opium, indigo, sugar, cotton, and saltpetre are exported. The cultivation of opium is a government monopoly, with its headquarters at Patna. Over 300,000 acres are under poppy cultivation for this purpose. Upwards of a million sterling is invested in the indigo industry in the different districts. The district is also engaged in the manufacturing of muslins, silks, carpets, blankets, tents, tapes, threads, ropes, paper, glass, cutlery, jewelry, leather, ink, soap, and pottery. The East Indian Railway runs through the entire length of the province, and is now the great commercial highway. Before the days even of Moslem domination, Behar appears to have been the centre of a Hindu empire, which native accounts describe as of matchless splendour, and of fabulous duration. *Knoach Behar* is a native state near Bhotan, under the lieutenant-governor of Bengal; area, 1307 sq. m.;

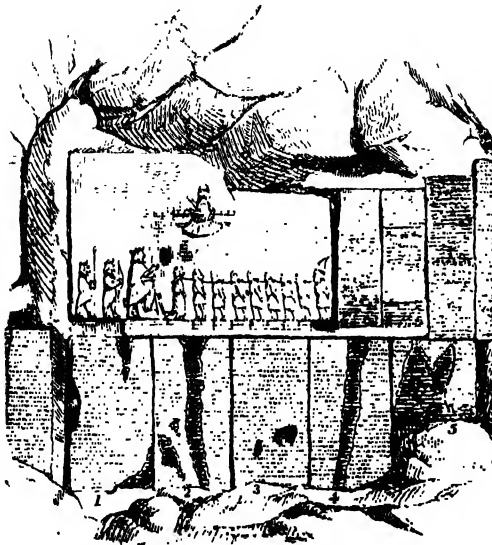
pop. 602,604. Its capital is also Kooch Behar, or Kuch Behar.

Behar, or BAHAR, a town of Bengal, 54 miles SE. by S. of the town of Patna. The original city is nearly deserted, and the present town consists of houses scattered about its remains, and interspersed with fields, gardens, and groves. There are some remains of fine mosques. Behar has a considerable trade, chiefly in rice, European cloth, cotton, and tobacco; while silk, cotton cloths, and muslin are manufactured here. Pop. (1881) 48,968.

Behheading. See EXECUTION, GUILLOTINE.

Behemoth (Heb., plural of *b'hēmāh*, 'beast,' a word of Egyptian origin), the name of a large and strong four-footed beast, referred to once in the Old Testament Scriptures, Job, xl. 15-24. Gesenius proves that the description in the passage is more suitable to the hippopotamus than to any other animal, though the elephant has been suggested by some scholars.

Behistun, or BISUTUN (ancient *Baghistan*), the site of an ancient Persian city, 22 miles E. of the city of Kirmanshahan. It is noted for its famous precipitous rock, anciently known as Mount Bagistannus, which on one side rises perpendicularly to the height of 1700 feet. Diodorus relates that Semiramis encamped near the rock, and caused the lower part to be smoothed away and an inscription engraved on it in her honour. This, like many other traditions attached to the mythic queen, is now proved false. The rock bears inscriptions of Darius Hystaspes about 518 B.C. The inscriptions—which are in the three forms of cuneiform writing, Persian, Babylonian, and Median—set forth the hereditary right of Darius to the throne of Persia, tracing his genealogy, through eight generations, up to Achæmenes; they then enumerate the provinces of his empire, and recount his triumphs over the various rebels who rose against him during the first four years of his reign. The monarch himself is represented on the tablet with a bow in hand, and his foot upon



Rock Inscriptions at Behistun.

the prostrate figure of a man, while nine rebels, chained together by the neck, stand humbly before him; behind him are two of his own warriors, and above him, another figure (see cut). The Persian

inscriptions which Sir H. Rawlinson has translated are contained in the five main columns numbered in cut 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The first column contains 19 paragraphs and 96 lines. Each paragraph after the first, which commences, 'I am Darius the Great King,' begins with, 'Says Darius the King.' The second column has the same number of lines in 16 paragraphs; the third, 92 lines and 14 paragraphs; the fourth has also 92 lines and 18 paragraphs; and the fifth, which appears to be a supplementary column, 35 lines. The second, fourth, and fifth columns are much injured. Sir H. Rawlinson fixes the date of the sculpture at 516-515 B.C. See Rawlinson in *Journal of Royal Asiatic Society*, vol. x.; Oppert, *Le Peuple et la Langue des Mèdes* (Paris, 1879); and Spiegel, *Die Alt-persischen Keilschriften* (Leip. 1881).

Behm, DR ERNST, a German geographer, was born January 4, 1830, at Gotha, where he died on the 15th of March 1884. In 1856 he became Dr Petermann's chief assistant in editing the famous geographical periodical, *Mitteilungen*, to the editorship of which he succeeded on his chief's death in 1878. In 1872 he commenced, in conjunction with H. Wagner, the useful *Bevölkerung der Erde* (vol. vii. 1882), intended as a statistical supplement to the *Mitteilungen*; and from 1876 he undertook the statistical department of the *Almanach de Gotha*. His more extended writings of this nature are marked by fullness, accuracy, and marked lucidity of arrangement.

Behmen. See BOEHME, JAKOB.

Behn, AFRA, novelist and playwright, was born in 1640, at Wye, in Kent, the daughter of one Johnson, a barber. It is doubtful, then, who was the 'father,' lieutenant-governor of Surinam, with whom as a child she sailed for South America. He died on the voyage out, but Afra reached Surinam, and here made the acquaintance of the slave Oroonoko, who afterwards became the subject of one of her novels. Returning to England about 1658, she married Mr Behn, a merchant of Dutch extraction, but was a widow by 1666. Her personal appearance and vivacious freedom of manners pleased the 'Merry Monarch,' and she was sent as a spy to Antwerp, where she succeeded in discovering the intention of the Dutch to sail up the Thames and Medway. The English court, however, took no notice of her information, a slight which caused the fair agent to throw up state politics in disgust. On her return to England, she became intimate with all the profligate wits as well as the more staid scholars and poets of the time, and devoted herself to literature. Her plays and some of her poems are better than her novels, but all alike are disfigured by impurity of tone; and, in point of intellectual ability, none of her works deserves the high praise lavished on them by Dryden, Otway, and Southerne. She died 16th April 1689, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Her works were reprinted in 6 vols. (1871).

Behring, or BERING, VITUS, a famous navigator, born in 1680, at Horsens, in Denmark. He entered early the newly-formed navy of Peter the Great, and for the ability and daring he displayed in the wars with Sweden, was appointed to conduct an expedition of discovery in the Sea of Kamchatka. Sailing in 1728 from a port on the east of Kamchatka, he followed the coast northward until he believed, from the westward trending of the land, that he had reached the north-east point of Asia. After some years spent in explorations on the coasts of Kamchatka, Okhotsk, and the north of Siberia, he sailed in 1741 from Okhotsk towards the American continent, and sighting land about 58½° N. lat., he followed the coast northward for some distance; but sickness

and storms obliged him to return, and being wrecked on the desert island of Avatcha, since called Behring Island, he died there, December 19, 1741. Among the few who escaped, in a boat made from the wreck, was Steller, the naturalist, who has left an account of the voyage (St Petersburg, 1793).

Behring Strait separates Asia from America, and connects the Pacific with the Arctic Ocean. The proof that the two continents were not connected was given by a Cossack named Deschnev, who in 1648 sailed from a harbour in Siberia, in the Polar Ocean, into the Sea of Kamchatka. But his voyage was long regarded by Europeans as a fable, until Behring's (q.v.) expedition in 1728. The strait was explored and accurately described by Cook in 1778. The narrowest part is near 66° lat., between East Cape in Asia, and Cape Prince of Wales in America, where the capes approach within 36 miles; about midway are three uninhabited islands. The greatest depth is some 30 fathoms. Haze and fogs are the normal conditions of the atmosphere.—**BEHRING SEA**, a part of the North Pacific Ocean, commonly known as the Sea of Kamchatka, bounded W. by Kamchatka, E. by Alaska, S. by the Aleutian Islands, and N. by Behring Strait. There are several islands in this sea, and here also fogs prevail.—**BEHRING ISLAND**, the most westerly of the Aleutian Islands, barren and destitute of wood, but an important station of the Alaska fur industry. It has an area of 30 sq. m., and is noteworthy as the place where Behring, the discoverer, was wrecked and died in 1741.

Beilan, a pass in the northern extremity of Syria, on the east shore of the Gulf of Scanderoon, runs across the mountain-range of Amanus. It is the common route from Cilicia into Syria, and gave a passage to Alexander the Great, and afterwards to the Crusaders, into Syria. The town of Beilan (pop. 5000) is situated near the summit-level of the pass, at an elevation of 1584 feet above the Mediterranean Sea.

Beira, a Portuguese province, bounded N. by the provinces of Minho and Trás-os-Montes, S. by Estremadura and Alentejo, E. by Spain, and W. by the Atlantic Ocean. It has an area of about 9222 sq. m., and a pop. (1881) of 1,377,432. The surface is mountainous, and the soil on the plains sandy, and generally far from fertile. The mountain-slopes afford good pasturage for sheep and cattle, and from the hogs of Beira are made the well-known Lisbon hams. The products are corn, wine, honey, oil, flax, and various kinds of fruit. Sea-salt is obtained at the coast. The river Douro waters the whole of its northern, and the Tagus a portion of its southern boundary. Iron, coal, and marble are wrought in small quantity, and mineral springs are numerous. In 1835 the province was divided into Upper and Lower Beira, and at present embraces the districts of Aveiro, Castello Branco, Coimbra, Guarda, and Vizeu. The capital is Coimbra.

Beiram. See BAIKAM.

Belt is an Arabic word, signifying 'house,' 'abode,' or 'place,' the Hebrew equivalent of which is *Beth*. In both languages it is employed in place-names; thus, in the former, we have *Beit-ul-Harâm*, 'the house of the sanctuary,' or 'the sacred house;' and in the latter, *Beth-el*, 'house of God;' *Beth-any*, 'house of dates;' *Beth-abara*, 'house of the ford;' *Beth-lehem*, 'house of bread,' &c.

Belt-el-Fakih, a town of Yemen, Arabia, near the Red Sea, situated on a sandy plain, protected by a citadel, 87 miles N. of Mocha. Hodeida, on the Red Sea, is the port. It has still a considerable trade in coffee, wax, gum, and pearls. Pop. 8000.

Beith, a small town of North Ayrshire, on the borders of Renfrewshire, 18 miles SW. of Glasgow by rail. Its most notable manufacture is that of furniture in large cabinet-works. The chief building is the Speir School (1887), resembling the old college at Glasgow. Pop. (1881) 4037.

Beitullah (Arab., 'house of God'), the spacious building or temple at Mecca, which contains the Kâaba. See MECCA and KÂABA.

Beja (the *Pax Julia* of the Romans), a town in the province of Alentejo, Portugal, 101 miles SE. of Lisbon by rail. It has a castle and a cathedral, and manufactures of leather and earthenwares. Among its interesting Roman antiquities, the chief are the south gate and an aqueduct. Pop. 8487.

Bejan, or BAJAN, the name of the first or 'freshman' class in the Scottish universities of St Andrews and Aberdeen, and of old in many continental universities. The word is believed to be derived from the French *bec-jaune*, 'yellow beak,' a term used to designate a nestling or unfledged bird. The levying of *bejannia*, or payments for 'first-footing' by students on entering college, was forbidden by the statutes of the university of Orleans in 1365, and of the university of Toulouse in 1401. The election of an *Abbas Bejanorum*, or 'Abbot of the Greenhorns,' was prohibited by the statutes of the university of Paris in 1493. *Beanus* is another form.

Bejapur. See BEJAPUR.

Bejar, a town of Spain, 45 miles S. of Salamanca. It has cloth manufactures and an annual fair; and in the neighbourhood is a hot sulphur-spring. Pop. (1877) 11,099.

Bek, ANTONY, Bishop of Durham from 1283, took a prominent part in the Scottish wars of Edward I., and held a command at the battle of Falkirk. In 1300 he became involved in ecclesiastical disputes, which lasted till his death on 3d March 1311. He was a prelate of great magnificence and unbounded ambition, but elastic and liberal.—Another Antony Bek (1279-1343) was Bishop of Norwich from 1337; a Thomas Bek (died 1293) was Bishop of St David's from 1280; and a second Thomas Bek (1282-1347) was Bishop of Lincoln from 1342.

Bekaa. See CAELE-SYRIA.

Beke. CHARLES TILSTONE, Abyssinian explorer and biblical critic, was born in London, October 10, 1800; received a commercial education; afterwards studied law in Lincoln's Inn, and devoted a great part of his attention to ancient history, philology, and ethnography. The results of these studies first appeared in his work, *Origines Biblicæ*, or researches in primeval history (vol. i. 1834), which was an attempt to reconstruct history on the principles of the science of geology, and which gained him the Tübingen degree of doctor of philosophy. In 1837-38 he acted as British consul in Saxony. His historical and geographical studies of the East led Beke to consider the great importance of Abyssinia for intercourse with Central Africa. Supported only by private individuals, he joined in Abyssinia the party led by Major Harris, and distinguished himself (1840-43) by the exploration of countries lying to the south, previously almost unknown in Europe. He fixed the latitude of more than seventy stations, and mapped about 70,000 square miles of country. He also collected the vocabularies of many languages and dialects. The results of these researches appeared in *Abyssinia* (1845) and in various journals. Having returned to Europe, he excited the attention of geographers by his *Essay on the Nile and its Tributaries* (1847). In 1853 he had become partner in a Mauri-

tius mercantile house, and in 1856 he made unsuccessful attempts at establishing commercial relations in Abyssinia. In 1861 Dr and Mrs Beke journeyed in Palestine; and undertook in 1865 a fruitless mission to Abyssinia, to obtain the release of the captives. In 1870 he was granted a pension on the Civil List. At the commencement of 1874, Dr Beke started for the region at the head of the Red Sea, where he claimed (though his views are disputed) to have discovered Mount Sinai, east of the Gulf of Akabah, and not west as generally supposed. He died at Bromley, Kent, July 31, 1874, being engaged at the time on an account of his journey to Sinai, and a second volume of his *Origines Biblicæ*. Beke in 1852 edited, for the Hakluyt Society, De Veer's *Three Voyages towards China*; he also published *The Sources of the Nile* (1860); *British Captives in Abyssinia* (1865); *King Theodore* (1869); *Idol in Horeb* (1871); *Jesus the Messiah* (1872). His posthumous work, *Discoveries of Sinai in Arabia* (1878), was issued by his widow.

Bekes, or BEKESVAR, a town of Hungary, at the confluence of the Black and White Körös, 113 miles SE. of Pesth. The inhabitants are principally engaged in agriculture, and trade in cattle, corn, and honey. Pop. (1880) 23,938.

Bekker, IMMANUEL, a scholar distinguished by his recensions of the texts of Greek classics, was born at Berlin in 1785, studied in Halle, and in 1811 became professor of Philology in his native city, where he died 7th June 1871. The results of his researches in the libraries of France, Italy, England, and Germany, appear in his numerous recensions of texts derived solely from MSS., and independently of printed editions. The writers included in these recensions are Plato, the Attic orators, Aristotle, Thucydides, Theognis, Aristophanes, as well as Livy and Tacitus.

Bektashi, a mendicant order of Dervishes, which had its origin in the 14th century. See DERVISH.

Bel and the Dragon, an apocryphal book of the Old Testament, originally appended to the Book of Daniel. It first appears in the Septuagint, and does not seem to have been accepted as inspired by the Jewish Church, nor is there any proof that a Hebrew or Chaldee version of the story ever existed. Jerome considered it a 'fable,' an opinion in which most modern readers will coincide. It was, however, one of the books declared canonical by the Council of Trent (1546). The aim of the writer appears to have been to warn against the sin of idolatry some of his brethren who had embraced Egyptian superstitions. See APOCRYPHA.

Belbeis (ancient *Bubastis Agria*), a town situated on the east arm of the Nile, Lower Egypt, 28 miles NNE. of Cairo. Pop. about 5000.

Belcher, SIR EDWARD, admiral, born in 1799, entered the navy in 1812, and in 1816 took part in the bombardment of Algiers. In 1825 he was appointed assistant-surveyor to the expedition about to explore Behring Strait under Captain Beechey; and from 1836 to 1842 he commanded the *Sulphur*, commissioned to explore the western coast of America. Knighted in 1843, and for five years employed on surveying service in the East Indies, he was in 1852 appointed to the command of the unfortunate expedition sent out by government to search for Sir John Franklin. Belcher published *Narrative of a Voyage round the World in the Sulphur* (1843); *Narrative of a Voyage to the East Indies* (1848); *The Last of the Arctic Voyages* (1855), &c. In 1861 he became rear-

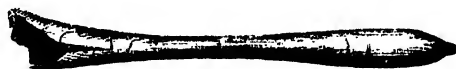
admiral of the Red, in 1866 vice-admiral, in 1867 K.C.B., and rear-admiral in 1872. He died 18th March 1877.

Belehl'té, a town of Spain, on the Aguas, 22 miles SSE. of Saragossa. Here, on June 18, 1809, the French, under Suchet, completely routed the Spanish under General Blake. Pop. 3262.

Belem'. See LISBON.

Belem', or PARA, capital of the Brazilian province of Para (q.v.).

Belemnites (Gr. *belemnion*, 'a dart' or 'arrow'), an interesting genus of fossil cephalopodous Mollusca, the type of a family called Belemnitidae, to the whole of which the name Belemnites is very generally extended, and which is closely allied to the Sepiada, or Cuttle (q.v.) family. No recent species of Belemnites is known: fossil species are very numerous, and are found in all the jurassic and cretaceous strata, from the lowest lias to the upper chalk, some of which are filled with myriads of their remains. These remains are generally those of the shell alone, which is now known to have been an internal shell, entirely included within the body of the animal, like that of the cuttle. The



Belemnites pistilliformis.

shell, as seen in the most perfect specimens, is double, consisting of a conical chambered portion (the *phragmacone*), inserted into a longer, solid, somewhat conical or tapering, and pointed sheath, which is termed the *rostrum* or *guard*. The space between the phragmacone and sheath is occupied either with radiating fibres or conical layers. The chambers of the shell are connected by a tube (*siphuncle*), so that the animal probably had the power of ascending and descending rapidly in the water. From some well-preserved specimens we learn that its body was furnished with lateral fins, and that it had eight arms and two longer tentacles. The suckers seem to have been provided with horny hooks; and these it probably fixed upon a fish, and descended with its prey to the bottom, like the hooked Calamary (q.v.) of the present seas. Horny mandibles and remains of an ink-bag, like that of the cuttle, have been found in the last and largest chambers of the belemnites; but remains of this chamber, which must have contained all the viscera of the animal, are very rarely preserved, the shell having been very thin at this part. The part most commonly found, and generally known by the name of belemnite, is the solid *guard*, or point into which the sheath was prolonged behind the chambered shell. These have received such popular names as Arrowheads, Petrified Fingers, Spectre-candles, Picks, Thunderstones, &c., from their form, or from the notions entertained of their nature and origin. Belemnites appear to have been of very different sizes; in some of the largest, the mere *muero* is 10 inches long, and the entire animal, with its arms outstretched, must have been several feet in length.

Belfast, the largest and most prosperous commercial and manufacturing city in Ireland, is principally situated in the county of Antrim, of which since 1850 it has been the county town. Belfast has growing suburbs, such as Ballymacarrett and Ballynahenagh on the Down side of the river Lagan, which discharges its waters into Belfast Lough. It is 12 miles from the Irish Sea, 101 N. of Dublin, 130 SW. of Glasgow, and 156 NW. of Liverpool. In this position Belfast stands on an alluvial deposit not more than six

feet above the sea-level. The river Lagan is crossed by the Queen Bridge, which has been recently widened; by the Albert Bridge, which was reconstructed in 1887-88; by a railway bridge; and by a bridge at Ormeau, close to the park of that name purchased from the Marquis of Donegal for popular recreation. Belfast has also several new parks in different parts of the town. On the Antrim side the picturesque hills, rising almost to the dignity of mountains, have an impressive effect, and the general aspect of the town is bright and animated. Though the seat of the linen industry, with a number of mills and manufactures of several kinds, Belfast has a much more pleasant appearance than most British manufacturing towns. On each side of the spacious lough, which resembles in some respects the Lake of Geneva, are a number of pleasant villas, whilst in the higher suburb of Malone, and along the Lisburn Road, handsome edifices of a similar character have sprung up with a cheerful diversity. A fine large new street called Royal Avenue was in 1884 driven through the centre of the town from York Street to Donegal Place. It contains the new post-office, the Ulster Reform Club, the offices of the Water Commissioners, and the free library, which, with many fine shops, form a very imposing thoroughfare. A sight of Belfast at the present time surprises those who have been taught to believe in the poverty and want of enterprise in Ireland. There are 33 Presbyterian churches; 20 Protestant Episcopalian, 15 Methodist, and 6 Roman Catholic. The Queen's College, a handsome brick building, was opened in 1849. The Presbyterian College in 1881 had, in conjunction with the Magee College of Londonderry, the power conferred on it of granting theological degrees. The Catholics and Methodists have colleges of their own, while a Royal Academical Institution and the Belfast Academy, with other institutions of a similar character, supply great educational facilities. The National Schools amount to 130; the Church Educational Society have schools of their own; and there are a number of excellent private schools.

The progress Belfast has made since the middle of the century may be indicated by some of the most recent returns. In the year 1821 the population was 37,117; in 1851 it was just over 100,000; in 1871 it was 174,412; in 1881, 208,122; in 1888 above 230,000, of whom 71 per cent. are Protestants. It thus is as large as were the largest English or Scotch manufacturing towns beyond London, when, in 1848, Macaulay wrote his celebrated third chapter. The area of the borough is 6805 acres; there are 1547 streets; and the number of buildings rose from 18,375 in 1861 to 48,514 at the beginning of 1887. The average number of persons in each house is 5½. The valuation of the borough, which in 1851 was £182,854, in 1886 was £647,114; thus in thirty-five years it had been more than trebled. Since 1867, £65,000 has been spent on the construction of arterial district sewage; and in 1887 a Belfast Main Drainage Act was passed for the purpose of extending, at an expenditure of £300,000, main-trunk and intercepting sewers for collecting all the sewage of the borough, and discharging it into the sea at a great distance from the town. Almost to the close of the parliamentary session of 1887, Belfast was under a very high municipal franchise; but at the time of the passing of the Main Drainage Bill, this franchise was reduced professedly to household suffrage; still, it is practically a £4, 5s. rating franchise. Simultaneously with the improvements in the town, the Harbour Commissioners have been engaged in greatly improving the quays and the harbour. With this object they

had already expended £500,000 when, under an Act of 1883, they obtained power authorising an additional expenditure of about a million of money more. Donegal Quay, devoted to the cross-channel steamboat service, is now a handsome and substantial structure, and there are other quays of similar construction. A through channel and a deep-water quay will also greatly improve the port, whose returns give a very incomplete estimate of the foreign trade, which is for the most part conducted through Glasgow and Liverpool, and was in 1875 estimated at some twenty millions. The tonnage of Belfast, represented at the time by 6680 vessels, was in the year 1863 nearly 1,000,000 tons. The altered mode of measurement of vessels tells against a fair estimate of the increase in tonnage; but in 1886 the port, with 7564 vessels, showed 1,595,509 tons. The revenue collected in 1886 amounted to the large sum of £1,658,516, an amount exceeded only by two ports in the United Kingdom. The linen trade, though such a very important one to Belfast, is far from being the sole one. Other industries have since 1855 been developing all round. Among the most remarkable is the shipbuilding trade, of which the firm of Harland and Wolff is the most prominent representative, though other establishments are, according to their means, equally prosperous. Rope manufactures, and the manufacture of aerated waters, as well as several other businesses, including a very large whisky trade, add greatly to the prosperity of the town. At intervals, as in July 1880 and in June 1886, there have been serious riots between the lowest classes of the Protestant and Catholic population, in close proximity to each other. But Belfast is a town of great energy, steadily growing, even under adverse circumstances; handsome and picturesque perhaps beyond any large commercial and manufacturing town in England. In 1888 it received the rank and privileges of a city. See George Benn's *History of Belfast to the End of the 18th Century* (1877).

Belfast, a port of entry in Maine, U.S., on the west side of Penobscot Bay, with shipbuilding and some manufactures. Pop. (1880) 5308.

Belfort, a town of France, capital of the French remnant of the department of Haut-Rhin, 117 miles ENE. of Dijon by rail. From 1870 till 1879 this remnant (235 sq. m.), taking its name from the town, was called the *Territoire de Belfort*, and consisted of those portions of Haut-Rhin which, seized by the Germans during the war of 1870-71, were restored to France by the preliminaries of peace arranged at Versailles, 26th February 1871. The strategical importance of Belfort was recognised by France on its cession by Austria in 1648, and it was fortified by Vauban. At the outbreak of the Franco-German war, Belfort was a fortress of the first rank; and it maintained, from 3d December 1870 till 16th February 1871, a gallant defence against the Germans. It then capitulated, the defenders marching out with all the honours of war. A memorial of its gallant defence was unveiled in 1884; and the fortifications and outworks have been enormously strengthened since 1874. Pop. (1872) 8014; (1886) 22,181; of territory (1886), 79,758.

Belfry (old Fr. *berfrei*; modern, *beffroi*, of Teutonic origin; lit. 'a place of safety'). Originally a kind of movable tower used for defence in sieges, it came to mean a tower to protect watchmen, a watch-tower, beacon-tower, or alarm bell-tower, then any tower where a bell is hung—a bell-tower or turret. The belfry usually forms part of a church, but is sometimes detached from it—as at Evesham, Berkeley, and Beccles, in England, and

still more frequently in Italy (see CAMPANILE). Where a church was built in a deep glen, the belfry was occasionally perched on a neighbouring height, as at St Fève and elsewhere in Cornwall, and at Ardelach and Auldbar in Scotland. At this last place, the bell was hung upon a tree, as was common enough in Scotland at the close of the 17th century. Where the belfry consists of a mere



Belfry at Bruges.

turret, it is often called a *bell-gable* or *bell-cote*, and is placed on the west end of the church; a smaller one being usually placed at the east end for the sanctus bell, for which reason it is placed over the altar. Municipal belfries are more common on the Continent than in this country. When the boroughs began to rise into importance after the 12th century, they asserted their right to have bells to call the burghers together for council or for action. Thus detached belfries arose in the heart of towns, and were regarded as important symbols of their freedom. At a later date, they often became part of the *maison de ville*, or town-house, as at Glasgow and Aberdeen, in this country; at St Quentin and Douai, in France; and at Brussels, in Belgium. The belfry attached to the building known as *Les Halles* (not the town-hall) in Bruges, was commenced in 1291. It is 353 feet high, and possesses a carillon of 48 bells, regarded as the finest in Europe. It is well known through Longfellow's poem.

Belgæ, the name given by Cæsar to the war-like tribes which in his time occupied that one of the great divisions of Gallia bounded on the N. by the Rhine, on the W. by the ocean, on the S. by the Sequana (Seine) and Matrona (Marne), and on the E. by the territory of the Treviri. Their country was level, containing no mountains of any height, except the Vosges in the south. The name seems to have originally designated several powerful tribes inhabiting the basin of the Seine, and to have been afterwards used by Cæsar as a general appellation for all the peoples north of that river. Most probably they were chiefly of Celtic origin, but within their territories were to be found both pure and mixed Germans.

When South Britain was invaded by Cæsar, he found that Belgæ from the opposite shores of Gaul

had preceded him, and were settled in Kent and Sussex, having driven the aborigines into the interior. The Belgæ in Britain resisted for nearly a century the Roman power, but were finally forced to yield to it. Cæsar regarded them as German, but they rather seem to have belonged to the Celtic portion of the Gallic Belgæ. Certainly none of the names of their three towns are Germanic. See Rhys's *Celtic Britain* (1882), and Elton's *Origins of English History* (1882).

Belgard, a town of Prussia, in the province of Pomerania, on the Persante, 16 miles SSW. of Köslin. It has an old castle, and important cattle and horse markets. Pop. (1871) 6302; (1885) 7117.

Belgaum', or BELGAM, the chief city of a district of the same name in the presidency of Bombay, situated to the E. of the dividing ridge of the West Ghats, at a height of about 2500 feet above the sea, 55 miles NE. of Goa. Belgaum possesses a fort, which in 1818 was taken from the Peishwa by the British, under whom it has increased in wealth and size. The native town lies between the fort on the east and the military cantonment. The site of the town is well wooded, bamboos, mangoes, tamarinds, and banyans being plentiful. It has a superior institution for the education of native youths. The chief articles of commerce are dry fish, salt, dates, cocoa-nuts, coir. Cotton cloth is manufactured here. Belgaum is a seat of the London Missionary Society. Pop. (1881) 32,697. Area of Belgaum district, 4656 sq. m. Agriculture forms the chief occupation of the people, with spinning and weaving, manufactures of pottery, wood, and metals. Pop. (1881) 864,014.

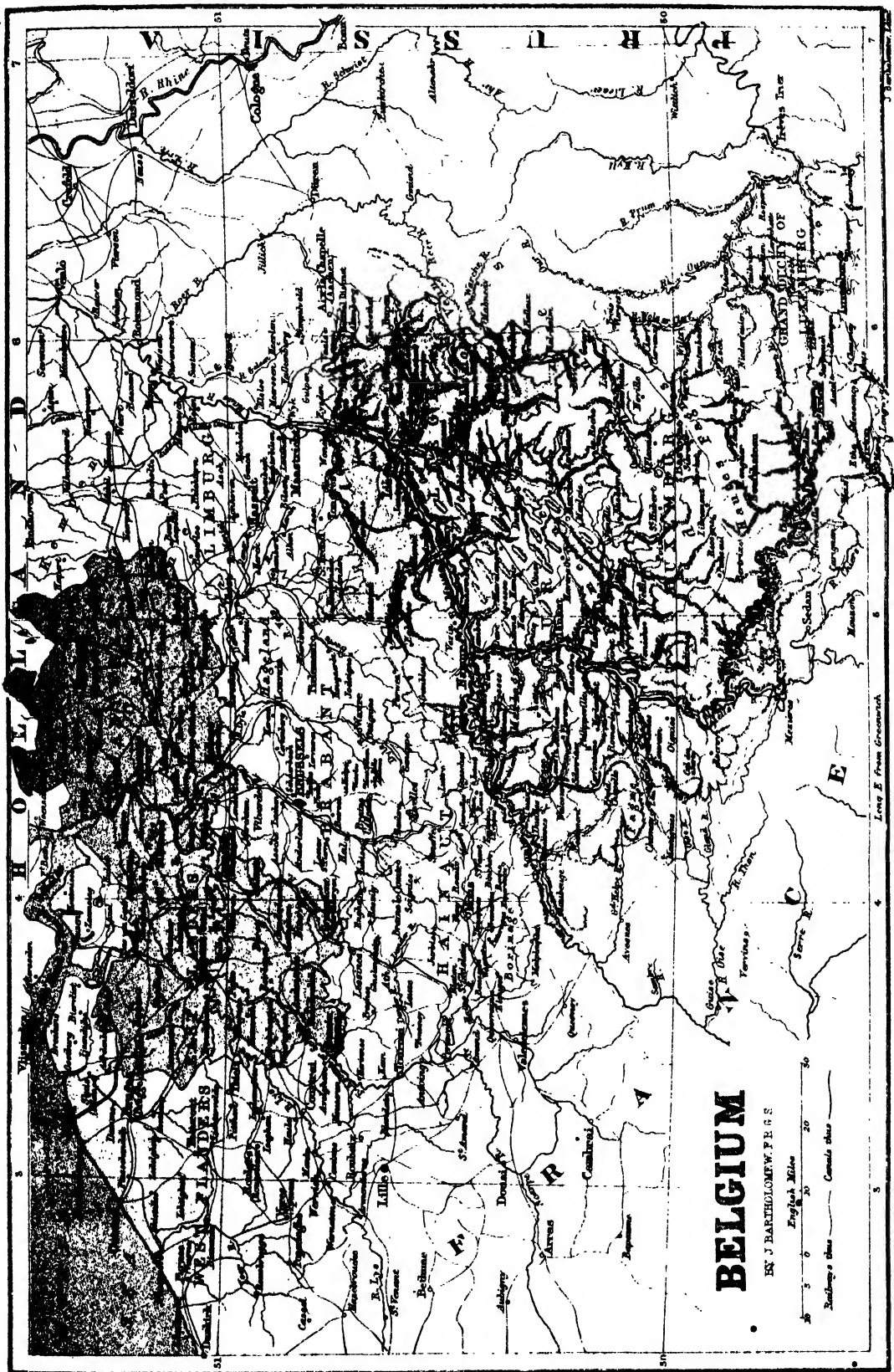
Belgiojoso, a town of Lombardy, North Italy, in a fruitful plain between the Po and the Olona, 9 miles E. of Pavia. Pop. 4000.—The Princess Cristina of Belgiojoso, an Italian authoress and patriot, was the daughter of the Marchese Trivulzio, and was born at Milan, 28th June 1808. In 1824 she married the Prince of Belgiojoso. She was an enthusiastic labourer in the cause of Italian liberty; raised and supported a body of troops in 1849; travelled in the East; and lived many years at Paris. She died at Milan, 5th June 1871. Amongst her works are *Récits Turco-Asiatiques* (1856); *Asie Mineure* (1858); *Histoire de la Maison de Savoie* (1860).

Belgium (Fr. *Belgique*), one of the smaller European states, consists of the southern portion of the former kingdom of the Netherlands (as created by the Congress of Vienna), lying between France and Holland (i.e. the present kingdom of the Netherlands), the North Sea and Rhenish Prussia. Its greatest length from north-west to south-east is 173 miles; and its greatest breadth from north to south, 105 miles.

Area and Population.—The whole area of Belgium is 11,373 sq. m., or slightly over a third of that of Ireland. The population at the census of 1876 was 5,336,185, and at that of 1880, 5,520,009. Beneath are given the provinces, their areas, their population at December 31, 1886, and their chief towns:

Provinces.	Sq. Miles.	Pop. (1886).	Chief Cities.
Antwerp.....	1,093	652,061	Antwerp.
West Flanders.....	1,249	726,242	Bruges.
East Flanders.....	1,158	880,847	Ghent.
Hainault.....	1,437	1,034,677	Mons.
Liège.....	1,117	718,666	Liège.
Brabant.....	1,268	1,074,765	Brussels.
Limburg.....	681	220,668	Haselt.
Luxemburg.....	1,706	216,289	Arlon.
Namur.....	1,414	355,780	Namur.
Total.....	11,373	5,000,975	

At the same date the kingdom contained 26 towns with over 20,000 inhabitants. Of these, the largest were Brussels, the capital, 438,843



BELGIUM

BY J. BARTHOLOMEW, F.R.G.S.

English Miles 0 10 20 30
French Miles 0 10 20 30

Railways shown — Canals shown

Long E. from Greenwich

W & A CAMBRIDGE LONDON & EDINBURGH

(including suburbs); Antwerp, 198,174; Ghent, 143,242; and Liège, 135,371.

The population of Belgium is of mixed German and Celtic origin. The Flemings (of Teutonic stock) and Walloons (Celtic in origin), distinguished by their peculiar dialects (see FLEMISH LANGUAGE, WALLOONS), are still conspicuous among the pure Germans, Dutch, and French. East and West Flanders, Antwerp, and Limburg are almost wholly Flemish; and Brabant mainly so. The line between the Flemish and Walloon districts is sharply defined, the Flemish part being the richest and most cultivated. The French language has gained the ascendancy in educated society and in the offices of government; but the Flemish dialect prevails numerically in the proportion of nine to eight.

Belgium is the most densely peopled country in Europe, the population* being 514 to the sq. m., as compared with 303 in Great Britain, and 42 in European Russia. In Brabant the density in 1886 was 848 per sq. m. The comparatively rapid increase of the Belgian population is due largely to the steady excess of births over deaths, which in the years 1881-85 averaged 57,800 annually. This may be compared with the returns from France during the same period, where, with an area seventeen times greater, and a population more than six times as large, the total average excess was only 93,300. The excess of immigration over emigration has increased in Belgium from 1870 in 1881 to 5075 in 1885. Of the total population in 1880, 2,479,750 spoke Flemish only, 2,237,870 French only (including Walloon), 41,000 German only, 420,300 Flemish and French, 35,350 French and German, 2800 Flemish and German, and 13,400 spoke all three languages. There were besides 6500 foreigners.

Physical Aspect.—Belgium is, on the whole, a level, and even low-lying country; diversified, however, by hilly districts. In the south-east, a western branch of the Ardennes highlands makes its appearance, separating the basin of the Maas from that of the Moselle, but attains only the moderate elevation of 2000 feet. In the northern portions of Antwerp and Limburg, a naturally unfertile district named the Campine, composed of marshes and barren heaths, extends along the Dutch frontier. In Flanders the land becomes so low that, in parts where the natural protection afforded by the dunes is deficient, dikes have been raised to check the encroachments of the sea; and the once impassable morasses of the *Morini* and the *Menapii*, which stayered the progress of Caesar's legions, are now drained and converted into fertile fields surrounded by dense plantations. Colonies having been settled on whatever patches of the sandy, marshy Campine district it was deemed possible to reclaim, it has been largely cleared and drained, and become the centre of a thriving agricultural industry. At the same time, the coast is said to be undergoing a change by which the land southward is gradually gaining on the sea, while the northern coast is losing.

Hydrography, Climate, Agriculture, &c.—The abundant water-system of Belgium is chiefly supplied by the great navigable rivers Scheldt and Maas, both of which rise in France, and have their embouchures in Holland. The Scheldt, like the Maas, is navigable all through Belgium. Its tributaries are the Lys, Dender, Durme, and Ruppel. The Maas, or Meuse, receives in its course the waters of the Sambre, the Ourthe, and the Roer. These natural hydrographical advantages are increased by a system of canals (44 in number, with an entire length of 563 miles). The climate is, in the plains near the sea, cool, humid, and somewhat unhealthy; but in the higher

south-east districts, hot summers alternate with very cold winters. The mean annual temperature at Brussels is 50° F. The rainfall ranges from 27.5 inches in the west, to 40 inches in the district east of the Maas. The Ardennes districts yield a large supply of wood, and their forests abound in game and other wild animals; while the level provinces raise all kinds of grain—wheat, rye, oats, and barley, leguminous plants, hemp, flax, colza, tobacco, hops, dye-plants, and chicory. The beet is cultivated in increasing quantities, both for sugar and for fodder. Belgium contains nearly 7,278,000 acres, of which almost two-thirds are in ordinary cultivation, more than one-eighth is meadow and pasture, one-sixth is under wood, and less than 600,000 acres are waste or water. Some hundreds of acres are devoted to vineyards, but the wine produced is of an inferior quality. Good pasturage is found on the slopes and in the valleys of the hilly districts, and in the rich meadows of the low provinces. Gardening occupies not less than 130,000 acres; indeed, it has been said that the agriculture of Belgium is gardening on a large scale, so carefully and laboriously is every inch of soil cultivated by the farmers, the vast majority of whom are small holders owning less than one hectare (about 2½ acres) of land. The spade is still the principal instrument used. The interests of this class are promoted and superintended by provincial committees of practical men, who are directed by a central council, and improvements are encouraged and rewarded at quinquennial exhibitions at Brussels. The state supports four agricultural schools and nine experimental stations, including a school of forestry, to which pupils are admitted for a fixed period as boarders; and at 29 middle-class state schools courses of agricultural lectures are delivered to the farmers of the district. Belgium is famous for its horses, and to improve the breeds a government stud of stallions is maintained at Tervueren. In the Campine, the care of bees and the cultivation of the silkworm are encouraged, and its butter is considered the best in Belgium. There are valuable fisheries on the coast, but foreign fish being admitted free of duty, the fishermen of Holland, England, and France have proved keen competitors in the Belgian markets. This led in 1887 to repeated disputes and much bad feeling, culminating in a series of riots at Ostend.

Geology.—The geological formations of Belgium are closely associated with those of France and Britain. The greater portion of the country is covered with *Tertiary deposits*. A line drawn across the course of the Scheldt, by Mechlin, along the Demer and Maas, will have on its northern and north-western aspect a tract of Tertiary deposits, bounded northwards by the sea. In these Tertiary strata the different geological periods are fully represented; but only the second, containing the Pliocene deposits, is rich in fossils. The *Secondary deposits* occupy an extensive tract in the centre of Belgium, between the Scheldt and the Demer. The most important district, economically, is the south-western, consisting of *Palæozoic rocks*—Silurian, Devonian, and Carboniferous.

Mineral Products.—Belgium is rich in minerals, which, next to its abundant agriculture, constitute the chief source of its national prosperity. The four provinces in which they are found are Hainault, Namur, Liège, and Luxembourg. These yield lead, copper, zinc, calamine, alum, peat, marble, limestone, granite, slate, iron, and coal. Lead and zinc are wrought to some extent in Liège; copper in Hainault and Liège; manganese in Liège and Namur; black marble at Dinant; slates at Herbeumont; and calamine principally at Liège.

But these products are insignificant compared to the superabundance of coal—from anthracite to the richest gas coal—and iron, in which Belgium ranks next to England. The mines are superintended, under the minister of the interior, by a corps of mining engineers, one of whom is appointed over each of the six mining districts.

In 1885 there were in Belgium 285 coal-mines open, employing 103,095 persons, and producing 17,437,600 tons, the total value of which was £6,186,000. In the same year the metallic mines produced about 200,000 tons of iron ore, 2500 of pyrites, 18,000 of calamine, 2000 of blende, 3000 of sulphuret of lead, and 450 of manganese. These mines gave employment to over 2300 workmen; but this industry has fallen off, the corresponding number of miners in 1865 having been 11,800. In 1883 there were 317 ironworks, producing manufactured iron to the value of £6,818,000, and the produce of the quarries was valued at £1,724,000.

Manufactures.—The chief manufactures are linen, woollens, cotton, silk, lace, leather, and metals. Flax is one of the most valuable products of Belgium. The great seats of the linen manufacture, the oldest in Belgium, are in Flanders; it employs some 350,000 persons. The lace industry has fallen off in importance, but still employs 150,000 workers and a capital of two millions sterling. Centres of the woollen manufacture are Ypres, Ghent, Tournay, and especially Verviers, which alone employs 20,000 workmen in this branch of industry. Brussels and Louvain have large carpet manufactures, and Hainault supplies a considerable amount of hosiery. The principal seat of the cotton trade is Ghent, where the industry was first established in 1798. It employs over 30,000 persons. Belgian leather has a good reputation, and the manufacture of gloves has made great progress in recent years. Metallurgy also has rapidly increased in productiveness since 1816, when Cockerill (see SERAING) introduced into Belgium the English method of smelting iron with coke. The principal seats of the metal manufacture are Liège, Ghent, Charleroi, Mons, and their neighbourhoods. There are large ordnance foundries at Liège and Antwerp, and celebrated makers of firearms and machinery in Liège; nail-making at Charleroi; manufactures of copper at Malines, and of tinware at Liège; wire and brass factories at Namur, Liège, and Brussels; zinc manufactures at Liège; and lead and shot factories at Ghent. Gold and silver goods are manufactured at Brussels, Liège, and Antwerp. Besides these, we may mention the straw-bonnet manufacture in the neighbourhood of Liège; the calico-printing at Ghent and Brussels; the paper fabrics of Brussels and Liège; the glass-works of Charleroi, Liège, and Namur, whose annual output reaches a value not far below £2,000,000; the porcelain of Tournay; and the sugar-refineries, of which there were 161 in 1881. In the same year there were in Belgium 2575 breweries, mostly small, and 301 distilleries.

Commerce.—In the middle of the 13th century, Flanders, with Bruges as its chief seat of manufactures, had surpassed all its neighbours in industry. After the discovery of America, Antwerp took the place of Bruges. But the unhappy period of Spanish oppression and the war in the Netherlands deeply depressed Flemish commerce. Separation from Holland has also been indirectly favourable to the development of Belgian resources; and its admirable network of railways (2763 miles open in 1886) has greatly promoted commerce.

The unit of the Belgian monetary system is the franc, and in 1865 Belgium, along with France, Italy,

Switzerland, and Greece, entered on a monetary league, in which these states agreed to adopt the French decimal system of coins, weights, and measures, and established a reciprocity of currency, whereby their respective unit coins would have the same value throughout their territories.

Among the principal articles of export are coal, flax, linen, woollen and cotton goods, glass, firearms, and nails. More than a third of the whole is consigned to France, and most of the remainder to Germany, England, and Holland. The carrying-trade is almost entirely in the hands of the British, the native shipping, which is not increasing in number, being in 1885 only 64 vessels of 80,592 tons, with 324 fishing-boats. In 1884 the imports amounted to £59,404,000, and the exports to £55,720,000. These sums exclude the value of 'goods in transit,' which is set down for the same year at £55,833,000. The commercial intercourse of Belgium with Great Britain in 1884 amounted to £15,146,175 for exports, and £8,500,703 for imports. The increase of Belgian commerce may be estimated from the fact that the imports and exports respectively set down in 1831 at £3,750,000 and £4,025,000, averaged in the period 1873-82, £61,731,000 and £48,621,000.

Religion.—The Roman Catholic is the dominant religion. Although full liberty of worship is guaranteed to all, and the ministers of each denomination are paid by the state, almost the entire population are Roman Catholics, the number of Protestants being set down at 15,000, of Jews at 3000. The supreme Catholic dignitaries of Belgium are the Archbishop of Mechlin, and the five diocesan bishops of Bruges, Ghent, Tournay, Namur, and Liège. There are over 1200 conventual houses, inhabited by 4000 monks and 21,000 nuns.

Culture.—Diversity of dialects has retarded the growth of the national intellect and the formation of an independent national literature to act as the bond of national unity. The Flemish element—the most important—has done much of late to foster the Flemish tongue, and if possible secure its predominance. Flemish theatres are supported in the great towns; a Royal Academy to encourage the study of its language and literature was opened at Ghent in 1886; and in 1887 the king was constrained to make speeches in Flemish. Scientific and literary societies, museums, and public libraries, are of course numerous. Great efforts are being made to improve the musical standard of the people; in 1886 there were 58 musical schools throughout the country, with 9167 pupils, and the conservatoires of Brussels, Ghent, and Liège counted 3471 pupils. Painting and architecture formerly flourished in the wealthy old towns of Flanders; and although, after the brilliant epoch of Rubens and his pupils, a long period of dullness followed, in modern times a revival of art has taken place, and important academies have been founded at Antwerp and Brussels. For the achievements of the old Flemish school, see PAINTING, and the articles on RUBENS, TENIERS, VAN DYCK.

The Belgian school-system has undergone many changes during the present century. In 1879 education in the public schools was completely secularised; but on the succession of a Catholic ministry in 1884, the government support was withdrawn from these schools, and each parish had to decide whether its primary school should be continued at the parish's cost, or the children be sent to the church school. As a result, numerous church schools have been recognised as public schools, the others having been abolished. There are universities at Ghent and Liège, a Catholic university at Louvain, a free university at Brussels, 10 *Athénées*, over 150 middle-class and many private schools, and four Jesuit gymnasia. Yet in

1880, 32 per cent. of the inhabitants over fifteen years of age could neither read nor write.

Literature.—The older literature of the country falls to be discussed under FLEMISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE. Of modern authors in Flemish, Conscience (q.v.) the novelist and Willens the philologist are noteworthy; the work *Onze Dichters*, published in 1880, is an anthology of the poets who, since 1830, have contributed to the revival of Flemish literature. Of late, however, the main current of Belgian literary activity runs mainly in the channels of politics and modern national history, and in the French tongue. Historians are Pouillet, Moke, Namèche, and Juste; Laveleye is a well-known publicist. Quetelet, the statistician and astronomer, was a Belgian. The *Bibliotheca Belgica* is a work on a large scale containing many of the chief documents of national history. The *Bibliographie Nationale* (1880) is a dictionary of Belgian writers and their works from 1830 to 1880; there is also a *Bibliographie de l'Histoire de la Belgique*.

Army.—The organisation of the Belgian army is established by a law of 1873, under which the peace-strength is fixed at 47,000 men, to be raised in time of war to 103,000. It is intended solely for defence, and to preserve the neutrality of the territory; it is formed by conscription, to which every healthy man who has passed his nineteenth year is liable. Substitution is allowed. The legal period of service is eight years, but five of these are, as a rule, passed on furlough or in the reserve. Besides the standing army, there is a *Garde Civique*, numbering in 1886, 30,954 men, with a reserve of 90,000. The *Gendarmerie* consisted, in the same year, of 53 officers and 2181 men. The importance of Belgium in a military point of view affords a reason for the maintenance of fortifications at Antwerp, Dendermonde, Namur, Diest, Liège, and other places. The chief arsenal is at Antwerp.

Finances.—In the ordinary budget for 1887 the estimated revenue of Belgium was £12,785,004; and the estimated expenditure, £12,666,536. The national debt amounted in 1886 to £68,737,000, but, if the annuities were capitalised at 5 per cent., the total debt would not be far under eighty-five millions sterling. The interest is more than covered by the revenue from the railways, for which the debt was almost entirely contracted.

Government.—The government of Belgium is a limited constitutional monarchy, and was established in its present form by the revolution of 1830. The succession is hereditary, females being excluded. The ministry includes departments for home affairs, foreign affairs, finance, justice, public works, and war. The administration of justice is governed by the *Code Napoléon*. The legislative body consists of two chambers—the Senate, and the Chamber of Representatives, non-resident members of the latter body being paid a small salary during the session. The number of representatives in 1884 was 138, sent by 41 electoral districts. Electors must be Belgians by birth or naturalisation, must have attained 25 years of age, and pay taxes, each to the amount of £1, 13s. 4d. Under this qualification there were in 1886 but 128,050 electors. Members of the Chamber of Representatives require no property qualification. The Senate consists of half the number of members, and is elected by the same constituency, but for eight years instead of four. A senator must be 40 years of age, and must pay at least 1000 florins of direct taxes.

History.—The history of Belgium properly dates from the year 1831, when the Southern Netherlands parted from Holland and were constituted into a separate and independent kingdom. The narrative prior to 1831 of the provinces forming

the present Belgium will be found under NETHERLANDS. But it may be well to introduce our account of Belgian history with a brief sketch of its previous development. On the downfall of the Roman empire, the *Gallia Belgica* of the Romans passed under the dominion of the Franks. As the feudal system arose, the country was distributed under a number of dukes and counts with a considerable measure of local independence. These provinces were absorbed by the great House of Burgundy from 1385 onwards, and they continued under that rule till the downfall of Charles the Bold in 1477. With his daughter Mary they then passed to the House of Hapsburg, and remained with the Spanish branch of that line till the peace of Utrecht in 1713, being known as the Spanish Netherlands to distinguish them from the northern provinces, which, in the reign of Philip II., had revolted from Spain, and formed a Protestant Republic, while the southern provinces continued subject to the Roman Catholic Church. In 1713, by the peace of Utrecht, the Spanish provinces were transferred from Spain to Austria, as the Austrian Netherlands. The country was conquered by Pichegrin in the campaign of 1794, and subsequently united to France by the treaties of Campo-Fornio and Lunéville. It now shared the fortunes of France during the Consulate and the Empire, received the *Code Napoléon*, and in all political relations was organised as a part of France. After the fall of Napoleon it was united with Holland under Prince William-Frederick of Nassau, and its boundaries were defined by the Congress of Vienna (May 31, 1815). In the campaign of 1815 Belgium was once again, as it had often been, the 'battle-field of Europe;' and Belgian troops were present at Waterloo.

The union of what had been the Spanish or Austrian Netherlands to Holland in 1815 was from the first an arbitrary one, as the people of the northern and southern parts of the united kingdom differed essentially in religion, language, interests, and historic feeling. Nor was the policy of the Dutch fair or conciliatory. The Dutch almost exclusively occupied the higher posts in the army and administration. The use of French in the southern provinces was discouraged, and the privileges of the Catholic clergy were curtailed. Old feelings of patriotism and the interests of self-government were equally disregarded. Thus, Liberals and Catholics were alike ready to revolt against Dutch supremacy, and the concessions tardily made to satisfy the growing discontent did no good. The outbreak of the French Revolution in 1830 set the example to the discontent across the frontier. On the king's birthday (August 24, 1830), several riots occurred in various towns of Belgium. At this period, however, the idea of separation from Holland does not seem to have presented itself consciously to the Belgian mind; the deputies who were sent to the Hague to state the causes of the general dissatisfaction merely insisted on Belgium's possessing a separate administration, with the redress of particular grievances. But the dilatory and obstructive conduct of the Dutch deputies in the States-general assembled at the Hague on the 13th September, together with the ill-advised occupation of Brussels by an army of 14,000 men, exasperated the Belgian nation beyond measure. A new and more resolute insurrection instantly took place. In seven days the people had deposed the old authorities and appointed a provisional government. Prince Frederick, the son of the Dutch king, who commanded the troops, was compelled to retreat from Brussels to Antwerp, having suffered considerable loss. On the 4th of October Belgium was declared independent by the provisional government. The useless bombard-

ment of Antwerp by the Dutch general Chassé (October 27) increased the bitterness of feeling, and rendered reconciliation wholly impossible. At the national congress of November 10, out of 200 votes only 13 were in favour of republican government. Meanwhile, the London Congress had assembled, and after mature deliberation, the representatives of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and England recognised the severance of the two kingdoms as a *fait accompli* (December 20). When the Belgian Congress met, it appointed Baron Surlet de Chokier provisional regent, but on June 4, 1831, it elected Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg king of the Belgians. Leopold entered Brussels on the 21st July, and subscribed the constitution. His marriage to a daughter of Louis-Philippe secured French support. Holland refused to acknowledge the validity of the decision of the London Congress, and declared war, which was speedily terminated by France and England—Holland securing that Belgium should annually pay 8,400,000 florins as interest for its share in the national debt of the Netherlands. And it was agreed by the powers that Belgium should remain an independent and perfectly neutral state. Holland, however, was still dissatisfied, and ventured to employ force. England and France were compelled to interfere. The French besieged and took Antwerp, still held by the Dutch troops; and the blockade of the coast of Holland having brought the Dutch to terms, the dispute was closed by a treaty signed in London, May 21, 1833.

In 1838 it seemed as if Holland and Belgium were likely to engage in war once more. According to the 'twenty-four articles' of the 'Definitive Treaty,' Belgium was under obligation to give up Limburg and a part of Luxemburg during the above-mentioned year. This it now refused to do, and put its army on a war-footing; but its obstinacy finally gave way to the unanimous decision of the five great powers, and on the 19th April 1839 a treaty of peace was signed at London, Belgium's annual share of the Netherlands' debt being at the same time reduced to 5,000,000 florins; and both Limburg and Luxemburg being partitioned between Holland and Belgium.

After 1840 the opposition of the Catholic to the Liberal party became more and more decided, the educational laws not being satisfactory to the clergy, until, in July 1845, the liberal Van de Weyer endeavoured to confirm the so-called 'union' of the two parties. In 1846 a purely Catholic ministry took office; but in 1847 a liberal ministry was formed by Rogier. The revolutionary tempest of 1848 menaced the tranquillity of the country; but the king disarmed hostility by promptly declaring himself ready to retain or to surrender the crown of Belgium, according to the decision of the people.

In July 1848 the elections greatly strengthened the liberal-constitutional party, and in 1850 the educational question was supposed to be settled on soundly liberal principles; but since then there has been a keen and continued struggle between Progressists and Ultramontanes, the balance of power shifting from time to time. Thus liberal ministries have been in power from 1857 to 1864, and in 1878 (under Frère-Orban); clerical ministries in 1870, 1876, 1880, and 1884, the education question being the chief bone of contention. On the death of Leopold I. in 1865, his son had succeeded as Leopold II. In 1861 Belgium took part in the London conference for settling the Luxemburg question, which threatened to plunge Europe in war, but did not sign the guarantee for the neutrality of Luxemburg. On the outbreak of the Franco-German war in 1870, the Belgians, fearing risks both from Prussia and from France, mobilised their army; but in a special treaty

arranged by England, both belligerents recognised anew the neutrality of Belgium, guaranteed in 1831 and 1839. In 1885 the Congo Free State (q.v.), under the presidency of Leopold II., was acknowledged by the powers. Although the country has on the whole steadily grown in prosperity, and constitutional principles have been generally strengthened, yet 1886-87 witnessed industrial riots and Socialist disturbances of a serious aspect, attended at Liège, Mons, Charleroi, and other places, with great violence. The king at the opening of the chambers in November promised that measures of reform should be introduced, and this had the effect of quelling the disturbances. In 1880 the jubilee of the state was celebrated with much enthusiasm.

Compare FLANDERS and the articles on the several provinces; see also Genonceaux, *La Belgique* (1879); Hymans, *La Belgique Contemporaine* (1880); Wauters, *La Belgique, Ancienne et Moderne* (1882 ff.); the *Annuaire Statistique*; and the histories by Juste (4th ed. 1868), Moke (7th ed. 1881), and Hymans (5 vols. 1880).

Belgorod' (Russian *Bjelgorod*, 'white town'), a town in the Russian government of Kursk, on the Donetz, 412 miles S. of Moscow by rail. It is an archbishop's see, has numerous churches, two monasteries, manufactures of leather, soap, and woollens, and carries on a considerable trade in wax, bristles, and hemp. Three important fairs are held here during the year. Pop. (1880) 16,097.

Belgrade' (Serb *Bielgorod*, 'white town'), an important fortified and commercial city, the capital of the kingdom of Serbia, lies opposite Semlin, at the confluence of the Save and Danube, 215 miles SSE. of Pesth, and 234 miles NNW. of Vranja, by rail. The walls have disappeared since 1862; the last and finest of the five gates was demolished in 1868; and the citadel is hardly up to the requirements of modern warfare. Year by year the town is losing its old Turkish aspect, becoming more modern, more European. Only one mosque is left for the tiny remnant of Mohammedans, whilst there are seven churches and two synagogues. The royal palace, the residence of the metropolitan, the national theatre (1871), and the public offices, are the principal buildings. Opposite the theatre is a bronze monument (1882) to the murdered Prince Michael III. Belgrade has but trifling manufactures of arms, cutlery, saddlery, silk goods, carpets, &c. It is, however, the entrepôt of the trade between Turkey and Austria. Pop. (1872) 26,674; (1886) 36,994. Belgrade is the *Singidunum* of Ptolemy. Its position has made it the chief point of communication between Constantinople and Vienna, and the key to Hungary on the south-east. It has consequently been the scene of many hard-fought contests. The Greeks held it until 1073, when it was captured by the Hungarian king, Salomon. After this, it passed through the hands of Greeks, Bulgarians, Bosnians, and Servians, and these last proprietors sold it in 1426 to the Emperor Sigismund. In 1440 it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Turks, with a large and vain outlay of time and money; and when stormed (1456), was retaken from the Turks by the heroism of Hunyadi and Capistrano. In 1522 it was carried by the Sultan Soliman II. In 1688 it was stormed and taken by Maximilian, Elector of Bavaria; but in 1690 was recaptured by the Turks, when the Christian garrison had been reduced to 500 men. In 1692 Belgrade was vainly besieged by the Duke of Croy; and in 1717 the citadel surrendered to Prince Eugene, after he had defeated an army of 200,000 Turks, with a loss to them of 20,000 men. But in 1739 Belgrade again changed owners, the Turks obtaining it without a shot. In conformity

with the treaty then signed, the fortifications were demolished. In 1789 it was again taken by the Austrians under General Laudon; but by the treaty of peace (1791), was restored to the Turks. From 1806 to 1812 it was in the possession of the insurgent Servians; and in 1862, after a wanton bombardment from the citadel, it was made the capital of the principality of Servia, though the citadel remained in the hands of the Turks till 1867.

Belgravia, a district in the southern part of the West End of London, bordering on Hyde Park and Buckingham Palace Gardens. The word, now proverbial for birth, wealth, luxury, and fashion, is derived from Belgrave Square, in the centre of that quarter; and has its name from one of the titles of the Duke of Westminster, who owns the whole district. Belgrave is a parish in Leicester-shire.

Belial, or, more accurately, *Bel'ial*, a Hebrew word, often treated by the translators of the authorised version as a proper name, but really an abstract term meaning 'that which is without use or profit,' 'worthlessness,' hence 'wickedness.' It is mostly used in the forms 'son of Belial,' 'man of Belial;' but the adjunct is often omitted, and the word stands by itself as a term of reproach.

Belief is a term which is sufficiently definite for most ordinary purposes; but it is used with some variety in meaning, and psychologists do not always agree in the tests they give for distinguishing belief from other states of mind. The word is used to mean the acceptance of a proposition, statement, or fact as true on the ground of evidence, authority, or irresistible mental predisposition; the state of trust in and reliance on a person, thing, or principle; as also for the fact believed, and sometimes specifically for the apostles' creed. Belief is by some distinguished from knowledge, inasmuch as the latter rests on evidence, while belief rests on authority. Belief should, some say, not be used of facts such as are occurring in one's own experience, or principles of which the opposite implies absurdity, such as the axioms of geometry. These we *know*; and according to this view, the term should be limited to cases where a proposition is accepted without evidence, or where such evidence as is available implies only probability. On the other hand, the psychologists of what is called the intuitive school are accustomed to regard as beliefs the fundamental data on which reasoning rests; and to say that all knowledge rests ultimately on belief. Belief, they say, may admit of all degrees of confidence, from a slight suspicion to full assurance. There are many operations of mind in which it is an ingredient—consciousness, remembrance, perception. Kant defined *opinion* as a judgment which is insufficiently based, subjectively as well as objectively; *belief*, as subjectively sufficient but objectively inadequate; *knowledge*, as both subjectively and objectively sufficient. The strongest beliefs may of course be false; beliefs in ghosts, astrological prognostications, &c., are usually treated as superstitions. Beliefs as such rest on grounds regarded as sufficient by the person believing, who is prepared to act on his belief; but their grounds may have absolutely no validity for any other person. Such beliefs are nevertheless very real. On the other hand there are many propositions accepted traditionally, and spoken of as beliefs, which are not real vital abiding truths for those who nominally accept them; which have no influence on character or mental tone, and on which those who hold them would not be prepared to act. Faith is a word used in very much the same sense as belief, but specially signifies the acceptance of and reliance on the truths of religion.

For this use, see FAITH, GOD, IMMORTALITY, JUSTIFICATION.

Belisarius (Slav. *Beli-tzar*, 'white prince'). This heroic and loyal soldier, to whom the Emperor Justinian was principally indebted for the glory of his reign, was born at Germania, in Illyria, about 505 A.D. Appointed to the command of the eastern army of the empire, stationed on the confines of Persia, he gained in 530 a victory over a Persian army nearly twice as large as his own. In the following year, when the Persians had penetrated into Syria, Belisarius was compelled by the impatience of his troops to offer battle at Callinicum on the Euphrates, and his defeat was followed by his recall. He still remained, however, the firm supporter of his sovereign. In Constantinople, the strife of the two parties, styled the 'Green' and the 'Blue,' had endangered the authority and even the life of Justinian; already a new emperor, Hypatius, had been elected, when Belisarius attacked and slew in the hippodrome 30,000 of the Green or anti-loyalist party, and thus restored tranquillity. Prior to this he had married a wealthy but profligate lady, Antonina, whom he loved with blind uxoriousness.

The military career of Belisarius may be divided into two great epochs—the war against the Vandals in Africa, and the war against the Goths in Italy. The first of these epochs was commenced by Justinian sending Belisarius in 533 with an army of 15,000 men into Africa, in order to recover the provinces there held by the Vandal king, Gelimer. After achieving two victories, Belisarius made the king a prisoner, seized his treasures, and conquering Sardinia, Corsica, and the Balearic Isles, brought him to Constantinople, where he appeared in a triumphal procession of the conqueror—the first that a subject had enjoyed since the days of Tiberius. The African Vandals never recovered from this overthrow. Medals were struck in Belisarius's honour; and on the 1st January 535 he was invested with the dignity of 'consul.' The second war was occasioned by Justinian's attempt to wrest Italy from the hands of the barbarians. In 535 Belisarius conquered Sicily; and in the autumn of 536 he occupied Lower Italy. He entered Rome by amicable arrangement with the inhabitants; and finding his forces not strong enough to contend with the Goths in open field, he allowed himself to be besieged for a year, when the siege was raised by the Goths. In 538 Narses had been sent with a reinforcement for the army in Italy; but some misunderstanding occurring between the two generals, they were prevented from relieving Milan, which in 539 was carried and devastated by Braias, nephew of the Gothic king, Vitiges. Consequently, Narses was recalled from Italy; and Belisarius, now placed at the head of both armies, refused to assent to a treaty proposed by Justinian's ambassadors to Vitiges, who had persuaded the Persian king, Chosroes, to invade the eastern Roman territory. Belisarius drove the Goths back to Ravenna, which he captured in 540, along with Vitiges himself. But before he could complete his conquest of the Goths, he was recalled by Justinian to Constantinople. In 541–542 he was engaged in a campaign against the Persians, who had captured Antioch; but was again recalled on account of slanderous representations. His second great struggle with the Ostrogoths now begins. In 544 the barbarians under Totila again invaded and reconquered Italy. Belisarius was sent against them, but with an insufficient army. He, however, maintained his ground for five years, and even succeeded so far as to regain possession of Rome. But in spite of his repeated entreaties, no reinforcements were sent

to him; and in 548 he gave up the command, his rival, Narses, being appointed in his place. In 550, after ten years of retirement, Belisarius once more came forward at the head of an army hastily collected, and overthrew the Bulgarians who were threatening Constantinople. Here this faithful servant, who at Ravenna had refused the crown of Italy offered to him by the Goths, was at length accused of a conspiracy against Justinian, and imprisoned (563); but Justinian, becoming convinced of Belisarius's innocence, restored him after six months to all his honours. He died in 565. Tzetzes, in the 12th century, was the first to aver that, during his half-year's imprisonment, Belisarius suspended a bag from the window of his cell, and exclaimed to those who passed by: 'Give an obolus to Belisarius, who rose by merit, and was cast down by envy!' Lord Mahon, in his *Life of Belisarius* (Lond. 1829), endeavours, but without success, to confirm the tradition of Belisarius being deprived of sight and reduced to mendicancy—a fiction given in Marmontel's romance, which supplied the painter Gérard with the subject for a fine picture.

Belize, or **BRITISH HONDURAS**, a British colony washed on the E. by the Bay of Honduras, in the Caribbean Sea, and elsewhere surrounded by Guatemala and Mexico. It forms the south-east part of the peninsula of Yucatan, and measuring 180 by 60 miles, has an area of 7562 sq. m., or a little larger than Wales. In 1881 the population was 27,452, of whom about 1600 were whites. The river Belize traverses the middle of the country, and the Rio Hondo and the Sarstoon form respectively its north-western and its southern boundary. The Cockscomb Mountains (4000 feet) are the highest eminences, the land all along the coast being low and swampy. The country has a general tropical fertility; its chief exports are mahogany and logwood, besides sugar, coffee, cotton, sarsaparilla, bananas, plantains, and india-rubber. The yearly value of the imports ranges between £160,000 and £269,000; of the exports, between £124,500 and £317,500. The name Belize is probably a Spanish corruption of the name Wallis, one of the early British settlers; otherwise it is usually referred to the Fr. *balise*, 'a beacon.' Those early settlers, buccaneers at starting, then logwood-cutters, were frequently attacked by the Spaniards; but since 1798, when they repulsed a fleet and a land-force of 2000 men, their occupation has been formally acquiesced in. Since 1862 Belize has ranked as a British colony, with a lieutenant-governor, whose rank was raised in 1884 to that of governor. Belize, the capital, is a dépôt for British goods for Central America, and has a pop. of about 6600. See A. R. Gibbs's *British Honduras* (Lond. 1883).

Bell. Though there has been some variation from time to time in the substance of which bells are formed, yet in all ages the best-approved has been a mixture of copper and tin called bronze. The proportions of the metals are by no means the same in all cases. The small bells found by Mr Layard in the palace of Nimroud contain 10 parts of copper to 1 of tin; but such an excess of the former metal is rare, and 2 to 1 was for ages in Europe a more approximate ratio. For instance, in the reign of Henry III., 1050 lb. of copper and 500 lb. of tin were allowed, together with old bell-metal, for casting three bells for Dover Castle. The tendency of after-ages has been to increase the proportion of copper, which is stated on good authority to be in the ratio of 13 to 4 to the tin. Of late, steel bells have been cast in Sheffield by Riepe's patent, but these have a less sustained vibration, which is also the result of attempting to

extract from a specified amount of bronze a deeper note than it is fairly capable of affording. The fragility of glass bells will prove a serious obstacle to their use, whatever beauty there may be in their sound. As to hand-bells, crotals, and the like, they have been made of almost endless variety of material. Silver, however, is always injurious to the tone of any bell, great or small, and it is only the eye which feels pleasure from these little instruments. An elegant specimen of a silver-gilt hand-bell, which belonged to Mary, Queen of Scots, was exhibited in the year 1887 at Peterborough among a number of other objects connected with that unhappy queen. The pitch of a bell is regulated by the thickness of the striking-place in proportion to the diameter, the ratio being about 1 to 12 in a bell of 10 cwt. Some medieval bells of good tone are remarkable for the thinness of the sound-bow.



Queen Mary's Hand-bell.

From a remote antiquity cymbals and hand-bells were used in religious ceremonies. In Egypt we find that the festivals of Isis were celebrated with the sound of *sistra*, apparently small crotals. Aaron and other Jewish high-priests wore golden bells attached to their vestments; and the priests of Cybele used cymbals in their rites. The Greeks employed bells of some kind (*kōdōnes*) in camps and garrison; and the Romans announced the hour of bathing by the *aes thermarium*. Great uncertainty prevails as to the introduction of bells into Christian churches. Suetonius relates that Augustus Caesar placed *tin-tinnabula* round the top of the temple of Jupiter Tonans; and it is possible that when basilicas and other buildings came into the possession of the church in the reign of Constantine the Great, the bells belonging to them were readily adapted to the purpose of calling together congregations. The ascription of the first use of bells for church purposes to Paulinus, Bishop of Nola in Campania, appears to rest mainly on the names *Nola* and *Campana*, which are commonly given to bells. *Nola*, however, is a word in use long before the time of Paulinus, and hardly likely to be taken from the name of a city without modification. The derivations of both words are probably not local. Bells appear to have been introduced into France about 550; and Benedict, abbot of Wearmouth, is related to have brought one from Italy for his church about 680. Bells came into use in the Greek Church in the 9th century, and in Switzerland and Germany in the 11th. Most of the bells first used in Western Christendom seem to have been hand-bells. Several specimens, some of them, it is believed, as old as the 6th century, are still preserved in Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. They are made of thin plates of hammered iron, bent into a four-sided form, fastened with rivets, and brazed or bronzed. Perhaps the most remarkable is that which is said to have belonged to St Patrick, called the *Clog-an-cadhachta Phatraic*, or 'The bell of Patrick's Will.' It is 6 inches high, 5 inches broad, and 4 inches deep, and is kept in a case or shrine of brass, enriched with gems and with gold and silver filigree, and was made (as an inscription in Irish shows) between the years 1091 and 1105. The bell itself is believed to be mentioned in the *Annals of Ulster* as early as the year 552. Engravings as well of the bell as of its shrine, with a

history of both, by the Rev. Dr Reeves of Lusk, were published at Belfast (where the relic is preserved) in 1850. The accompanying cut shows an ancient specimen of this type from Brittany. Some of the Scottish bells, of the same primitive type, are figured and described in Dr Joseph Anderson's *Scotland in Early Christian Times* (Rhind Lectures, Edin. 1881). The four-sided bell of St Gall, an Irish missionary who died about 646, is still shown in the monastery of the city which bears his name in Switzerland.



Ancient Bell from Brittany.

Church-bells were suspended either in the steeples or church-towers, or in special bell-towers. They were long of comparatively small size: the bell which a king presented to the church of Orleans in the 11th century, and which was remarkable in its age, weighed only 2600 lb. In the 13th century much larger bells began to be cast, but it was not until the 14th century that they reached really considerable dimensions. The bell 'Jacqueline' of Paris, cast in 1400, weighed 15,000 lb.; another Paris bell, cast in 1472, weighed 25,000 lb.; the famous bell of Rouen, cast in 1501, weighed



Great Bell at Moscow (from a Photograph).

36,364 lb. The largest bell in the world is the Great Bell, Monarch or Czar Bell (*Tsar Kolokol*), of Moscow. It is 19 feet high, 60 feet round the rim, and weighs 198 tons. Cast in 1653, it came cracked out of the foundry, and never was hung. In 1837 it was raised on a granite basement, and makes a kind of chapel, the broken side forming the doorway. Another Moscow bell, the largest in use, weighs 128 tons. The Great Bell at Pekin weighs 53½ tons; the 'Kaiserglocke' of Cologne Cathedral (1887), 14½ feet high, 11½ in diameter, is made of 22 French cannon, and weighs 26 tons 13 cwt.; those of Olmütz, Rouen, and Vienna, nearly 18 tons; that first cast for the New Palace at Westminster (but cracked), 14 tons; that of the Roman Catholic cathedral at Montreal (cast 1847), 13½ tons; 'Great Peter,' placed in York Minster 1845,

10½ tons; 'Great Tom' at Christ Church, Oxford, a faulty bell, cast in 1680, 7½ tons; 'Great Tom' at Lincoln, cast in 1834, 5½ tons; the new Great Bell at St Paul's, cast in 1881, 17½ tons, the largest in the United Kingdom. Many of these weights, however, have been imperfectly verified, and must be received with reserve. See Gatty's *The Bell* (1848) and Stainer's *Great Paul* (1882).

From old usage, bells are intimately connected with the services of the Christian church—so much so, that apparently from a spirit of opposition, the Mohammedans reject the use of bells, and substitute for them the cry of the muezzin from the top of the mosques. Associated in various ways with the ancient ritual of the church, bells acquired a kind of sacred character. They were consecrated by a complete baptismal service; received names, had sponsors, were sprinkled with water, anointed, and finally covered with the white garment or chrisom, like infants. This usage is as old as the time of Alcuin, and is still practised in Roman Catholic countries. Bells had mostly pious inscriptions, sometimes indicative of the widespread belief in the mysterious virtue of their sound. They were believed to disperse storms and pestilence, drive away enemies, extinguish fire, &c. The medieval inscription, 'Voce mea viva depello emeta nociva,' is still frequently found on bells in the west of England. Among the superstitious usages recorded to have taken place in old St Paul's Church in London, was the 'ringing the hallowed bells in great tempests or lightnings.' The strange notion that bells are efficacious in dispelling storms is by no means extinct.

Church-bells were at one time tolled for those passing out of the world, in order that the people might put up their prayers for the dying person, as we learn from the *Rationale* of Durandus. The tolling of the passing-bell was retained at the Reformation; nor do the Puritans seem to have objected to the practice, as, for instance, when Dr John Rainolds was dying, 'he expressed by signs that he would have the passing bell tolled for him.' But by the beginning of the 18th century, the passing-bell, in the proper sense of the term, had almost ceased to be heard; the tolling took place after the death, instead of before. The practice of slowly and solemnly tolling church-bells after deaths, and before funerals, is still an established usage throughout England. The *Pardon*, *Gabriel*, or *Ave* bell, prior to the Reformation, was rung at morning, noon, or evening, or before or after service, inviting to the recitation of the salutation of the angel Gabriel, *Ave Maria, gratia plena, Dominus tecum*, for purposes of intercessory prayer, or the forgiveness of personal sins. The *Ave* bell was generally one of the ring dedicated to the angel Gabriel, and bearing on it the words of the Annunciation; but any bell might serve the purpose. The *Sanctus* or *Sacring* bell, rung at the Sanctus in the mass and at the elevation of the host, was often hung in a place by itself, usually on the gable at the east end of the nave; but a small hand-bell is now usual. *Vesper-bell*, properly the bell that summons to Vespers (q.v.), is usually a popular phrase for a bell rung at evening. Bishop Burnet has recorded the order of Bishop Shaxton of Sarum in 1538, concerning the discontinuance of the custom.

The ringing of the *curfew-bell*, supposed to have been introduced into England by William the Conqueror, was a custom of a civil or political nature, and only strictly observed till the end of the reign of William Rufus, the statute being abolished by Henry I. in 1100. Its object was to warn the public to extinguish their fires and lights at eight o'clock in the evening. The eight o'clock ringing is still continued in many parts of England and Scotland.

On all that belongs to the playing of bells in belfries, the inventive genius of the Netherlands long since arrived at proficiency. In some of the church-towers of that country, the striking, chiming, and playing of bells is incessant; the tinkling called chimes usually accompanies the striking of the hours, half-hours, and quarters; while the playing of tunes comes in as a special divertisement. In some instances, these tune-playing bells are sounded by means of a cylinder, on the principle of a barrel-organ; but in others, they are played with keys by a musician. The term *carillons* is used either to the tunes played on bells, or of the suites of bells which yield this kind of music. The tower of Les Halles, at Bruges, is allowed to have the finest carillons in Europe (see BELFRY, CAMPANILE).

Many of the church-towers throughout England, in villages as well as in towns, are provided with peals of bells, the ringing of which is a well-known practice. The number of *changes* or permutations of order that can be rung on a peal, is the *factorial* of the number of bells—i.e. the continued product of all the natural numbers from unity to the number of bells. Thus: 3 bells allow 6 changes; 4 bells, 24; 8 bells, 40,320; 12 bells give as many as 479,001,600 changes. The ringing of peals differs entirely from chiming or tolling.

There is no method of sounding bells equal to the English ringing, when the bell at each pull revolves round a complete circle, and is under the full command of the ringer. This power over the bells makes the sequence of sounds to be regulated at the will of the band of performers, each of whom has his bell, while the leader 'calls' the peal. It is of course necessary that strict order should be observed in arranging the changes, for no unassisted memory would carry a ringer far into the peal. Also, from the nature of bell-machinery, a certain time must elapse between two strokes of the same bell, to allow for its swinging round. The first known writer on the subject is Fabian Stedman, a Cambridge printer, whose *Tintinnologia* was published in 1668. He is said to have printed his changes on slips of paper in his leisure hours, and taught them to his company in the tower of St Benedict, Cambridge. According to his account, there was no idea of change-ringing till the beginning of the 17th century, though there certainly seem traces of it in Udall's *Ralph Roister Doister*, which was written in 1553. Once started, the art made rapid progress, and rings of bells increased from five or six to ten and twelve, the latter being the greatest number ever rung in peal. The simplest peals are those called *Grandsire* on an odd number of bells, and *Bob* on an even number. Thus, changes on seven bells, with the tenor, or great bell, sounded last in each change, are called *Grandsire Triples*; on nine, *Grandsire Caters*; and on eleven, *Grandsire Cinques*; while on six, eight, ten, or twelve, the more usual methods are respectively *Bob Minor*, *Bob Major*, *Bob Royal*, and *Bob Maximus*. There are, however, a variety of other methods of producing the changes, known as *Oxford Treble Bob*, *Norwich Court Bob*, &c. The muffled peal, which is an invention of later days, is rung with a leather cap over half of the chapper, thus rendering the chimes alternately clear and dull. The effect is very fine.

The general method of making bells has not varied much for centuries, though constant modifications in detail have come into vogue. A core of brickwork covered with soft clay is moulded to the intended form of the inner surface of the bell by means of a curved compass called a *crook*, and in a similar way the form of the outer surface is moulded on the inside of the outer mould, or *cope*. The cope is fitted over the core, with a hole left at the

top for the escape of the air, and the metal in a state of fusion is admitted to fill the space intervening between the cope and the core (see CASTING).

The art of casting bells in sequence of sound appears to have been practised after the Conquest, partly by ecclesiastics, and partly by handicraftsmen, who produced bronze lavers, mortars, and after a time cannons, as well as bells. Walter of Odington, a monk of Evesham, in the time of Henry III., has given careful directions for producing a tunable ring, and Sandre (or Alexander) founder of Gloucester, shortly afterwards, was an ecclesiastic. By the end of the 14th century the work appears to have fallen entirely into the hands of laymen; and excellent bells of the period from that time to the Reformation from the foundries in Norwich, Bury St Edmunds, York, Leicester, and other centres, remain in abundance all over England. Nor has the general form of the bell undergone much change since that time. The late 'Tom of Lincoln,' weighing a ton less than the present bell, was cast in the Minster Yard in 1610 by the joint efforts of Henry Oldfield of Nottingham and William Newcombe of Leicester. The bells made by Miles Graye of Colchester, who died in 1649, are deservedly much esteemed by ringers. At the present day the principal foundries in England are those of Messrs Mays & Bainbank, Whitechapel; Messrs Warner & Sons, Cripplegate; and Messrs Taylor & Co., at Loughborough. The foundry at Louvain, lately famous under M. Severin van Aerschodt, has produced many excellent bells, great and small, since the days of the Van den Gheyns, more than three centuries ago. A few medieval bells from Venlo are still found in England. The twelve bells of Christ Church, Oxford, are renowned for their tone; the largest peal in England is that of St Paul's (12 bells, the tenor weighing 64 cwt.).

Rings of bells other than carillons are apparently unknown on the Continent, but in every considerable town fine-toned large bells are to be found, sometimes in sequence though in different churches. Very few old bells remain in France, some districts having been entirely cleared of them in the time of the first Napoleon.

The cost of bells varies according to the current price of tin and copper. It may be taken at from £6 to £7 per hundredweight, so that a ring of twelve bells of the best quality can be obtained for about £1200. The recent invention of tubular bells of steel, patented by Harrington of Coventry, may revolutionise all our notions of ringing, but it is as yet hardly on its trial. The tubes, varying in length from 4 or 5 to 12 or 14 feet, are suspended in a frame in the belfry by means of cords passed through holes in the upper part of each tube, and are struck by a hammer above the point of suspension. The volume of sound is remarkable both for mellowness and fullness; and a ring of eight bells costs from £75 to £130, according to size.

The custom of hanging bells on the necks of horses, cows, and other animals, was in use by the Romans, and still survives in Switzerland and elsewhere. The bells are useful in the dark, or when the animals that wear them are out of sight. The attaching of small spherical bells or crotals to riding and sleigh-horses is common in some parts of Europe and America. These crotals used for this purpose are often exactly like those found in British graves, which were suspended on the spear of the warrior.



Ancient Crotal.

The *hanging of bells* in dwelling-houses, and ringing them by means of wires from the different apartments, is quite a modern invention: for it was not known in England in the reign of Queen Anne.

More recently, electric bells have been introduced. A galvanic battery requiring attention only at long intervals is used. From this an insulated wire goes to a 'press-button' in a room or lobby, thence to the bell, and back to the battery to complete the circuit. The press-button makes contact when one requires to ring; at other times the current is broken. Beside the bell there is an electromagnet, with an arrangement by which a spring is attracted and released in rapid succession as long as the automatically interrupted current of electricity is passing. This spring carries a knob which strikes the bell as it oscillates to and fro. An index is used when the bell is rung by press-buttons from several rooms.

The best-known earlier campanologists are Hieronymus Magius (Girohano Magi, an Italian jurist), Pacichelli, and Stockfleth. Among later English writers, Lord Grimthorpe (Mr Beckett Denison, Q.C.) approached the subject from the side of acoustics, while Messrs Ellacombe, North, Stahl-schmidt, and others have investigated the archaeology of the bells of several districts in England. Schiller's famous *Song of the Bell*, and Poe's *Bells*, may be mentioned as notable amongst poems on the subject.

'BELLS,' on shipboard, is a term having a peculiar meaning, not exactly equivalent to, but serving as a substitute for 'time' or 'o'clock' in ordinary land-life. The division of the day into watches, usually of four hours' duration each, is explained at WATCH. Each half-hour is marked by striking on a bell, in either single or double strokes. The number of strokes depends not on the hour, according to ordinary reckoning, but on the number of half-hours which have elapsed in that particular watch. Thus, 'three bells' is a phrase denoting that three half-hours have elapsed, but it does not in itself show to which particular watch it refers, and may indicate either half-past one, half-past five, or half-past nine in the ordinary watches, or half-past seven in the dog-watch, which is half the period of the ordinary watch. In foggy weather, both steamers and sailing-vessels *when at anchor* sound their bells (see FOG SIGNALS).

Bell, ALEXANDER MELVILLE, was born at Edinburgh in 1819, and there established himself as a teacher of elocution. In 1865 he removed to London, where, two years later, he published his work on *Visible Speech* (q.v.). He had been engaged for more than twenty years in perfecting his phonetic system; and with a view to bring it before the world, he visited the United States in 1868, and delivered a series of lectures, with such success that, in 1870, he removed to America, and finally settled in Washington. He has there published numerous manuals and essays on subjects connected with phonetics; and his *Principles of Phonetics* reached a 5th edition in 1887. Among his earlier writings may be noted an ingenious system of *Steno-Phonography* (1854).—His son, **ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL**, the inventor of the telephone, was born at Edinburgh in 1847, and was educated at the High School there, and in Germany, obtaining at Würzburg the degree of Ph.D. He removed to America, and at Boston devoted himself to the teaching of deaf-mutes, and to spreading his father's system of 'Visible Speech.' His inventions of the articulating Telephone (q.v.) in 1872-76, of the Photophone (q.v.) in 1880, of the Graphophone (resembling Edison's Phonograph, q.v.) in 1887, and of kindred instruments, have since brought him both wealth and fame.

Bell, ANDREW, D.D., founder of the 'Madras System of Education,' was born at St Andrews, 27th March 1753, and educated at the university of that place. After acting as a tutor in Virginia (1774-81), he took orders in the Church of England, sailed for India in 1787, and within two years was appointed to eight army chaplainships, all of which he managed to hold simultaneously. In 1789 he became superintendent of the Madras Orphanage for the sons of soldiers. Finding it impossible to obtain the services of properly qualified masters, he at length resorted to the expedient of conducting the school by the aid of the scholars themselves. Hence originated the far-famed 'Monitorial System' (q.v.). The state of his health forced him to return to England, where, in 1797, he was pensioned by the East India Company. His pamphlet entitled *An Experiment in Education, made at the Male Asylum of Madras* (1797), attracted little attention, until Joseph Lancaster (1778-1838), a Quaker, commenced to work upon the system, and succeeded in obtaining for it a large measure of public recognition. In 1803 Lancaster also published a tractate on education, recommending the monitorial system, as it was now called, and admitting Bell to be the original inventor of it, an admission which he afterwards discreditably retracted. Lancasterian schools now began to spread over the country. The church grew alarmed, and in 1811 founded the 'National Society for the Education of the Poor,' of which Bell was appointed superintendent, the number of its schools soon increasing to 12,000. He made a journey to the Continent in 1816 to spread his ideas, when he met Pestalozzi. Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Southey, who all had faith in the system, encouraged Bell; but it was found that although powerful service had been rendered to education by its aid, many evils, such as ignorance and inefficiency on the part of teachers, had also resulted from the system. Rector of Swanage till 1809, Bell then was made master of Sherburn Hospital, Durham, and in 1818 a prebendary of Hereford and of Westminster. He died at Cheltenham, 27th January 1832. He left (besides a valuable estate) £120,000 for the purpose of founding educational institutions. Half of this was to go to St Andrews, the other half to be equally divided between Edinburgh, Glasgow, Leith, Aberdeen, Inverness, Cupar, and the Royal Naval School, London. See his *Life* by Southey (3 vols. 1844), and Meiklejohn's *An Old Educational Reformer* (1881).

Bell, SIR CHARLES, an eminent surgeon, whose discoveries in the nervous system have given him a European fame, was born at Edinburgh in 1774, the youngest of five sons of William Bell, a clergyman of the Episcopal Church in Scotland. Three of his brothers became professors, the eldest, Robert, filling the chair of Conveyancing in Edinburgh from 1800 to 1816; John and George Joseph are separately treated. While a mere youth, Charles assisted his brother John in his anatomical lectures and demonstrations. In 1799 he was admitted a member of the Edinburgh College of Surgeons; in 1804 he proceeded to London, where for some years he lectured with great success on anatomy and surgery at the academy in Great Windmill Street. In 1807 he made the discovery, which he established by the publication of his *Anatomy of the Brain* (1811), of the existence of sensory and motor nerves in the brain; his investigations were completed between 1821-29, and included researches on the cranial nerves, which are embodied in his *Nervous System* (1830). These discoveries in physiology have been described as the greatest, since Harvey demonstrated the circulation of the

blood. Appointed in 1812 surgeon to the Middlesex Hospital, a few years later he became a member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London; in the former institution he delivered clinical lectures, and raised it to the highest repute. To obtain a knowledge of gunshot wounds, he twice relinquished his London engagements—first after the battle of Corunna in 1809, when he visited Haslar Hospital; next after Waterloo, when he repaired to Brussels, and was put in charge of a hospital. In 1824 he was appointed senior professor of Anatomy and Surgery to the Royal College of Surgeons, London, and subsequently a member of the council. On the establishment of the London University, now University College, in 1826, Bell was placed at the head of their new medical school, but soon resigned, and confined himself to his extensive practice, which was chiefly in nervous affections. In 1829 he received the Royal Society's medal for discoveries in science. In 1831 he was knighted on the accession of William IV. In 1836 he was elected professor of Surgery in the university of Edinburgh. He was a Fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh, and a member of some other learned bodies. He was editor, jointly with Lord Brongham, of Paley's *Evidences of Natural Religion*. He died suddenly, 28th April 1842, at Hallow Park, Worcester, where he was staying, and was buried in the churchyard there. Of a cheerful disposition, Bell enjoyed literature and music; fishing was a favourite recreation with him. Among his principal works on surgery and the nervous system are: *Anatomy of the Brain*, 12 plates (1802); *Engravings, explaining the Course of the Nerves* (1804); *Anatomy of Expression in Painting* (1806; posthumous edition, enlarged, 1844); *A System of Operative Surgery* (2 vols. 1807-9); *Gunshot Wounds* (1814); *Anatomy and Physiology of the Human Body* (3 vols. 1816); various papers on the nervous system, which originally appeared in the *Philosophical Transactions*; *Nerves of the Human Body* (1824); *Injuries to the Spine and of the Thigh Bone* (1824); *Institutes of Surgery* (1838); *Animal Mechanics*, contributed to the Library for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge (1828); *Nervous System of the Human Body* (1830, 4to); *Practical Essays* (1841). *The Hand* (1833) is one of the celebrated *Bridgegewater Treatises*. See Pichot's *Vie et Travaux de Sir Charles Bell* (1859), and his *Correspondence* (1870).

Bell, CURRIER. See BRONTË.

Bell, GEORGE JOSEPH, an eminent lawyer, a brother of Sir Charles, was born at Edinburgh, 26th March 1770, and passed advocate in 1791. Acknowledged one of the greatest masters of commercial jurisprudence of his time, and in particular of that department of it which relates to the laws of bankruptcy, he was in 1822 appointed professor of Scots Law in Edinburgh University, and in 1823 a member of the commission for inquiring into Scottish judicial proceedings. On the report, drawn up by Bell, was founded the Scottish Judicature Act (1825), prepared by him, which effected many important changes in the forms of process in the superior courts of Scotland; the jury court being abolished as a separate judicature, and conjoined with the Court of Session. Appointed in 1832 one of the clerks of the Court of Session, he was in 1833 chairman of the Royal Commission to examine into the state of the law in general. He also prepared a bill for the establishment of a Court of Bankruptcy in Scotland. A Whig in politics, he was intimate with Lord Jeffrey; he was genial and courteous in manner, and possessed considerable culture. He died 23d September 1843. His principal works are: *A Treatise on the Laws of Bankruptcy in Scotland* (1804), and *Commentaries*

on the Laws of Scotland, which soon ranked with Stair's *Institutes* as a standard authority (1810; 7th ed. 1870); *Principles of the Law of Scotland* (1829; 6th ed. 1872); and *Commentaries on Statutes relative to Mercantile Bankruptcy* (1840).

Bell, HENRY, the father of steam-navigation in Europe, was born at Torphichen Mill, Linlithgow, April 7, 1767. After three years spent as a stone-mason, he was in 1783 apprenticed to his uncle, a millwright. He served under Rennie in London and other engineers, worked in a ship-building yard at Borrowstounness, and in 1790 settled in Glasgow, whence in 1807 he removed to Helensburgh, where his wife kept the principal inn, and he devoted himself to mechanical experiments. As early as 1786 he seems to have conceived the idea of applying steam to navigation; how far he had been anticipated by Fulton and others will be considered under the head of STEAM-NAVIGATION. Anyhow, on 12th January 1812, a small vessel, 40 feet in length, called the *Comet*, built under his directions, and with an engine constructed by himself, was launched on the Clyde with success—the first on European waters. Bell died at Helensburgh, November 14, 1830.

Bell, HENRY GLASSFORD, lawyer and man of letters, was born in Glasgow, 8th November 1803. He attended Edinburgh University, studied law, passed as an advocate in 1832, and gained the acquaintance of the ruling literary spirits of that time in Edinburgh. He was appointed a sheriff-substitute of Lanarkshire in 1839; in 1867 he succeeded Sir Archibald Alison as sheriff, and acquired the reputation of being the best Scottish mercantile lawyer of his day. He founded (1828) and was for three years editor of the *Edinburgh Literary Journal*; besides publishing a vindication of Mary, Queen of Scots (1830); *Summer and Winter Hours* (1831); *My Old Portfolio* (1832); and *Romances and Minor Poems* (1866). He died 7th January 1874.

Bell, SIR ISAAC LOWTHIAN, was born in 1816, and educated at Edinburgh and Paris. After being engaged in extensive chemical works, he founded, with his brothers, the great Clarence iron-smelting works on the Tees. He has written many papers on metallurgical and chemical subjects. He is an F.R.S., D.C.L., and an officer of the Legion of Honour; was M.P. for Hartlepool from 1875 till 1880; and was made a baronet in 1885.

Bell, JOHN, of Antermoney, a celebrated Asiatic traveller, born in Campsie parish, Stirlingshire, in 1691, studied for the medical profession. In 1714 he went to St Petersburg, and soon after was appointed physician to an embassy from Russia to Persia. In 1719 he was sent upon another to China, through Siberia. In 1722 he accompanied another expedition to China, again in 1722 to Persia, and in 1737 to Constantinople, where he settled for some years as a merchant. About 1746 he returned to Scotland, where he died at Antermoney, July 1, 1780. His *Travels* were published in 1763, and reprinted in Pinkerton's *Voyages and Travels*. Bell is said to have applied to Robertson for help in writing this work, when the latter recommended *Gulliver's Travels* as a model. Hence, perhaps, Bell's simplicity of style, long regarded as a model for travel-writing.

Bell, JOHN, an eminent surgeon, elder brother of Sir Charles, was born in Edinburgh, May 12, 1763. He studied under Black, Cullen, and Monro *secundus*; commenced in 1786 lecturing at Edinburgh on surgery and anatomy; and between 1793 and 1802 published his *Anatomy*. This was followed by a volume of anatomical drawings, illustrative of the structure of the bones, muscles, and joints, and another illustrative of the arteries.

In 1800 he published a *Memorial concerning Military Surgery*; his *System of Anatomy* (1793-95) was translated into German. Of his *Principles of Surgery* (1801-7) a new edition, by his brother, Sir Charles Bell, appeared in 1826. A long and bitter controversy with Dr Gregory as to the attendance of surgeons at the infirmary led to his exclusion from the same. A fall from his horse in 1816, and consequent ill-health, necessitated a visit to the Continent; and he died at Rome, April 15, 1820.

Bell, JOHN, an American statesman, born near Nashville, Tennessee, February 18, 1797, was admitted to the bar in 1816. He was a member of congress from 1827 to 1841, and was made Speaker in 1834, and Secretary of War in 1841. During this period he became, from an ardent Free-trader, a Protectionist and supporter of the Whigs, and favoured the reception of petitions for the abolition of slavery in the district of Columbia; afterwards (1858) he vigorously opposed the admission of Kansas as a slave state. He sat in the United States senate from 1847 to 1859, and in 1860 was nominated for the presidency by the 'Constitutional Union' party, but received only 39 electoral votes, cast by the states of Tennessee, Kentucky, and Virginia. He afterwards took no active share in politics, and died at Cumberland Ironworks, September 10, 1860.

Bell, JOHN, sculptor, was born in Norfolk in 1811, and exhibited at the Royal Academy as early as 1832, but first became well known by his figure of 'Dorothea' (1841). Among his subsequent works have been statues of Lord Falkland (1847) and Sir Robert Walpole (1854), for the new Houses of Parliament, the Guards' Memorial (1858) in Waterloo Place, and the America group in the Hyde Park Albert Memorial (1873), a replica of which, in terra-cotta, is now at Washington. To Bell is due the fashion of curved wooden bread-knives and trenchers.

Bell, ROBERT, a busy litterateur, born in 1800 at Cork, in 1828 came to London, and till 1841 was editor of the *Atlas* newspaper. He wrote *The History of Russia and Lives of the Poets* for Lardner's Cyclopædia, the last volumes of Southey's *Naval History* and Mackintosh's *History of England*, three five-act comedies, two novels, a *Life of Canning*, &c.; but he is best known by his annotated edition of the English poets from Chaucer to Cowper (24 vols. 1824-37). He died 12th April 1867.

Bell, THOMAS, naturalist, was born at Poole, Dorsetshire, in 1792, and in 1813 entered Guy's Hospital, where from 1817 till 1861 he held the post of dental surgeon, whilst also lecturing on comparative anatomy. In 1836 he became professor of Zoology in King's College, London. Elected in 1828 a Fellow of the Royal Society, from 1840 to 1853 he acted as its secretary, and he was also president of the Linnean Society (1853-61), and first president of the Ray Society (1844). He was author of *British Quadrupeds* (1837; 2d ed. 1874), *British Reptiles* (1839), *British Stalk-eyed Crustacea* (1853), and the article 'Reptiles' in Darwin's *Zoology of the Voyage of the Beagle*. In 1832 he commenced a *Monograph of the Testudinata*, of which only eight parts appeared. The plates were reissued in 1872 with letterpress by Dr Gray. He was associated with Professor Owen in the production of *Fossil Reptilia of London Clay* (1849). His, too, was the classic edition of White's *Selborne* (2 vols. 1878). Retiring from practice in his seventieth year, he had purchased the Wakes of Selborne from the grandnieces of Gilbert White, and there, after enjoying a hale and hearty old age, he died March 13, 1880.

Bella, a town of Italy, in the province of Potenza (Basilicata), 17 miles S. of Melfi. Pop. 5830.

Bella, STEFANO DELLA, designer and engraver, was born at Florence in 1610. He was intended for a goldsmith, but early devoted himself to engraving. He executed upwards of 1000 different works—battles, sea-pieces, landscapes, animals, and historical scenes. All are characterised by freedom and delicacy. He died in 1664.

Belladonna, DWALE, or DEADLY NIGHT-SHADE (*Atropa belladonna*; *Belladonna*, Ital. 'fair lady,' see below; *atropa*, Gr. *Atropos*, one of the Fates; *dracé*, from A.S., connected with *dull*, from its stupefying effects), a plant of the natural order Solanaceæ (q.v.); a herbaceous perennial, growing up every year as a bush, from 2 to 4 feet high, with ovate entire leaves, and bell-shaped flowers of a lurid purple colour, which are fully larger than those of the common harebell, stalked and solitary in the axils of the leaves. It produces berries of the size of a middle-sized cherry, and which, when ripe, are of a shining black colour, and of a sweetish and not nauseous taste, although the whole plant has a disagreeable heavy smell. It is a native of the southern and middle parts of Europe, and is not uncommon in Britain, in the neighbourhood of towns and of ruins, and flowers from June to November. All parts of the plant are narcotic and poisonous, and fatal consequences not unfrequently follow from the eating of its berries, which have an inviting appearance. Its roots have sometimes been mistaken for parsnips. It owes its poisonous properties to the presence of the alkaloid Atropia (q.v.), which is found in all parts of the plant. Large doses either of belladonna or atropia produce dryness of the mouth and throat, dilatation of the pupils, dimness of vision, bright redness or an



Belladonna (*Atropa belladonna*):
a, flower; b, fruit.

actual rash on the skin, quickening of the pulse and respiration, talkative delirium, sometimes convulsions; at a later stage complete paralysis, stupor, and death. The treatment in cases of poisoning consists in the prompt use of emetics; and thereafter in the administration of stimulants, especially strong coffee; vegetable astringents, as tannin; and Calabar bean. In medicinal doses belladonna and atropia are used to relieve spasm, as in colic, whooping-cough; to check excessive secretions—e.g. of sweat, milk, saliva; as an antidote in poisoning by opium, Calabar bean, and prussic acid; and for many other purposes. Local application, in the form of liniment, ointment, or plaster, is often more efficacious, especially in the relief of pain, than internal administration. Belladonna

has been recommended as a preventive of scarlet fever, apparently on the ground of its tendency, when administered in frequent small doses, to produce an eruption and an affection of the throat somewhat similar to those characteristic of that disease; but the evidence of its utility for this purpose is not sufficient to warrant confidence. But perhaps the most important medicinal use of belladonna, and especially its alkaloid, is in the treatment of diseases of the eye (see EYE, DISEASES OF), in many of which its action is invaluable. Its power of enlarging the pupil and giving a bright, glistening appearance to the eyes, has long been in use to enhance the charms of female beauty; hence the name Belladonna. For the Woody Nightshade, see BITTERSWEET.

Belladonna Lily (*Amurellis belladonna*), a very beautiful and nearly or quite hardly species of *Amurellis* (q.v.), with rose-coloured drooping flowers pencilled with crimson. It is a native of South Africa, has become naturalised in Madeira, and has been cultivated in Europe since the 17th century.

Bellaggio, an Italian village on the promontory that separates the two arms of Lake Como. Its hotels are amongst the finest in Italy, and some of its lovely villas contain valuable art-collections. Pop. 966.

Bellaire, a town and railway terminus of Belmont county, Ohio, on the Ohio River, 5 miles below Wheeling, with manufactures of glass, nails, pig-iron, and agricultural machines. Coal, limestone, and fireclay abound close by. Pop. (1880) 8025.

Bellamy, GEORGE ANNE, an English actress, born most likely at Lisbon in 1727, was the natural daughter of a Quaker school-girl and Lord Tyrawley, by whom she was educated. Having forfeited his favour by going to live with her mother, she secured an engagement at Covent Garden in 1744, and appeared with Quin as Monimia in *The Orphan*. Mrs Bellamy's professional career was brilliant; but her extravagance and profligacy were notorious. In 1785, after many alternations of fortune, a 'free benefit' released her from the debtors' prison, and in the same year she published an 'Apology' for her life (6 vols.). She died in 1788.

Bellamy, JACOBUS, a Dutch poet, born at Flushing in 1757. The son of a Swiss baker, he was indebted for his education to a clergyman and others, who subscribed to send him to the university of Utrecht. He died 10th March 1786, having published three volumes of poetry between 1782 and 1785. Collected editions of his works have appeared at Haarlem in 1826 and 1852, but they omit the finest of all his poems, *Roesje*, a romance remarkable for its pathos.

Bell Animalcules. See VORTICELLA.

Bellarmino, ROBERT, one of the most celebrated Catholic theologians, was born at Montepulciano, near Siena, in 1542. He entered the order of Jesuits at Rome in 1560, and studied theology at Padua and Louvain. Ordained priest in 1569, he was appointed the year after to the chair of theology at Louvain; but he returned to Rome in 1576 to lecture in the Roman College on controversial theology. In 1592 he became rector of the Roman College, was made a cardinal in 1599 against his own inclination, and in 1602 Archbishop of Capua. After the death of Clement VIII., he contrived to escape promotion to the papal chair, but was induced by Pius V. (1605) to hold an important place in the Vatican, where he remained until the time of his death, which took place in the Novitiate-house of the Jesuits,

September 17, 1621. Bellarmine was the chief defender of the church in the 16th century, when its antagonists were mightiest. His ponderous learning, excellent method, and moderation gained him the praise of Bayle, who will not be suspected of any bias in favour of a Jesuit. He gave a conspicuous proof of his fearless honesty in his strenuous opposition to the Pelagian tenets of Molina, a member of his own order. His great work, *Disputationes de Controversiis Christianæ Fidei adversus hujus Temporis Hæreticos* (3 vols. Rome, 1581), is regarded by Catholics as containing the best arguments for their tenets. There can be no question of the merit of his disputations as regards erudition and dialectic dexterity; but as Gerhard, in his *Bellarminus Orthodoxiæ Testis*, has shown, many of the conclusions are far from being sound or logical. Industry, clearness, and acuteness are the chief merits of Bellarmine's great work; but it is seriously lessened in value by a needless subtlety, forced conclusions, and a very defective exegesis—faults which have long been evident to enlightened Catholic writers themselves. Among his other writings the most able is the *Christianæ Doctrinæ Applicatio*, which was translated into all the European languages. His book, *De Potestate Pontificis in rebus temporalibus*, in which he maintains the supremacy of the pontiff's authority over temporal princes, was condemned as treasonable in Paris and Venice. Pope Urban VIII., at the instigation of the Jesuits, declared Bellarmine to be a 'faithful servant of God;' but his canonisation as a saint has hitherto been opposed. Complete editions of his works have been published at Venice in 1721 (5 vols.), Cologne in 1619 (7 vols.), and Paris in 1874 (12 vols.). His Life was written in Italian by the Jesuit Fuligatti (Rome, 1624); an autobiography reaching down to 1613, written in Latin and hitherto withheld by the Jesuits, was edited in 1887, with a German translation, by Dollinger and Rensch. This interesting book somewhat belittles the man, if not the controversialist and theologian.

Bellary, the chief town of Bellary district, 305 miles NW. of Madras by rail. One of the principal military stations in the presidency of Madras, it is strongly defended by two lines of fortifications. The upper fort, crowning a rock 2 miles in circuit, and 450 feet high, is supplied with water from tanks excavated in the solid granite. Besides the fort and adjacent cantonments, Bellary comprises a native town to the southward, with fine military bazaars. On the north are the public offices, churches, dispensary, school, and railway station. The heat is great, but the town is considered healthy. The cotton traffic and trade of the town has been stimulated by railway connection. Pop. (1881) 53,460.—The district, in the presidency of Madras, lying between the Nizam's territories on the N. and Mysore on the S., has an area of 5904 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 736,807, a decrease of 20 per cent. from that of 1871, due to the famine of 1876-78. Elevated on the east slope of the West Ghats, Bellary has an extremely dry climate. Iron, copper, lead, antimony, manganese, and alum are found; salt and sulphur are extracted from the soil. Cotton, oil-seeds, hemp, sugar-cane, are the chief products; there are manufactures of cotton and woollen goods, and salt, chintz-stamping, and iron-smelting.

Bellay, JOACHIM DU, a distinguished French poet and prose-writer, the exact date of whose birth is unknown, though an attempt has been made to prove that it happened in 1525, 'as a compensation from nature to France for the battle of Pavia.' He was, next to Ronsard, the most important member

of the famous group of writers known as the *Pléiade*, through whom the enthusiasm and culture of the Renaissance were turned into the channel of French poetry. His *Défence et Illustration de la Langue Française* (1549), in which the aims of the *Pléiade* were explained and vindicated, marks an epoch in French literature. In this work Du Bellay maintained that French prose should be modelled as closely as might be on the Greek and Latin masterpieces; that the earlier French poetry should be set aside as trivial and shapeless; that French verse-writers should therefore seek to reproduce the classic stateliness of rhythm and diction in new metrical forms, such as the ode and the sonnet, adopted from their Latin and Italian predecessors. The book contributed greatly to the success of the literary revolution which was effected by the *Pléiade* (see the article *PLÉIADE*). In 1549 Du Bellay published a collection of sonnets which led to a brief quarrel with Ronsard on the question of priority in a new field of poetry. He went to Rome as secretary to his relative, the Cardinal du Bellay; but a diplomatic career proved to be uncongenial to him, and he had lost the cardinal's favour and fallen into difficulties before his death in 1560. His poems include a series of sonnets addressed to one *Made-moiselle de Viole*; *Regrets*, *Jeux Rustiques*, and *Les Antiquités de Rome*, translated by Spenser under the title of the *Ruins of Rome*. His verses give singularly graceful expression to the mood, at once pensive and pleasure-loving, which is a characteristic of most writers of the French Renaissance. A few of his poems among them his best-known piece, the charming *L'anneau*—have been admirably translated by Mr A. Lang in *Ballads and Lyrics of Old France* (1872). The best edition of Du Bellay is that of Marty-Lavaeux (1866-67). See also Pater's *Studies in the Renaissance*.

Bell-bird (*Chasmorhynchus*), one of the chattering (*Cotingidae*), found in some of the warm parts of South America, remarkable for the metallic resonance of its cry, which resembles the tolling of a bell, with pauses varying from a minute to several minutes. It is about the size of a jay; the beak is very broad, flat, and wide in its gape; the neck and cheeks are naked. The male is of snow-white plumage, and from his forehead rises a spiral tubular appendage nearly three inches in height when fully erected. The exact anatomical relations of the excrescence are not known. He generally takes his place on the top of a lofty tree, and his tolling can be heard to the distance of three miles. It resounds through the forest, not only at morning and evening, but also at mid-day, when the heat of the blazing sun has imposed silence on almost every other creature. The female is smaller, and brightly coloured. Four species are known.

Bell, Book, and Candle. 'To curse by bell, book, and candle,' is a common phrase referring to a form of excommunication in the Church of Rome, which closed with the words, 'Do to the book, quench the candle, ring the bell.'

Belle-Alliance, the name given by the Prussians to the battle of Waterloo (q.v.), from a farm occupied by the centre of the French army.

Belle de Nuit (Fr., 'beauty of the night'), a name sometimes given to the Marvel of Peru (*Mirabilis jalapa*), sometimes also to certain tropical American and West Indian species of *Convolvulaceae*, with extremely beautiful and fragrant flowers, which open only during the night.

Bellegarde, a second-class fortress of France, in the department of Pyrénées-Orientales, built by Louis XIV. in 1679. It is situated on the Spanish confines on the road leading over the Col de Pertuis from Perpignan to Figueras.

Belle Isle, a British island in the Atlantic, about midway between the NW. of Newfoundland and the eastern point of Labrador. About 21 miles in circumference, it is chiefly known as giving name to the adjacent strait on the south-west, which, with a length of 70 miles, and a greatest breadth of 11 miles, separates Labrador from Newfoundland, and forms the most northerly of the three channels between the Gulf of St Lawrence and the open ocean.—There is another small island of the same name in the Bay of Concepcion, Newfoundland.

Belleisle, CHARLES LOUIS AUGUSTE FOUQUET, DUC DE, marshal of France, born in 1684 at Villefranche, in Aveyron, was the grandson of the intendant Fouquet. He early distinguished himself in the wars in Italy and the Low Countries against Spain, and afterwards in Poland. In the war of the Austrian succession, he stormed Prague in 1741, and in the following year conducted the marvellously skilful retreat to Eger. In 1757 he was made war minister, and as such introduced important improvements in the French service, reforming the promotion and camp-discipline, and increasing the military schools. He died January 26, 1761, the last of his house.

Belleisle-en-Mer, a French island in the Atlantic, 8 miles S. of Quiberon Point, in the department of Morbihan. It has an extreme length and breadth of 11 and 7 miles, and an area of 330 sq. m. Pop. (1886) 10,219, chiefly engaged in fishing. Salt is made along the shores, and good pastures are found in the interior. The chief town is Le Palais (pop. 2980), a seaport and fortified place. In the 16th century, the monks of Quimperlé ceded it to Charles IX., who gave it to the Marshal de Retz, that he might fortify it. His successor sold the island in 1658 to Fouquet, intendant of finance, who further improved and strengthened it. His grandson, the celebrated Marshal Belleisle, ceded the island to Louis XV. in exchange for the Comté (Gisors) (1718). It was captured in 1761 by the English fleet under Keppel, but restored in 1763.

Bellenden (BALLANTYNE), JOHN, of Moray, a Scottish writer in the reigns of James V. and Queen Mary, was born towards the close of the 15th century, and in 1508 matriculated at St Andrews as 'of the Lothian nation.' He completed his education at Paris, where he took the degree of D.D. at the Sorbonne. Bellenden is best remembered by his translation of Boece's *Historia gentis Scotorum*, and of the first five books of Livy (both done in 1533), interesting as specimens of the Scottish prose of that period, and remarkable for the ease and vigour of their style. To each of these works are prefixed poetical *prohemies* or prologues. Bellenden's *Croniklis of Scotland* professes to be a translation of Boece, but it is a very free one, and contains numerous passages not to be found in the original, so that it is in some respects to be considered almost an original work. The author enjoyed great favour for a long time at the court of James, at whose request he executed the translations. As the reward of his performances, he received grants of considerable value from the treasury, and afterwards was made archdeacon of Moray and canon of Ross. Becoming involved, however, in ecclesiastical controversy, he left his country, and, according to Bale and Dempster, went to Rome, where he died about 1550, or as late as 1587. The 'translation' of Livy was first published in 1822 by Mr Thomas Maitland (afterwards Lord Dundrennan), uniform with his edition of the *Croniklis* in the previous year.

Bellenden, WILLIAM, a Scottish author, who was born, it would seem, at Lasswade, about 1555,

and who died about 1633. Most likely a Catholic, he was a professor in the university, and an advocate in the parliament, of Paris, and was employed in that city in a diplomatic capacity by Queen Mary, and also by her son, who about 1610 conferred on him the appointment of Master of Requests. His *Ciceronis Princeps* (1608), *Ciceronis Consul, Senator, Populusque Romanus* (1612), and *De Statu Prisci Orbis* (1615), he republished in 1616 under the title *De Statu Libritres*. His crowning labour was *De Tribus Luminibus Romanorum* (1634), the 'three luminaries' being Cicero, Seneca, and Pliny, out of whose works he intended to compile, on the same plan as his previous works, a comprehensive digest of the civil and religious history, and the moral and physical science, of the Romans. 'Bellenden,' says Hallam, 'seems to have taken a more comprehensive view of history, and to have reflected more philosophically on it, than perhaps any one had done before.' His works furnished the materials for Middleton's *Life of Cicero*. Warton first denounced the theft, which was afterwards made clear by Dr Parr in his edition of the *De Statu* (1787).

Bellerophon (originally called HIPPOPHOS) was the son of the Corinthian king Glaucus, and Eurymede, daughter of Sisyphus. Other accounts make Neptune his father. Having accidentally killed the Corinthian Bellerus, he fled to his relative Proetus, king of Argos, whose wife, Antea, fell in love with the young hero. He rejected her offers, whereupon in revenge she poisoned her husband's mind against his guest. Proetus sent him to his father-in-law, Iobates, king of Lycia, with a sealed message, asking Iobates to cause the youth to be slain. The latter, reluctant to do so directly, imposed upon Bellerophon the seemingly impossible task of slaying the formidable Chimera (q.v.). Mounted on the winged steed Pegasus (given to him by Pallas), the hero ascended into the air, and succeeded in slaying the monster with his arrows. He was next sent against the Amazons, whom he also defeated. On his way home he destroyed an ambush of Lycians, set by Iobates for his destruction. That monarch now thought it useless to attempt his death, and, as a sort of recompense, gave the hero in marriage his daughter Philonoë, by whom he had three children—Isander, Hippolochus, and Laodameia. Homer relates that he at last drew on himself the hatred of the gods, and wandered lonely through the Aleian field. Pindar relates that Bellerophon on Pegasus endeavoured to mount to Olympus, when the steed, maddened by Jove through the agency of a gadfly, threw his rider, who was stricken with blindness. Bellerophon was a favourite subject in ancient art. His story was dramatised by Sophocles in *Iobates*, and by Euripides in *Steneboea* and *Bellerophontes*, but not one of the three has come down to us.

Bellerophon, an extinct genus of molluscs, known as an abundant fossil. The shell is spirally coiled in one plane, and the outer margin has a deep notch. About 300 species are known, persisting from the Cambrian to the Carboniferous



Bellerophon tangentialis.

strata. Bellerophon has been banded about from one division of molluscs to another. Montfort, who established the genus, placed it among cepha-

lopods; till lately it was regarded as a heteropod; now it is placed among fissorbranch gastropods, not far from the common ear-shell, and nearer the family Pleurotomariidae.

Belles-lettres, a term adopted from the French into the English and various other languages. It is commonly used in a somewhat general sense to designate the more elegant or refined departments of literature. In English usage it is synonymous with another vague expression, *polite literature*, including history, poetry and the drama, fiction, essays, and criticism.

Belleville, an eastern suburb or outlying section of Paris, now inclosed by the line of fortifications. It is largely inhabited by the poorest class of workmen, and is notable as a centre of Communistic agitation.

Belleville, a thriving town in the province of Ontario, Canada, situated on the Bay of Quinte, Lake Ontario, 48 miles W. of Kingston by rail. It is the seat of Albert University, founded in 1857. Pop. (1881) 9516.

Belleville, a city of Illinois, U.S., situated in a productive region, 16 miles SE. of St Louis, with coal-beds in the vicinity. Two railways intersect here; and there are manufactures of iron goods, thrashing-machines, and flour. Pop. (1871) 8146; (1881) 10,683, of which a large proportion is German.

Belley, a town in the French department of Ain, 40 miles E. of Lyons. It has a cathedral dating from 889, and fine lithographing stones are procured in the neighbourhood. Pop. 5221.

Bell-flower. See CAMPANULA.

Bellingham. See PERCEVAL.

Belli'ni, the name of a Venetian family which produced several remarkable painters. The earliest was JACOPO BELLINI, who died in 1470. He was a pupil of the celebrated Gentile da Fabriano, and was the first to bring to Venice the skill of Florence. Most of his pictures have perished.—His elder son, GENTILE BELLINI (born probably in 1424; died 1507), was distinguished as a portrait-painter, and also for his processional groups, with fine architectural perspective. Along with his brother, he was commissioned to decorate the council-chamber of the Venetian senate. Mohammed II., having by accident seen some of his works, invited Gentile to Constantinople, employed him to execute various historical works, and dismissed him laden with presents. The 'Preaching of St Mark' is his most famous achievement.—His more celebrated brother, GIOVANNI BELLINI (born about 1428; died 1516), was the founder of the older Venetian school of painting, and contributed greatly to its progress. His works are marked at first by a somewhat hard manner and severe drawing, due to the influence of his brother-in-law, Andrea Mantegna, but gradually increase in warmth and tenderness to the very last. His best works are altar-pieces and devotional pictures, and these rank among the noblest products of the religious art of the world. Besides several examples in Venice and Naples, his 'Circumcision,' now at Castle Howard, his gorgeous 'Feast of the Gods,' at Alnwick Castle, and his 'Blood of the Redeemer,' acquired in 1887 for the National Gallery, are well known. Among his numerous pupils the most distinguished were Giorgione and Titian.

Belli'ni, VINCENZO, operatic composer, was born at Catania, in Sicily, November 3, 1802. An organist's son, he was sent by a Sicilian nobleman to the Conservatorio of Naples, and there was instructed in composition by Tritto and Zingarelli. His two earliest operas were *Adelson e Salvini* (1824) and *Bianca e Fernando* (1826); the latter

had such success that in 1827 he was commissioned to write a piece for La Scala at Milan. The splendid rendering of this opera, *Il Pirata*, immediately carried the composer's name beyond Italy, and for the short remainder of his life fresh operas appeared almost every year, and were received with unstinted applause by the musical world. Worthy of mention are *I Capuleti ed i Montecchi* (1830); *La Sonnambula* (1831); and *Norma* (1832), Bellini's best and most popular work. In 1833 the composer went to Paris, where he became acquainted with other forms of music beside the Italian. He was received with great applause in London, whither he had accompanied the famous Pasta, for whom he had written *La Sonnambula*. After his return to Paris, he wrote his opera *I Puritani* (1834), which shows the influence of the French school of music, but without servile imitation. At an early age, before the composer had fully developed his powers, his career was cut short by death at his villa in Puteaux, near Paris, 21st September 1835. Bellini was the most genial and original of all the followers of Rossini. His compositions are entirely devoid of either dramatic vigour or musical depth, but, even in their sometimes monotonous melancholy, display such irresistible sweetness as must insure their popularity so long as pleasing tunes and rich melodies are appreciated. See Pouglin, *Bellini, sa Vie, ses Œuvres* (Paris, 1868), and Hiller's *Künstlerleben* (Cologne, 1880).

Bellinzo'na, or BELLENZ, the chief town of the Swiss canton of Ticino, on the left bank of the river Ticino, 109 miles SSE. of Lucerne by rail. It has still its three old castles, which, with their towers and battlements, give the place a very mediæval appearance, but of which only two are now fortified, the third serving as a house of correction. Pop. (1880) 2436, mostly Italian-speaking.

Bellis. See DAISY.

Bello'na, the goddess of war among the Romans, probably a Sabine divinity, was described by the poets as the companion, sister, or wife of Mars, and was represented as armed with a bloody scourge, and as inspiring her votaries with a restless enthusiasm in battle. During the war with the Samnites, 296 B.C., the consul Appius Claudius vowed a temple to Bellona, which was erected afterwards in the Campus Martius. In this temple the senate gave audience to embassies from foreign powers, and also to returning consuls, whose claims to a triumph and entrance into the city would have been nullified. The priests of the goddess were styled *Bellonarii*, and at their mystic festivals, especially on the 'day of blood' (March 20), used to gash their own arms and shoulders, and thus to offer their blood.

Bellot, JOSEPH RENÉ, Arctic explorer, was born in Paris, 18th March 1826. A lieutenant in the French navy, he served with distinction in the French expedition against Tananarive in 1845, and in May 1851 he joined the expedition in search of Sir John Franklin, sent out by Lady Franklin. Distinguished by his noble daring and spirit of enterprise, he took part in several explorations; in one of which he discovered Bellot Strait. He perished in the expedition under Captain Inglefield, 21st March 1853. His *Journal* was edited by Lemer at Paris in 1854 (Eng. trans. 1855).

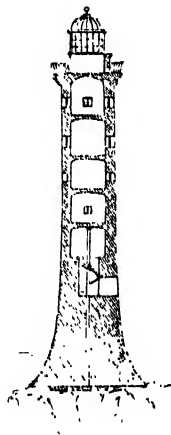
Bellot Strait, the passage on the north coast of North America which separates North Somerset from Boothia Felix, and connects Prince Regent Inlet with Franklin Channel. Its east entrance was discovered in 1852 by Lieutenant Bellot. After four unsuccessful attempts, it was explored for the first time by McClintock on his crowning voyage. It is about 20 miles long, and, at its

narrowest part, about 1 mile wide, running pretty nearly on the parallel of 72°, between granite shores which, everywhere high, rise here and there to 1500 or 1600 feet. Through this funnel both the winds and the waters have full play; the latter, permanent currents and flood-tides alike, coming from the west. A point on the south shore, 71° 55' N., 95° W., is the most northerly point of the North American continent.

Bellows. See BLOWING MACHINES.

Belloy, PIERRE LAURENT BUIRETTE DE, one of the first French dramatists who ventured to introduce on the stage native instead of classical heroes. He was born at St Flour, in Auvergne, in 1727, and educated for the law; but the seductions of the stage proved irresistible, and under the name of Dormont he played for some years at St Petersburg and other northern cities. In 1758 he returned to France to superintend the bringing out of his tragedy *Titus*, trusting that its success would reconcile his family to him. In this, however, he was disappointed, for the piece proved a failure, being only a feeble imitation of Metastasio, and he returned to St Petersburg. In 1762 he again visited France, and obtained a decided success by his tragedy of *Zelmire*. It was followed by *Le Siège de Calais* (1765), *Gaston et Bayard* (1771), and *Pierre le Cruel* (1772). He died at Paris, 5th March 1775. His collected works were edited by Gaillard in 6 vols. in 1779; a selection by Anger in 2 vols. appeared in 1811.

Bell Rock, or INCHCAPE, a reef of old red sandstone rocks in the German Ocean, 12 miles SE. of Arbroath, and nearly opposite the mouth of the Tay. The reef is 2000 feet long; at high water of spring-tides it is covered to a depth of 16 feet, at low water is partly uncovered to a height of 4 feet; and for 100 yards around, the sea is only 3 fathoms deep. It was formerly a fruitful cause of shipwreck, and, according to tradition, the abbot of Aberbrothock (Arbroath) placed a bell on it, 'fixed upon a tree or timber, which rung continually, being moved by the sea, giving notice to the sailors of the danger.' This tradition has been embodied by Southey in his well-known ballad of *The Inchcape Rock*. A lighthouse, 120 feet high, designed by Robert Stevenson and Rennie, was erected in 1807-10, at a cost of £61,331.



Section of Bell Rock Lighthouse.

Belluno (the ancient *Bellunum*), a cathedral city of Venetia, Northern Italy, finely situated on the right bank of the Piave, 42 miles N. of Treviso. It is the capital of a province. Pop. (1881) 5190.

Beloit, a city of Wisconsin, U.S., on Rock River, 75 miles SW. of Milwaukee by rail. It has a college (1847), several flour and paper mills, foundries, and manufactories of agricultural implements, &c. Pop. (1870) 4396; (1880) 4790.

Belon, PIERRE, a French naturalist, born in 1518 at Soulletière in Maine, studied medicine at Paris, and in 1546 set out on a journey to Greece, Asia Minor, Egypt, and Arabia. He returned in 1549, and in 1553 published the results of his travels. In April 1564 he was murdered by robbers whilst gathering herbs at a late hour of the evening.

in the Bois de Boulogne. Besides his book of travels, Belon wrote several valuable treatises on trees, herbs, birds, and fishes. He was one of the first who established the homologies between the skeletons of different vertebrates; he planted the first cedar in France; and he formed two botanical gardens more than a century before the creation of the Jardin des Plantes. A statue of him was unveiled at Le Mans in October 1887.

Belone. See GARFISH.

Belper, a market-town of Derbyshire, on the Derwent, 7½ miles N. of Derby. It owes its prosperity to the cotton-works of Messrs Strutt, one of whom was in 1856 created Lord Belper. The manufacture of silk and cotton hosiery is also largely carried on; but nail-making has declined. Pop. (1851) 10,082; (1881) 9875.

Belsham, THOMAS, a Unitarian theologian, was born at Bedford, 26th April 1750. The son of a dissenting minister and of a granddaughter of the first Earl of Anglesey, he was educated a Calvinist, and became pastor of an Independent congregation at Worcester in 1778, and head of the theological academy at Daventry in 1781. These offices he resigned in 1789, on embracing Unitarian views, and shortly after received the charge of a new theological academy at Hackney, which collapsed for want of funds in 1796. Before its extinction he succeeded Priestley in his pastoral charge of the Gravel-pit Unitarian Chapel, Hackney, and from 1805 till his death, 11th November 1829, filled the pulpit of Essex Street Chapel. Most of his numerous works are controversial. His doctrine regarding the person of Christ represents the purely 'humanitarian' view, as distinguished from the more nearly Arian sentiments of men like Channing. He published also *Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind* (1801); a memoir of his predecessor, Theophilus Lindsey (1812; centenary edition, 1873); *The Improved Version of the New Testament* (1808); and the *Epistles of Paul translated* (4 vols. 1822). See his *Life* by Williams (1833).—His brother, WILLIAM (1752–1827), was an active and voluminous writer of history and political tracts on the side of the Whigs. His principal work, written in a liberal spirit, and in a clear and simple style, was his *History of Great Britain to the Conclusion of the Peace of Amiens* (12 vols. 1806).

Belshazzar, the name of a Babylonian prince mentioned in the book of Daniel as the last Chaldean king of Babylon, slain at the capture of the city by the Medes and Persians. No ancient historian mentions his name as one of the successors of Nebuchadnezzar, but the Babylonian cuneiform inscriptions give the name Bel-sar-azar as that of the son of Nabonidus, the last king of Babylon (555–538 B.C.), and one of his later inscriptions gives ground for the inference that the son was associated with his father on the throne. According to the book of Daniel he had a divine intimation of his impending fate in the words written by an invisible hand upon the wall, *Mene, Mene, Tekel, Upharsin* (lit. 'numbered, numbered, weighed, and divisions').

Belt, the name given to two straits, the GREAT and the LITTLE BELT, which, with the Sound, connect the Baltic with the Cattegat. The GREAT BELT, nearly 40 miles in length, and varying in breadth from about 10 to nearly 20 miles, divides the Danish islands, Zealand and Lolland, from Fünen and Langeland. The LITTLE BELT divides the island of Fünen from Jutland. It is equal in length to the Great Belt, but much narrower. Its greatest breadth is about 10 miles, but it gradually narrows towards the north, until at the fort of Frederica it is less than a mile wide; thus the

passage from the Cattegat into the Baltic is here easily commanded. Both the Belts are dangerous to navigation on account of numerous sand-banks and strong currents; and therefore, for large vessels, the passage by the Sound (q.v.) is preferred.

Bel'tane, BELTEIN, or BEALTAINN, the name of a heathen festival once common to all the Celtic nations, and traces of which have survived to the present day. The name is derived from *tin* or *teine*, fire, and *beal*; *Beil* is understood to be the name of a god not directly connected with the Asiatic Belus, but a deity of light peculiar to the Celts, appearing as Belinus in Ausonius, Tertullian, and numerous inscriptions. The great festival of this worship among the Celtic nations was held in the beginning of May, but there seems to have been a somewhat similar observance in the beginning of November—the beginning and the end of summer. On such occasions, all the fires in the district were extinguished; the *needfire* was then kindled with great solemnity, and from this sacrificial fire the domestic hearths were rekindled.

The earliest mention of the beltane is found in Cormac, Archbishop of Cashel in the beginning of the 10th century. Two fires were lighted side by side, and to pass unhurt between them was wholesome for men and cattle. Traces of this usage existed in the Scottish Highlands even in the 19th century, and it is more than probable that the leaping through the flames which was then practised was a survival of a time when sacrifices of animals and even of human beings were thus offered. At Carnac, in Brittany, and in the Irish South Isles of Aran to the present day, the domestic animals are driven through the flames, and thus obtain immunity from accident and disease throughout the year.

Some scholars have striven to identify the worship of the Celtic Beal with that of the Baal or Bel of the Phœnicians and other Semitic nations. It is unnecessary, however, to go beyond the family of nations to which the Celts belong in order to find analogies either for the name or the thing. Grimm identifies the Celtic Beal not only with the Slavonic *Belbog* or *Bjlbog* (*bel* or *bjel*, 'white,' *bog*, 'a god'), but also with the Scandinavian and Teutonic Balder or Paltar, whose name appears under the form of *Baldag* ('the white or bright day'), and who appears to have been also extensively worshipped under the name of *Phol* or *Pol*. The universality all over Europe in heathen times of the worship of these personifications of the sun and of light through the kindling of fires and other rites, still finds a survival in the periodical lighting of *bonfires*. The more marked turning-points of the seasons would naturally determine the times of these festivals. The two solstices at midwinter and midsummer, and the beginning and end of summer, would be among the chief seasons. The periods of observance, which varied, no doubt, originally, more or less in different places, were still further disturbed by the introduction of Christianity. Unable to extirpate these rites, the church sought to Christianise them by associating them with rites of her own, and for this purpose either appointed a church-festival at the time of the heathen one, or endeavoured to shift the time of the heathen observance to that of an already fixed church-festival. All over the south of Germany, the great bonfire celebration was held at midsummer (*Johannifeyer*), a relic, probably, of the sun-festival of the summer solstice: throughout the north of Germany, it was held at Easter. It is probable that this fire-festival (*Osterfeuer*) of Ostara—a principal deity among the Saxons and Angles—had been originally held on the 1st of

May, and was shifted so as to coincide with the church-festival now known as Easter.

In Great Britain, St John's Eve was celebrated with bonfires; and Easter had its fire-rites, which, although incorporated in the service of the Roman Catholic Church, were clearly of heathen origin. But the great day for bonfires in the British islands was the 1st of November. Fewer traces of this are found in other countries, and therefore we must look upon it as more peculiarly Celtic.

Belts and Belting. Flexible belts for the transmission of motion in machinery are made of leather, india-rubber, cotton, woven hair, gutta-percha and canvas, and other materials. In so limited a time, indeed, as the three years ending with 1886, patents have been taken out for making belting of most of the well-known textile fibres, including flax, cotton, esparto, reed, and some kinds of wool or hair. Sometimes two or more of these are combined along with wire.

The valuable qualities in a belt are: (1) Proper grip of the surface of the pulley. (2) Strength or capacity to resist strain. (3) Non liability to stretch. (4) Durability. Those tanned with oak bark are the most lasting of leather belts, but much excellent belting is made from leather tanned with other substances, such as the bark of the American hemlock spruce. In order to secure uniformity of stretch, so that a belt will run straight, the strips from the tanned hide require to be cut out and combined with much judgment. These strips are prepared by being stretched by powerful machinery to the utmost tension they will stand without injuring the fibre. They are afterwards joined by riveting, lacing, or cementing and lacing, in such a way as to present an even surface to the pulley. One of the largest leather belts yet constructed was made for a paper-mill at Wilmington, Delaware. It was 186 feet long, 5 feet wide, and weighed 2212 lb. A portion of an English belt almost as large as this was exhibited at Manchester in 1887. Belts 4 feet wide are now not uncommon in America. Experiments made in America show that a belt will transmit about 30 per cent. more power with a given tension when the grain or smooth side of the leather is in contact with the pulley than when the flesh side is turned inward. Carefully made leather belts have been known to last in daily use more than thirty years.

What is called leather chain belting, or leather link belting, is formed of short pieces or links of leather joined together by metal rivets. It is employed for driving dynamos for electric lighting, and for other purposes. Solid woven hair belting is similarly used.

India-rubber belting is formed of several plies of cotton duck or canvas, each overspread with rubber composition, and then subjected to a vulcanising heat. This kind of belting is used to a larger extent in the United States than in Great Britain. It is less easily repaired than leather belting, but rubber bands can be made with only one joint, or even without any joint, which is the weak part of a belt. Rubber belting is easily injured by contact with almost any kind of oil.

Cotton belting, of which there are several varieties, some being waterproof, is now a good deal used both in England and in America.

The following are the breaking strains per square inch of section of several kinds of belts:

Best Leather Belting.....	3,360 lb.
Stout Stitched Cotton Belting.....	6,800 "
Solid Woven Cotton Belting.....	10,420 "
Superior India-rubber Belting.....	4,000 "

Rubber belting varies very much in strength, according to the quality of the canvas or duck used in its manufacture.

The safe working tension of leather belting does not exceed 330 lb. per square inch of section, or about 41 lb. per inch in width of belting $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch in thickness. The other kinds also require a large factor of safety.

The extensive use of belting in place of toothed gear-wheels has long been a feature in American engineering, but a preference for driving belts on account of the reduction of jar and noise, facility of adaptation, immunity from accident, and other advantages, has for some time been extending in other countries. It should be added that ropes are now frequently used where belting was formerly employed. See TRANSMISSION OF POWER.

Belu'chistán, or BALUCHISTAN, a country of Southern Asia, bounded on the N. by Afghanistan, on the E. by Sind, on the S. by the Arabian Sea, and on the W. by the Persian province of Kerman. The frontier towards Afghanistan is seldom anywhere clearly defined, but that towards India is more carefully laid down. Beluchistan, which has a coast-line of over 500 miles, corresponds in general with the ancient Gedrosia, excepting that the latter name appears to have extended to the Indus, while the former nowhere reaches that river. The area is about 100,000 sq. m., and the pop. is estimated at some 400,000. Though it was anciently a part of Persia, yet its modern relations connect it rather with India, more particularly since Sind and Multan have fallen under the dominion of the English. In the bygone ages, the Beluchi Desert formed a barrier for the Lower Indus, constraining every assailant from Alexander downwards to prefer the less barren, though perhaps more rugged route through Afghanistan into the Punjab—a preference strengthened by Alexander's direful experience in returning from the Indus along the coast. Until 1810 Beluchistan was almost entirely a *terra incognita* to Europeans. Most of the country indeed is still unknown, but it has been crossed by several travellers; and the laying of the Indo-Afghan Railway (completed to Quetta, March 1887) through the 90 miles of desert in the north-east, as well as the surveys of the Indo-European Telegraph Company in the south, have established its general features. The surface is generally mountainous, more especially towards the north, where branches of the great Suliman Range, running north and south, rise to a height of 12,000 feet. The ranges in the south generally run east and west, parallel with the coast, and the longitudinal valleys between form the principal thoroughfares, there being no regular routes in the country except those through the Bolan and Mula passes to Quetta and Kelát. Even the bottoms of some of the valleys have an elevation of 5700 feet; and the capital, Kelát, situated on the side of one of them, is 6783 feet above the level of the sea. Large deserts, rendered impassable in summer by sandstorms, and swept in winter by numbing, piercing winds, occupy hundreds of square miles of the country; and the rivers—unless after heavy rains, when those in the north-east frequently inundate great tracts of country—are inconsiderable, few of the streams in the south appearing to be perennial at all. The west is largely a land of drought, with stretches of sand varied by bare hills and treeless valleys. The temperature is one of striking and sudden extremes, 125° F. in the shade having been registered on the coast even in March, although at Kelát, in February, water has been observed to freeze as it was poured on the ground. The pastures, as may be supposed, are poor, so that there are few cattle; sheep, however, as well as mountain goats and antelopes, are numerous. The camel is the ordinary beast of burden; but in the north-west, towards Kerman, serviceable horses, with a marked strain of Arab blood, are bred.

The wild animals include the tiger, leopard, wolf, hyena, ape, wild ass, &c., and fish in great quantities are caught off the coast. Wherever there is a sufficiency of water the soil is productive—the lowlands yielding rice, sugar, cotton, indigo, and tobacco; and the higher grounds, wheat, barley, madder, maize, and pulse. The mountains are bare at the top, and their slopes are scantily wooded as a rule; but in the valleys the almond, olive, and peach grow wild, and even the deserts furnish a useful brushwood. The gardens produce excellent fruits of all sorts, and in the sandy coast-district of Mekran the date is carefully cultivated. The minerals are gold, silver, copper, lead, antimony, iron, tin, sulphur, alum, and sal-ammoniac, and in 1887 valuable petroleum wells were discovered in the north; the manufactures are chiefly confined to carpets, tent-covers of goat's and camel's hair, and rude firearms. The only town is the capital, Kelât (q.v.), with (including suburbs) about 14,000 inhabitants, an old citadel, and a number of badly-built and very dirty houses. There are no seaports, the fishing-villages in the south being mere collections of wretched hovels; but along the surf-beaten, sandy cliffs of the coast some sheltered headsteads are found. The best of these are Sonmiani Bay, Homara, and Gwadar, the last having a fort and a telegraph station. There is an insignificant inland trade, chiefly monopolised by Hindus, the towns having their commercial exit at Kurrachee, in Sind.

The inhabitants belong to the distinct races of Brahui and Beluchis. The former are the dominant as well as the aboriginal race, and are hospitable and generous; the latter, a hungry, needy, greedy people, are largely nomadic, and form the bulk of the rural population. Opinions are widely divided as to the origin of the Brahui, many assuming their kinship with the Dravidians of Southern India, although apparently on insufficient grounds. Their language presents no marked affinities, but appears to contain many ancient Hindu words, and echoes the accent of the Punjab dialect. In appearance they are short, sturdy, and strongly built, with round, flat faces, and brown hair. Their dress is a coarse calico tunic, with trousers fastened at the ankles, and a skull-cap with sash of the same colour. The Beluchis are of Iranian descent, with a mingling of Tartar blood, and their language closely resembles the modern Persian; they are both numerically smaller and a more recent element than the Brahui. They are tall, with longer and more prominent features, and are brave, but restless and prone to predatory warfare, in which they frequently show themselves senselessly cruel. Their dress is distinguished from that of the ruling race by a turban and wider trousers not confined at the ankles. The women's attire is very much the same as the men's. Both races are inured to extremes of heat and cold, and are capable of considerable exertion; but the normal life of the Beluchis, at least, is one of laziness and indulgence, broken only by hunting, racing, and athletic contests, although Mr Floyer testifies that he found the Mekrani shrewd, merry fellows, willing to work, and priding themselves on their politeness and integrity. A Beluchi warrior carries a formidable armoury of weapons, comprising either a flint-lock musket or a spear, with sword, dagger, and shield. Both races are Mohammedans of the Sunni sect, but the teaching of the Koran is confused with numberless superstitious beliefs, and polygamy is said to be universal. Besides these two races, there are colonies of Persian decent called Dehwars ('villagers'), who form a vassal class, and the Luri, a sort of Gipsies of possibly Indian origin, who are scattered in single families all over the country. Beluchistan is, in a

somewhat indefinite manner, under the authority of the khan of Kelât, who, with a revenue of about £30,000, maintains an army of 3000 men. This petty sovereign having acted treacherously towards the British during the Afghan campaign of 1839, his royal city was taken by storm. In 1841 it was again captured, for temporary occupation, by the British. In 1877 England obtained by treaty with the khan the right of permanently occupying Quetta (which was annexed, with his consent, in 1887), and of having a political agent at Kelât; and the khan practically became a feudatory of the Indian empire, and placed his territory at the disposal of the British government for all military and strategical purposes, gaining by its moral support a prestige that has made his authority more respected by the semi-independent chiefs of the pastoral tribes who inhabit the seven provinces into which, following its physical features, the country is divided.—See Bellew's *From the Indus to the Tigris* (Lond. 1874), and the works on Beluchistan by Hughes (1877), Macgregor (1882), and Floyer (1882).

BRITISH BELUCHISTAN is a chief-commissionership of British India, so constituted in 1887, out of the districts of Pishin, Thal Chotiali, and Sibi, in South-eastern Afghanistan, which had been administered by the British since the war of 1878-81.

Belu'ga, or WHITE WHALE (*Beluga* or *Delphinapterus leucas*), one of the dolphin family, closely related to the narwhal. The body is from 12 to 16 feet in length, of graceful proportions, and remarkable for its creamy-white colour, and for the absence of a dorsal fin, which is represented only by a slight ridge. The flippers are short; the head is arched, and sinks abruptly to the short rounded snout; the teeth are small and conical, comparatively few in number (8 to 10 on each half-jaw), somewhat distant from one another, absent posteriorly, and often falling out in the adults. It is a markedly gregarious animal, associating in droves of both sexes. The female shows great solicitude for her young. These are at first of a bluish-gray colour. The white whales feed on fishes, which they often follow far up the rivers—e.g. the St Lawrence and the Amur. According to Eschricht, they also eat cuttle-fishes. They are fearless sportive animals, and have been successfully kept in aquaria. Their headquarters are round Greenland, but they occur all over the Arctic seas, often going as far south as the St Lawrence. They only rarely appear on British coasts. The Greenlanders capture them in the fiords by means of strong nets, or by harpooning, though the comparatively soft skin often fails to retain the weapon. The flesh is largely eaten, the fat yields very fine oil, the skin is made into leather, and some of the internal membranes are also utilised. This name is also applied to a great Russian sturgeon (the Bielaga or Huso). See CETACEA, DOLPHIN, NARWHAL, WHALE.

Belur, a village of Mysore, 130 miles W. of Bangalore. Known in the Purânas as *Velapura*, locally regarded as the Southern Benares, it is the site of a celebrated temple. Pop. (1881) 2917.

Belus. See BAAL.

Belvedere (It., lit. 'fine view'), a raised turret or lantern on the top of a house, or a high summer-house in a garden or park, from which to look out on the surrounding country. A part of the Vatican in Rome is known as the Belvedere, and gives its name to the famous statue of Apollo (q.v.). The picture-gallery in the royal palace at Vienna bears the same name. Others are at Warsaw, Prague, and Weimar.

Belvedere (*Kochia salsola scoparia*), an annual belonging to the Chenopodiaceæ (q.v.), a native of

the middle and south of Europe. It has long been familiar in British gardens as an ornamental annual, not upon account of its flowers—for they have no beauty—but of its close pyramidal, rigid form, and numerous narrow leaves, which give it some resemblance to a miniature cypress-tree. It is hence sometimes called Summer Cypress.

Belvisia. See NAPOLEONA.

Belzo'ni, GIOVANNI BATTISTA, a famous traveller, was born, the son of a poor barber, at Padua in 1778. He was educated at Rome for the priesthood, but soon displayed a preference for mechanical science, and when the French republican troops took possession of the pontifical city, quitted his religious studies altogether. About the year 1800 he visited Holland, and in 1803 came to England. Six feet seven inches tall, for a time he gained a living by exhibiting feats of strength, at first in the streets, and afterwards at Astley's. At the same time, however, he continued his mechanical studies, and exhibited models of hydraulic engines in the large towns of the kingdom. After a sojourn of nine years in England, he went to Spain and Portugal in his capacity of theatrical athlete. From the Peninsula he passed to Malta, and thence to Egypt in 1815, on the invitation of Mehemet Ali, who wished him to construct a hydraulic machine for the irrigation of his gardens near Cairo. Although he succeeded in this undertaking, the design was abandoned by the pasha, and Belzoni was induced by the traveller Burckhardt and Mr Salt, the British consul, to direct his attention to the exploration of Egyptian antiquities. He threw himself with ardour into his new vocation. He removed the colossal bust of the so-called 'Young Memnon' from the neighbourhood of Thebes to Alexandria, and was the first who opened the temple of Abu-Simbel. In the valley of 'the tombs of the kings'—Bibân-el-Moluk—near Thebes, he discovered several important catacombs containing mummies, and among others, opened in 1817 the celebrated grotto-sepulchre of Seti I., from which he removed the splendid sarcophagus, now, along with the 'Young Memnon,' and other results of Belzoni's labours, in the British Museum. But his greatest undertaking was his opening of the second pyramid of Gizeh, supposed since Herodotus' time to contain no interior chamber. An attempt made on his life caused his departure from Egypt, but previously he made a journey along the coast of the Red Sea, and another to Lake Moeris and the Lesser Oasis, which he erroneously supposed to be that of Siwah (q.v.), in search of the ruins of the temple of Jupiter Ammon. In the course of his explorations he discovered the emerald mines of Zubara and the ruins of Berenice, the ancient commercial entrepôt between Europe and India. In 1819 he returned to Europe, and in 1821 published at London his *Narrative of Excavations in Egypt and Nubia*. In 1821 he opened in London a successful exhibition of his Egyptian antiquities, which he took to Paris in the following year. Becoming restless, he soon afterwards undertook a journey to Timbuktu, in Central Africa. At Benin he was attacked by dysentery, from which he died at Gato, December 3, 1823.

Bem, JOSEPH, a Polish leader of the Hungarian insurgents, was born in 1795 at Tarnov, in Galicia. After thirteen years' military service (1812-25), and after taking an active part in the Polish rebellion of 1830-31, he went to France, where he earned a livelihood by teaching mechanics and mnemonics. In 1848, having failed in an attempt to organise an insurrection in Vienna, he joined the Hungarians, and was intrusted with the command of the army of Transylvania, amounting to

10,000 men. He soon defeated the Austrians in several engagements, announcing his victory over the famous Ban Jellachich in the laconic despatch, *Bem Ban Bum* ('Bem has beaten the Ban'); and finally succeeded, in March 1849, in driving both them and their allies, the Russians, into Wallachia. He then proposed, by amnesties and general mild rule, to gain the adherence of the German and Slavonic population; but his propositions were not entertained by Kossuth and the Hungarian commissariat. After expelling the troops under Puchner from the Banat, Bem returned into Transylvania, where the Russians had defeated the Hungarians. Here he was defeated in a battle near Schässburg, where he was opposed to three times the number of his own troops. At Kossuth's request he now hastened into Hungary, and took part in the unfortunate battle near Temesvár. Retreating into Transylvania, he defended himself for some days against a vastly superior force, and then made his escape into Turkey, where he embraced, from political motives, the profession of Islam, and, as Amurat Pasha, obtained a command in the Turkish army. In February 1850 he was sent to Aleppo, where, after suppressing the sanguinary insurrection of the Arabs against the Christian population, he died of fever, December 10, 1850. Bem was distinguished as a general by promptness and courage, and his personal kindness made him popular with his followers.

Bembato'ka, BAY OF, a safe and commodious bay on the NW. coast of Madagascar, in 16° S. lat. and 46° E. long. The river Betsiboka, with the Ikiopa, drain into the bay; the former, which is about 300 miles long, is navigable for small steamers for about 90 miles. Mo'anga, on the north side of the bay, is the second town in the island, with about 14,000 inhabitants, Bembatoka being but a village.

Bembex (i.e. 'whirl'), a genus of solitary sand-wasps (Sphegidae), represented by numerous species in most parts of the world. They are roughly wasp-like in appearance, with broad heads and very large eyes, and make a loud buzz during their rapid flight. The female bembex burrows a hole in the sand, and there deposits her eggs, but before closing it up collects a store of flies, on which the larvæ at first subsist. See SAND-WASPS.

Bembo, PIETRO, one of the most celebrated Italian scholars of the 16th century, was born in Venice, May 20, 1470; having studied at Padua and Ferrara, he early devoted himself to polite literature. He edited the Italian poems of Petrarch, printed by Aldus in 1501, and the *Terzine* of Dante, 1502. In 1506 he proceeded to the court of Urbino, where he resided until 1512, then went to Rome, and was made secretary to Pope Leo X. On the death of that pope, Bembo returned to Padua, where he became a liberal patron of literature and the arts, as well as a prolific writer himself. In 1520 he accepted the office of historiographer to the republic of Venice, and was also appointed keeper of St Mark's Library. In 1539 Bembo, who had taken only the minor ecclesiastical orders, was unexpectedly presented with a cardinal's hat by Pope Paul III., who afterwards appointed him to the dioceses of Cubbio and Bergamo. He died January 18, 1547. Bembo united in his character all that is amiable. He was the restorer of good style in both Latin and Italian literature. His taste is said to have been so fastidious with regard to style, that he subjected each of his own writings to forty revisions previous to publication. Some of them are marred by the licentiousness of the time. Among his works may be mentioned the *Rerum Veneticarum Libri XII.* (Venice, 1551; Italian ed. 1552); his little

treatise on Italian prose, which marked an era in Italian grammar; *Gli Asolani*, a dialogue on Platonic love; *Rime*, a collection of sonnets and canzonets; and his Letters, Italian and Latin. His *Tutte Opere* were published at Venice in 4 vols. in 1729, and often since.

Bembridge Beds, a division of the Oligocene or Upper Eocene strata, resting on the St Helen's, and capped by the Hempstead series, are principally developed in the Isle of Wight. Edward Forbes arranged them in four divisions: (1) The upper marls and laminated gray clays, which form the basement bed of the 'black band,' the lowest member of the Hempstead series. They are distinguished by the abundance of *Melania turretissima*. (2) Unfossiliferous mottled clays, alternating with fossiliferous marls and clays, whose characteristic organisms are *Cerithium mutabile* and *Chama pulchra*. (3) The oyster-bed, consisting of greenish marl, and containing immense quantities of a species of oyster (*Ostrea rectensis*), accompanied with *Cerithia*, *Mytili*, and other marine mollusca. (4) The Bembridge limestone, generally a compact, pale-yellow, or cream-coloured limestone, but sometimes vesicular and concretionary, and containing occasionally siliceous or cherty bands. This is interstratified with shales and friable marls. All the beds are fossiliferous, containing numerous land and fresh-water shells. One bed is composed almost entirely of the remains of a little globular Paludina. Shells of *Lymnea* and *Planorbis* are abundant, and are accompanied with the spirally striated nautilus of two species of *Chara*, water-plants which have been well preserved because of the large quantity of lime which enters into their composition. In this division have been found the mammalian remains of the species of *Palaeotherium* (q.v.) and *Anoplotherium* (q.v.), which characterise the gypseous deposits of Montmartre.

Bemersyde, an estate with an old mansion, in Berwickshire, near the Tweed, 3½ miles E. of Melrose. It has been held since the 12th century by the Haigs, who form the subject of an excellent monograph by John Russell (Edin. 1881).

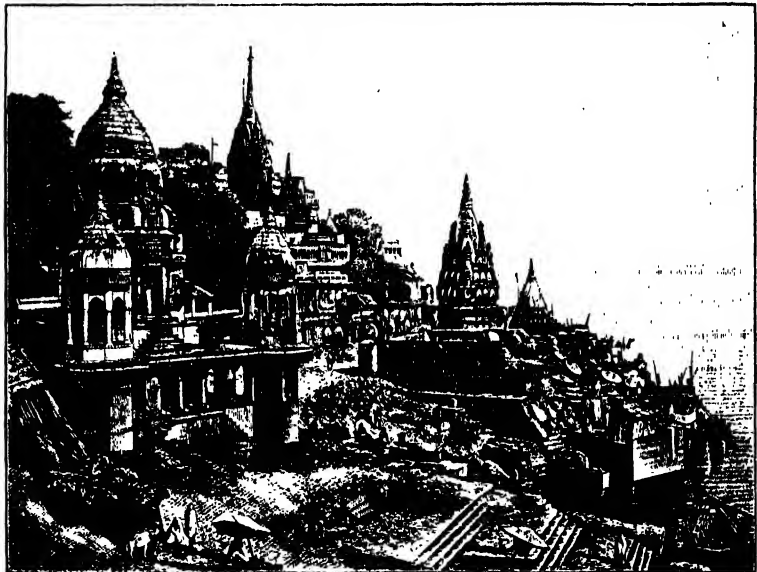
Ben (Heb. and Arab., 'son'), often used in connection with the father's name, to form Jewish and Arabic personal names, and consequently used, owing to the lack of family-names among the Semitic peoples, to form patronymics—thus Ali Ben Hassan = Ali, son of Hassan. The Hebrew form *Ben* is familiar to us from its use in Bible names—e.g. Benhadad, 'the son or worshipper of Hadad' or Adad, the chief idol of the Syrians; Benoni, 'son of my pain'; Benjamin, 'son of the right hand,' &c. Similarly, many Jews have formed with this prefix new family-names, as Benary = the son of Ari, analogous to English names in *-son*. The Arabs, Persians, and Turks often make the prefix into *Ibn* (*Ebn*); the Jews, under Arabic influ-

ences, *Aben*, *Aren*, as in Aben Esra. The plural, *Beni*, is found in the names of many Arab tribes—as Beni Omayyah, 'the sons of Omayyah,' the family known in history as the Omniades; and sometimes in the names of places—as Beni-Hassan (see BENI-ISRAEL). The corresponding word in Aramaic is *Bar*, as in Simon Bar-jona.

Ben, or BEINN, the Gaelic and Irish form (Welsh *Pen*) of a Celtic word signifying 'mountain' or 'mountain head.' It occurs, usually as a prefix, in the names of a great many mountains and places within the British Isles, as *Ben Nevis*, *Ben Macdlui*, *The Twelve Pins*, *Pennigant*, *Penzance*; and it appears in many continental names, as the *Pennine Alps*, the *Apennines*, and *Pindus*.

Ben, OIL OF, a fluid fixed oil, obtained from the seeds of a tree found in India and Arabia, and known as the Horse-radish Tree (*Moringa pterygosperma*). The seeds are called Ben Nuts, and are roundish, with three membranous wings. The oil has several properties which make it of special value to perfumers and watchmakers. When exposed to cold, it deposits a white flaky matter; and when this is removed, an oil is left which is most suitable for watches owing to its non-liability to freeze. Oil of ben is also used to extract the odorous principles from flowers; and as it is not liable to turn rancid, it is much prized in the manufacture of perfumes, although its frequent adulteration with other oils has tended to restrict its use. See HORSE-RADISH TREE.

Benares (*Bandras*), the most sacred city of the Hindus, and one of the principal towns of North India, situated on the left or northern bank of the Ganges, 420 miles by rail from Calcutta, and 74 from Allahabad. It is the largest city in the North-west Provinces (excluding Oudh). It skirts the Ganges for 3 miles, and the high bank is lined continuously with broad flights



The Burning Ghat, Benares.

of stairs or *ghats*, leading to the innumerable temples and large substantial houses, which present towards the river an imposing array of towers and pinnacles and richly carved façades. The river takes a great crescent-like sweep at this point, and the view of the city is one of the most striking in the world. Benares, however,

is disappointing internally, the streets being mere narrow lanes between the lines of tall, dismal houses. But the crowds of priests and pilgrims on the ghats and at the temples, the sacred bulls wandering at large, and even the wares exposed for sale, all point to the religious character of the place. Among the chief buildings are the Nepalese Temple, Aurangzebe's mosque, with its two minarets 147 feet high; Raja Jai Singh's observatory; the Gopal Mandir, wealthiest of all the temples; the Bisheswar or Golden Temple of Siva, the holiest of all; and the famous Monkey Temple, in the suburbs. Other points of special interest are the well of Mani Karniki, formed of Vishnu's sweat; the Jnana-vapi, or 'pool of knowledge'; and the Lat Bhairo, a portion, it is believed, of one of Asoka's pillars. To bathe in the Mani Karniki is to be cleansed from all sins for time and eternity. At the Burning Ghat the bodies of Hindus are reduced to ashes. The city counts 1450 Hindu temples or shrines, most of them small, and 272 Mohammedan mosques. In the European part of the city there is the Government College, a large freestone structure, with 700 students; the Prince of Wales's Hospital; and a town-hall. By far the most important European work is the new Dufferin Bridge, opened on the 18th of December 1887, on the East Indian and Oudh and Rohilkhand railways. It crosses the Ganges in sixteen spans, having a total length, not including approaches, of 3518 feet. Formerly there was only a bridge of boats, which had to be withdrawn during the floods. Benares draws immense revenues from the thousands of pilgrims who visit it from all parts of India. It has a considerable trade, not only in country produce, but in English goods, jewelry, and precious stones. Its brass-ware, kinoh or gold-cloth, and lacquered toys are famous. Pop. (1881) 191,025, of whom 147,230 were Hindus, 45,520 Mohammedans, and 266 Christians; (1887) 200,000, of whom 160,000 are Hindus. A city of great antiquity, Benares (Sansk. *Vārāṇasī*) was for 800 years the headquarters of Buddhism. In the 4th century B.C. it reverted to the ancient faith, of which it has ever since been the metropolis. It has been in the hands of many temporal rulers—the Rajput princes, the Mogul emperors, the Oudh nawabs—being ceded by the latter to the English in 1775. There was a rising here during the Mutiny in 1857, but it was promptly dealt with, and the constant passage of troops from Calcutta to the north kept the city free from disturbance. The western suburb of Sikol (Seerole) contains the military cantonments and European quarter; the suburb of Sighra is the seat of most of the missionary institutions.—The district has an area of 998 sq. m. The climate is the hottest and dampest in the North-west Provinces, the mean temperature being 77°, and the annual rainfall about 40 inches. The soil is very fertile. Pop. (1881) 892,684, or almost 900 to the square mile.

Benavente, a town of Spain, in the province of Zamora, on the western bank of the Esla, 34 miles N. from Zamora. It is overlooked by a huge half-ruined castle, and is now a dull and poverty-stricken place, built chiefly of mud cottages. It was here that Moore's retreat commenced, 28th December 1808. Pop. 4107.

Benbecula, one of the Hebrides or Western Isles of Scotland, between North and South Uist, 20 miles W. of Skye, and belonging to Inverness-shire. Measuring 6 or 7 miles either way, it is nearly 36 sq. m. in area, low and flat, and consists chiefly of bog, sand, and lake, resting on a substratum of gneiss rock, with a very broken coastline. Nearly three-fourths of the area are under crofts and farms. Pop. (1881) 1661.

Benbow, JOHN, admiral, was born in 1653, the son of a Shrewsbury tanner. He entered the navy as a master's mate in 1678, but it was as captain of a merchantman that he first distinguished himself in a bloody action with Saltee pirates (1686). After the Revolution he re-entered the navy, and received his first commission as third-lieutenant, June 1, 1689; but before the close of the same year he was appointed in succession captain to three men-of-war, and by 1696 had risen to be rear-admiral. The most memorable of all his exploits was his last, where his stubborn valour contrasted nobly with the disloyal behaviour of his captains. Off Santa Marta, in the West Indies, on 19th August 1702, he came up with a superior French force under Du Casse. For four days he kept up a running fight with the enemy, almost deserted by the rest of his squadron. On the morning of the 24th his right leg was smashed by a chain-shot. His officers consoled with him. 'I had rather have lost them both,' said the sturdy admiral, 'than have seen this dishonour brought upon the English nation. But, hark ye—if another shot should take me off, behave like men, and fight it out!' As soon as his wound was dressed he was carried to the quarter-deck, and directed the fight while it lasted. The enemy sustained severe loss; but the behaviour of the other captains, who actually refused to obey the admiral's signals, made the contest hopeless, and Benbow sailed away to Jamaica. He died of his wound at Port Royal, on the 4th November. The recusant officers were tried by court-martial, and two captains were shot. Cowardice is none so common among English naval officers that we can rest content with that as an explanation of the strange conduct of Benbow's captains in their mutinous disobedience to his orders. Indeed, it is more than likely that their disaffection was to a large extent a personal matter, and that the 'honest, rough seaman,' by his overbearing and bullying nature, had made himself as hateful to his higher officers as he was popular with his crew for his off-hand manners and personal courage.

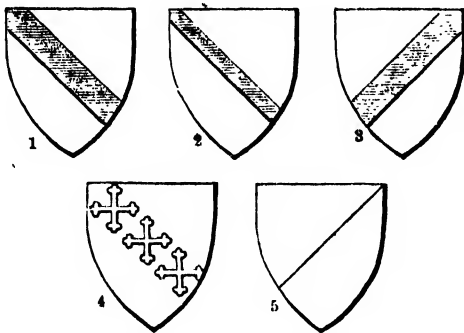
Bench, the high seat of the court-room or chamber where judges sit to administer the laws, or the platform on which the chairs for the judges are placed. The court of King's or Queen's Bench (q.v.) was originally so called because in it the sovereign sat in person when he administered justice. The court of Common Pleas was also called Common Bench. The term bench is also applied in America as in Britain to the judges themselves as a class; thus, we speak of the *bench and bar*. It has likewise, popularly and conventionally, an ecclesiastical application, the bishops of the Church of England being, as a body, sometimes designated by it; hence the expression, 'Bench of Bishops.' So also in the Episcopal and Methodist-Episcopal churches in the United States, 'Benchers' is the time-honoured name of the governing bodies of the four Inns of Court (q.v.). See also BANC.

Bench-warrant is a warrant issued by the court before which an indictment has been found to arrest the accused, that he may appear and find bail for his appearance at the trial. It is used extensively in the United States to bring into court persons who have neglected to obey an order of court, such as delinquent jurymen.

Bencoolen, capital of a Dutch residency on the SW. coast of Sumatra. Owing to the surf and coral reefs, landing here is difficult; the site is low and swampy, and the houses are mostly built on bamboo piles. A lighthouse has been erected; and the town is defended by a fort. Rice, coffee, maize, sugar-cane, the cocoa-nut, and other

fruits are grown; pepper and camphor are the chief exports, but trade has declined. Bencoolen was founded by the English (1686), but was ceded to the Dutch by the London treaty of 1825. Pop. of town, 12,000; of residency, with an area of 9682 sq. m. (1882) 146,007.

Bend, in Heraldry, one of the figures known as Ordinaries, consists of the space contained between two parallel lines crossing the shield diagonally from dexter chief to sinister base (fig. 1). It is said to occupy a fifth part of the shield unless charged, when it occupies a third part. Its diminutives are the *Bendlet*; which is half its width (fig. 2), the *Cotise* (q.v.), one-fourth (generally borne in pairs flanking the bend), and the *Ribbon*, one-eighth of its width. In early Heraldry the bend was used as a difference or mark of cadency as well as an original bearing.



The *Bend-sinister* is an occasionally occurring variety of the bend, drawn from sinister chief to dexter base (fig. 3). The *Scorpe* is its diminutive; and that well-known mark of illegitimacy, the *Baton-sinister* (q.v.), is also so accounted.

Charges placed in the direction of a bend are said to be *bendwise*, and when a bend is charged with other figures, the charges on it are understood to be placed bendwise. The term *in bend*, when applied to several charges, differs from *bendwise*, in so far as it has reference to the relative position of the charges, not the direction in which each charge lies, as will be understood from the figure,

where the three crosses bottonné are placed *palewise in bend* (fig. 4).

A field divided by a diagonal line in the direction of a bend is said to be *parted per bend* (fig. 5).

Bendy is a term applied in Heraldry to a field divided into four or a larger even number of parts by lines drawn diagonally, or in the direction of a bend as in the figure, Bendy of six argent and azure.

Benda, GEORG, the most distinguished of a notable musical family, born at Jungbunzlau, in Bohemia, in 1721, and distinguished as a pianist, violinist, and composer, died at Köstritz in 1795. He was bandmaster to the Duke of Gotha (1748-87), and in this period produced several operas and cantatas, such as *Ariadne auf Naxos* and *Medea*.

Bendemann, EDUARD, painter, was born in Berlin in 1811, and studied under Schadow. As early as 1832 his great picture of the Captive Jews was exhibited at Berlin, and in 1837 he gained the gold medal at Paris. In 1838 he was appointed professor of the Academy of Art at Dresden. Here he was intrusted with the execution of the larger frescoes in the palace, and on these his fame chiefly depends. In 1858 he succeeded his

father-in-law as director of the Düsseldorf Academy, a post which he held until 1867. He afterwards produced several large canvases and frescoes, some of which are among his best works.

Bender, a strongly fortified town, with a citadel, in the Russian province of Bessarabia, on the right bank of the Dniester, 82 miles NW. of Odessa by rail. Pop. (1880) 32,535, including many Armenians, Tartars, Moldavians, and Jews. The principal industries are the manufacture of bricks, stoneware, paper, and leather, with agriculture, fishing, and mining. The local trade is important. In 1770 the Russians captured the place, and put the garrison and inhabitants, then amounting to about 30,000, to the sword. It was restored to the Turks in 1774, but was again stormed by the Russians in 1789, 1806, and 1811. Finally, by the peace of Bucharest in 1812, the town, with the whole of Bessarabia, was formally ceded to Russia. Charles XII. of Sweden lived from 1709 till 1712 at Varnitza, near Bender.—Bender is also another name for the town of Gombroon (q.v.).

Bendigo, a county of the Loddon district, Victoria, has the river Loddon on its W. boundary, and the Campaspe on the E. Area, 1949 sq. m. Chief town, Sandhurst (q.v.), familiarly known as Bendigo, in the neighbourhood of which rich alluvial deposits of gold were discovered in 1851; now quartz-mining operations in the district employ about 6000 persons. The county is traversed by the main line of railway between Melbourne and Echuca. Pop. of Bendigo county (1881) 56,653.

Benedek, LUDWIG VON, an Austrian general, born in 1804 at Oedenburg, in Hungary. He entered the army in 1822, and on the occasion of the insurrection of Galicia in 1846, had several opportunities of distinguishing himself. In 1847 he commanded a regiment in Italy. He distinguished himself at the taking of Mortara, and in the battle of Novara. In 1849 he commanded in Hungary, and took an important share in several battles, being twice wounded. At the close of the Hungarian campaign, he was ordered again, high in command, to Italy. In the Italian campaign of 1859, Benedek commanded the eighth corps of the Austrians. At Solferino he drove back the Piedmontese with great slaughter. He was governor of Hungary in 1860, and soon after commander-in-chief in Venice. In 1866 he commanded the northern Austrian army in the war with Prussia; but shortly after the defeat of Sadowa, he was superseded, and brought to a court-martial. Though its proceedings were quashed by the emperor, Benedek never recovered from the savage criticism to which his vanquished and mortified countrymen subjected him; and he retired to Graz, where he died April 27, 1881.

Benedetti, VINCENT, COUNT, a French diplomatist, born in 1817 at Bastia, in Corsica, was appointed in 1855 director of political affairs to the foreign minister, and in this capacity edited the protocols of the Congress of Paris in the following year. He was appointed ambassador at Turin in 1861, and at Berlin in 1864. Benedetti will be chiefly remembered as the writer of the remarkable draft of a secret treaty between France and Prussia, published in 1870, at the outbreak of the war. In a pamphlet issued at Paris in 1871, *Ma Mission en Prusse*, he throws its whole responsibility on Bismarck. On the fall of the empire he retired to Corsica, and practised law at the bar of Ajaccio.

Benedicite, or the Song of the Three Children, a canticle from the Apocrypha forming part

of the prayer of Abednego in the fiery furnace. It was sung in the Christian Church as early as the time of St Chrysostom, and is used in the Anglican Church in the morning services when the *Te Deum* is not sung.

Benedict is the name of fourteen popes. Of these only the following are historically important enough to deserve special mention: **BENEDICT VIII.**, son of Count Gregory of Tuscoli, was elected in 1012, but was driven from Rome by the anti-pope Gregory. In 1014 he was restored to the papal chair by the Emperor Henry II., and afterwards defeated the Saracens, and took from them, with the help of the Pisans and Genoese, the island of Sardinia; and also various places in Apulia from the Greeks, by the help of Henry. He distinguished himself as a reformer of the clergy, and interdicted, at the synod of Pavia, both clerical marriage and concubinage. He died in 1024. — **BENEDICT IX.**, a nephew of the preceding, obtained the papal throne by simony in 1033, at the age of 18; but in 1038 the Romans rose in indignation, and banished him on account of his almost unexampled licentiousness. By aid of bribery he was several times reinstalled, and as often formally deposed, only to return again by the same means. The Emperor Henry III., to remove such gross scandals from the church, deposed all the three popes—Benedict, Sylvester, and Gregory, and caused Suidger, Bishop of Bamberg, to be elected as Clement II.; but on his death, in 1047, the deposed Benedict IX. again corruptly regained the papal see, and held it for eight months, when he was displaced, first by Damasus II., and afterwards by Leo IX. He died in the convent of Grotta Ferrata in 1058. — **BENEDICT XIII.** is a title assumed by two popes, *Peter de Luna*, a Spaniard, chosen by the French cardinals in 1394, and recognised only by Spain and Scotland up to his death in 1424; and *Vincenzo Marco Orsini* (1724–30), a learned and well-disposed man, of simple habits and pure morals, who unfortunately yielded himself to the guidance of the greedy and unscrupulous Cardinal Coscia, who greatly abused the confidence reposed in him. Benedict always exhibited great moderation in politics, and an honourable love of peace, and was instrumental in bringing about the Seville treaty of 1729. During this pontificate, a remarkably large number of saints, chiefly from the monastic orders, were added to the calendar. — **BENEDICT XIV.** (Prospero Lambertini), the most worthy to be remembered of all the pontiffs so named, was born at Bologna in 1675. Before his elevation, he had distinguished himself by extensive learning, and by marked ability in the lower offices. Succeeding Clement XII., he began his pontificate, in 1740, with several wise and conciliatory measures; founded chairs of physic, chemistry, and mathematics in Rome; revived the academy of Bologna, and instituted others; dug out the obelisk in the Campus Martius, constructed fountains, rebuilt churches; caused the best English and French books to be translated into Italian; and in many other ways encouraged literature and science. His piety was sincere, enlightened, and tolerant, and his doctrines were well exemplified in his practice. He was extremely concerned for the morals of the clergy, and established a board of examiners for all candidates to vacant sees. Two important bulls were promulgated by him, denouncing such accommodation of Christian doctrines and rites to heathen beliefs and usages as the Jesuits had practised in the East. The only accusation brought against him by his Roman subjects was 'that he wrote and studied too much, but ruled too little,' or left affairs of business too much in the hands of the Cardinal Valentine. After a painful illness, Benedict XIV. died May 3, 1758.

Benedict, St., the founder of Western monachism, was born of a wealthy family at Nursia, near Spoleto, in 480 A.D. At an early age he was sent to the schools of Rome, but soon grew dissatisfied with the sterile character of the instruction dispensed. The world to the boy seemed full of distractions, impurities, and ignorance; it was difficult to resist, by the ordinary safeguards of virtue, the colossal evils with which men were environed; only, therefore, in the devotions of religion, in the holy silence of solitary meditation, did Benedict see a safe refuge from the sins of the time, and the possibility of realising a spiritual strength which would enable him to stem the flood of corruption. He resolved to leave the city, and betake himself to some deep solitude where the murmur of the world would be inaudible, and alone in the rocky wilderness wrestle with his own nature, until he had conquered it and laid it a sacrifice on the altar of God. In pursuance of this resolution, when he had only reached the age of fourteen, he departed from Rome, accompanied for the first 25 miles by the nurse whom his parents had sent with him as an attendant. He then left her, and retired to a deserted country lying on a lake, hence called *Sublaqueum* (now Subiaco). Here, in a cavern (which afterwards received the name of the Holy Grotto), he dwelt for three years, until his fame spread over the country, and multitudes came to see him. He was now appointed abbot of a neighbouring monastery, observing, or rather neglecting, the oriental rule; but soon left it, as the morals of the half-wild monks were not severe enough. This, however, only excited a livelier interest in his character, and as he lived in a period when the migration and interfusion of races and nations were being rapidly carried on, he could not fail to draw crowds of wanderers about him. Wealthy Romans also placed their sons under his care, anxious that they should be trained for a spiritual life. Benedict was thus enabled to found twelve monasteries, over each of which he placed a superior. The savage Goths even were attracted to him, and employed in the useful and civilising practice of agriculture, gardening, &c. He now sought another retreat, and, along with a few followers, founded a monastery on Monte Cassino, near Naples, afterwards one of the richest and most famous in Italy. Here he extirpated the lingering relics of paganism, and had his celebrated interview with Totila, king of the Goths, to whom he spoke frankly and sharply on his errors. In 515 he is said to have composed his *Regula Monachorum*, in which he aimed, among other things, at repressing the irregular and licentious life of the wandering monks, by introducing stricter discipline and order. It eventually became the common rule of all Western monachism. The monasteries which Benedict founded were simply religious colleges, intended to develop a high spiritual character, which might beneficially influence the world. To the abbot was given supreme power, and he was told to acquit himself in all his relations with the wisdom of God and of St Benedict. The discipline recommended is milder than that of oriental monachism with regard to food, clothing, &c.; but enjoins continual residence in the monastery, and, in addition to the usual religious exercises, directs that the monks shall employ themselves in manual labours, imparting instruction to youth, copying manuscripts for the library, &c. By this last injunction, Benedict, though this was not directly intended, preserved many of the literary remains of antiquity; for the injunction, which he gave only with regard to religious books, was extended afterwards to many secular productions. It is remarkable that the founder of the most learned of all the monastic orders was himself so

little of a scholar that St Gregory the Great described him as being '*scienter nesciens, et sapienter indolens*'—learnedly ignorant, and wisely unlearned. St Benedict died March 21, 543.

Benedict, SIR JULIUS, a musician and composer, German by birth, but after 1836 resident in England. Born November 27, 1804, at Stuttgart, where his father was a Jewish banker, he studied first under Hummel at Weimar, and afterwards under Weber at Dresden. On Weber's recommendation, he was, in 1824, made musical director of the German Opera, Vienna; and he afterwards was appointed to the conductorship of the San Carlo Theatre in Naples. While in Naples, he produced an opera buffa called *Giocinto ed Ernesto*, and an opera seria, *I Portoghesi in Goa*. Both were too German to suit the Italian taste, but later they were well received at Stuttgart. In Paris, and afterwards (1835) in London, he appeared with great success as a pianist. In 1836 he took up his permanent residence in London, and was, during that year, director of the opera buffa at the Lyceum, where he produced an operetta, composed in Naples, *Un Anno ed un Giorno*. Turning his attention afterwards to English opera, he composed *The Gipsy's Warning* (1838), *The Brides of Venice* (1844), and *The Crusaders* (1846), three works which, translated into German, have been well received in the composer's native country. He conducted the opera in Covent Garden Theatre in 1843 and 1844, and the Norwich Musical Festival in 1845, and thereafter conducted the Monday Popular and numerous other concerts and great musical gatherings in London and in the provinces, besides being a successful pianoforte teacher. In 1850 he conducted at Jenny Lind's concerts in America. In 1860 he produced a cantata, *Undine*, at the Norwich Musical Festival, which was very well received. His *Lily of Killarney*, first given in 1862 at Covent Garden, was his greatest operatic success. He produced a cantata, *Richard Cœur de Lion* (1863); an opera di camera, *The Bride of Song* (1864); and the cantatas *St Cecilia* (1866) and *Graziella* (1882). His oratorio, *St Peter*, written for the Birmingham Musical Festival, 1870, was perhaps his masterpiece; it met with extraordinary success. His first symphony also was received with great favour in 1873. His music possesses abundance of fresh and pleasing melody, and shows the hand of a consummate master, without, however, any very pronounced individuality of style. In his earlier works the score owed something to Rossini, but his later compositions betray more of the influence of his master, Weber. In style and feeling, however, they are singularly English to be the composition of a foreigner. He was knighted in 1871, was a corresponding member of the French Academy, and received decorations from almost every country on the Continent. He died in London, June 5, 1885.

Benedict Biscop, a great churchman of Anglo-Saxon times, was born about 628 of a good Northumbrian family. At first in the service of King Oswy, he assumed the tonsure in the Benedictine monastery of Lerins, after his second journey to Rome. On his return to England from his third journey, he was appointed abbot of St Peter's at Canterbury, but this office he held only for two years. He made yet another pilgrimage to Rome, and soon after his return received from Egfrith of Northumbria, in 674, a grant of land between the Wear and the Tyne. Here he founded a monastery, and endowed it with numerous books which he had collected in his visits to Rome. 'He was,' says William of Malmesbury, 'the first person who introduced in England constructors of stone edifices, as well as makers of glass windows.' In 682

he founded a second monastery at Jarrow. Himself a man of the most lofty character, he did much to advance learning and culture in the church, and to his careful fostering of learning we owe his great pupil Bede. He died 12th January 690.

Benedictine, a liqueur. See LIQUEUR.

Benedictines, the general name of all the monks and nuns following the rule of St Benedict (480-543). He founded his first twelve monasteries at Subiaco, near Rome; thence he passed to Monte Cassino, near Naples, where he wrote his *Rule*, and founded the abbey which is still famous. In his lifetime his disciple, St Placid, spread his order in Sicily; and St Maurus in France. St Gregory the Great was the first (590-604) of the fifty Benedictines who have occupied the papal throne, a list which includes such names as St Leo IV., St Gregory VII., and St Pius VII., and which ends with Gregory XVI., the predecessor of Pius IX. St Augustine, the disciple of Gregory the Great, brought the Benedictine rule to England along with the Christian faith, and became the first of a long list of Benedictine archbishops of Canterbury. The English Benedictine, St Boniface, preached the faith in Germany, and founded there the great abbey of Fulda. Ansgar, the apostle of Denmark; Willibrord, of the Frisians and Dutch; Adalbert, of the Bohemians; and Casimir, of the Poles, were all Benedictines. Bede and Anselm in England; Isidore, Leander, and Hildeonsus in Spain; Peter Damiani in Italy, and Bernard in France, are names which illustrate the hold this order had upon the teaching of the Catholic church. As early as 1354 the order had numbered 24 popes, 200 cardinals, 7000 archbishops, 15,000 bishops, 1560 canonised saints, and 5000 holy persons worthy of canonisation, a number since increased to 40,000. It had possessed 37,000 monasteries, 20 emperors, 10 empresses, 47 kings, 50 queens, and an immense number of royal and noble persons. In the 15th century there were 15,107 Benedictine monasteries. The Reformation left not more than 5000; and at the present day the list would not exceed 800.

The Benedictines have been variously grouped together into 'orders' and 'congregations,' named after some principal abbey in which they may have taken their rise, or after some patron saint or country. The first of these sprang from the abbey of Clugny in 910. From Cîteaux, under the Englishman St Stephen, came the Cistercians (1098). In Italy St Romuald founded the order of Camaldoli (1099); St John Gualbert that of Vallombrosa (1070); St William that of Monte Vergine (1119). The Silvestrines (1231) and Celestines (1274) bear the names of their founders; the Olivétans (1319) that of their first abbey. The congregation of Monte Cassino was formed by the union of several abbeys in Italy in 1415, and still exists, though much shorn of its strength. The great abbey of St Paul's in Rome belongs to it. The principal congregation in Germany was that of Bursfeld, which disappeared with the 18th century; but in 1868 the congregation of Beuron arose in the Prussian empire, and now counts four flourishing abbeys. In the Austrian empire there still exist twenty out of a much larger number of independent abbeys, of which many date back to the 8th and 9th centuries. The principal are Salzburg, Melk, Krems, and Martensberg in Hungary. In 1712 a congregation of Armenian Benedictines established itself at San Lazzaro, near Venice, under the name of their founder Mechitar, and still continues a source of religion and learning for its mother-country. In France the congregation of St Vanne was erected in 1600; along with that of Tiron it was absorbed into that of St Maur in 1627 (see MAURISTS).

The Revolution of 1792 swept all away, but in 1837 D. Gueranger founded the 'French Congregation' at Solesmes, and it now reckons three abbeys. In accordance with a Bull of the Lateran Council (1215), which commanded Benedictines to unite together into congregations, eleven Scottish monasteries which had been founded at different dates in various parts of Germany were erected into one body. The most important were Würzburg, Erfurt, and Vienna. Of these none now exist. The English congregation was founded in 1300 by the union of all the English monasteries then existing. It included, among the 113 numbered by Tanner, all the greater abbeys and cathedrals, and four other abbeys which have since become cathedrals of England. It was despoiled at the Reformation, and its few surviving members took refuge and multiplied abroad, whence they returned at the French Revolution. In Scotland the principal Benedictine monasteries were Iona, Dunfermline, Coldingham, Kelso, Arbroath, Paisley, Melrose, Kilwinning, and Lindores. In the United Kingdom in 1887 there were eight Benedictine monasteries for men, and the same number for women, together with a large number of parish churches served by Benedictines. The abbey of Fort Augustus, the only one in Scotland, was founded 1878, and in it is perpetuated whatever remained of the Scottish abbey at Ratisbon. During the present century the order has spread widely in the United States, where there are eight large abbeys and a number of smaller establishments. The mother-abbey of St Vincent's, Pennsylvania, numbers 130 monks. Monasteries have been established also in Australia, one among the aborigines, and in New Zealand; and the suppressed congregation of Valladolid and Montserrat in Spain have begun to re-establish themselves. In 1851 a new congregation was erected under the presidency of the abbey of Subiaco, one of the original foundations of St Benedict, and has widely propagated.

The *Rule of St Benedict* is a modification of that of the eastern ascetics, St Basil, Cassian, &c. It was the first to introduce *Stability*, or the binding of the monk to a permanent abode in a monastery, and in the practice of monastic life till death. This is the first of the Benedictine's three vows; the second is *Conversion of Manners*—i.e. the striving after perfection of life; and the third, *Obedience according to the Rule*, by the tenor of which the monk is bound to chastity, to the renunciation of private property, to retirement from the world, to the daily and public solemnisation of the divine office, and to a life of frugality and labour under filial obedience to the abbot. Hospitality and the other works of mercy, corporal and spiritual, are strongly inculcated in the rule, and among these, Benedictine monks have always given a high place to the work of education and instruction in worldly and religious learning. Both these still form the principal subjects of their employment. From the days of Charlemagne to the 12th or 13th century, the Benedictine monasteries were almost the only repositories of learning; the literary labours of the Maurists in the 18th century are proverbial, and to this day it would be difficult to find a Benedictine monastery without at least its 'internal' school of philosophy and theology. The modern congregation of Beuron is famous for its school of art.

The Benedictine habit consists of a tunic and Scapular (q.v.), over which is worn a long full gown called a *cowl*, with a *hood* to cover the head. The colour is not specified in the rule, and it is conjectured that the early Benedictine wore white as being the natural colour of undyed wool. For many centuries, however, black has been the prevailing colour, whence the term 'black monk' comes to

mean a Benedictine in general, or one who does not belong to certain congregations which have a special colour—e.g. the Camaldolese, the Cistercians and Olivetans wear white, and the Silvestrines blue. The latter are numerous in Ceylon.

St Benedict's twin-sister Scholastica is supposed to have lived under his rule, and Benedictine nuns have always been as numerous as Benedictine monks. At present the number of their convents probably much exceeds that of the monasteries of men. For the 'Benedictine Editions,' see MAURISTS.

See *Annales Ordinis Sti Benedicti*, and *Acta Sanctorum Ordinis Sti Benedicti*, by Mabillon; *Apostolatus Benedictinorum in Anglia*, Reyner; *Album Benedictinum* (St Vincent's, Pennsylvania, 1880); *The Holy Rule of St Benedict* (Fort Augustus, 1885); *The Monks of the West*, Montalembert.

Benediction (from the Lat. *benedicere*, literally, 'to speak well of'; 'to commend') is a solemn invocation of the Divine blessing upon men or things. The ceremony in its simplest form may be considered almost coeval with the earliest expressions of religious feeling. The Sabbath is said to have been blessed. Jacob blessed his two grandsons. Christ 'took bread and blessed it,' and 'lifting up his hands,' blessed his disciples. In the primitive church the custom gradually developed itself in various liturgical forms. In Protestant churches a form of benediction is used at the close of religious services. In the Roman Church a priestly benediction has been defined as a formula of imperative prayer, which, in addition to the desire which it expresses, transmits a certain grace or virtue to the object over which it is pronounced. Such ecclesiastical benedictions are generally accompanied with the sprinkling of holy water and the use of incense, and universally with the sign of the cross. Prescribed forms may be gathered from the missal, breviary, and pontifical, or may be found collected in the *Benedictionale Romanum*. Certain blessings form part of the liturgical services which only occur at stated seasons, as the blessing of the candles on Candlemas Day, of the ashes on Ash Wednesday, and of the palms, the sacred fire, the incense grains, the paschal candle, font and baptismal water, during Holy Week. Many ancient and curious ceremonies are used at the blessing of altars or of church-bells by the bishop. Other objects for which special blessings are provided in the *Benedictionale* are fields, houses, ships, cattle, noxious animals, articles of food, and even railroads and telegraphs. Water mingled with blessed salt for the devotional use of the faithful in church or at home is as a rule prepared every week. This *acqua benedicta* or holy water in turn conveys a blessing to persons or objects aspersed with it. Priests having special faculties for the purpose may bless crosses and rosaries, which only, when so blessed, impart the papal indulgence to those who use them. So great was the importance attached by Roman Catholics to this delegated papal blessing, that in 1571 the English parliament, in retaliation against the pope for attempting to depose Elizabeth, imposed the penalties of prebendure on any one who should bring into the realm an *Agnus Dei* (a medal of wax), crosses, pictures, or beads consecrated or hallowed by the Bishop of Rome, or by authority derived from him. The papal benediction conveyed to a dying person carries with it a plenary indulgence. On certain occasions (as on his jubilee, January 1, 1888), the pope pronounced a solemn benediction *urbi et orbi* (on the city and the world).

BENEDICTION is also the name given in some countries (in French, *Le Salut*) to a brief and popular service of comparatively modern origin in the Roman Church. It consists of certain canticles

and antiphons sung in presence of the sacred host, which is exposed for the occasion on a 'throne' above the altar. The service is concluded by the priest, wrapped in a veil, taking the monstrance which contains the host, and therewith making the sign of the cross over the people, and giving to them in silence the benediction of the most holy sacrament.

Benedic'tus, the canticle of Zacharias (Luke, i. 68-79), used in the Roman service of matin-lauds, and thence adopted into the Anglican morning service.

Benedix, JULIUS RODERICK, a German actor, manager, and play-writer, was born at Leipzig in 1811, and died there September 26, 1873. Of his numerous pieces, the best are his comedies, most of which are favourites in Germany, for their humorous, intricate plot, constant change of incident and scene, and natural, but witty, dialogue. His dramatic works fill 27 vols. (1846-74).

Benefice, or BENEFICIUM, was first applied in the Lombard laws and the Constitutions of Charlemagne to the life-interests in land, which were the reward of military service, and afterwards developed into hereditary feudal grants; but is now used in England to denote any kind of church promotion or dignity, but specially a 'benefice with cure of souls,' such as rectories, vicarages, and other parochial cures, as distinguished from bishoprics, deaneries, cathedral preferments, and other ecclesiastical dignities or offices. Some benefices are called *exempt*, or *peculiar*, by which is meant that they are not to be under the ordinary control and administration of the bishop; but such exempt or peculiar benefices are nevertheless, so far as relates to pluralities and residence, subject to the archbishop or bishop within whose province or diocese they are locally situated.

There are, in general, four requisites to the enjoyment of a benefice. 1st, Holy orders, or ordination at the hands of a bishop of the established church or other canonical bishop (a Roman Catholic priest may hold a benefice in the Church of England on abjuring the tenets of his church, but he is not ordained again); 2d, Presentation, or the formal gift or grant of the benefice by the lay or ecclesiastical patron; 3d, Institution at the hands of the bishop, by which the cure of souls is committed to the clergyman; and 4th, Induction, which is performed by a mandate from the bishop to the archdeacon to give the clergyman possession of the temporalities. Where the bishop is himself also patron, the presentation and institution are one and the same act, and called the *collation* to the benefice. The spiritual duties of a benefice are those connected with public worship, baptism, marriage, burial, and the administration of the Lord's Supper, with less defined duties of visitation of and intercourse with parishioners. The emoluments of a rector consist of the freehold of the parsonage house, the glebe, the tithes, and other duties; the vicar has only a proportion of these. The rector is liable for the repair of the chancel, and has serious duties in connection with the church and the churchyard, which in the ordinary case are his freehold. (See Cripps or Phillimore on Church Law.) In Scotland, benefices are divided into temporalities or lands and spiritualities or teinds. The former were taken by the crown at the Reformation and erected into lordships in favour of the lords of erection, titulars, and commendators; but in the 17th century most of these estates returned to the crown. These titulars had also rights of drawing teind from other lands, a public grievance, which was settled by the celebrated decrees arbitral of Charles I. The spiritualities, or main body of the teinds, are still held by

the Church of Scotland (see TEINDS, AUGMENTATION, STIPEND). The election of ministers now proceeds under the Patronage Act, 1874. The minister in Scotland has a manse and glebe, but not the same rights in the church or churchyard, as in England. See ADVOWSON, SIMONY, PLURALITY.

Beneficiary is a legal term used in both England and Scotland to denote a person who is in the enjoyment, or is ultimately entitled to the enjoyment, of any interest or estate held in trust by others. The technical term in the law of England is *Cestui que trust* (q.v.). Thus, annuitants, special legatees, and residuary legatees are all beneficiaries. In charitable trusts of a discretionary character there is often doubt as to who the beneficiaries really are, and both under statute and at common law the courts or the commissioners are occasionally asked to reform a charity, which often means changing the class of beneficiaries. Beneficiaries are entitled to protect the trust estate by interdict and injunction against improper acts of the trustees, and also to sue the trustees for an accounting. See TRUST.

Benefit of Clergy. This expression relates to a former state of the law of England, which shows the power of the clergy and the ignorance of the people. The benefit or privilege meant little short of the total exemption of the clerical order, in respect of crimes and offences, from the jurisdiction and authority of the secular magistrate. The only exception to this was the priest being held in custody by the king himself; but even in that case, he could only remain in such regal custody with the pleasure and consent of the bishop, who had entire control over his person, and over the inquiry into his offence. If a priest or 'clerk' happened to be imprisoned by the secular arm, on a criminal charge or capital felony, he was, on the bishop's demand, to be instantly delivered up without any further inquisition; not, indeed, to be let loose upon the country, but to be detained by the ordinary, till he had either purged himself from the offence, or, having failed to do so, had been degraded. The purgation before the church court was arranged entirely in favour of the accused. This state of things continued till the Statute of Westminster the First (1275), which provided that the prisoner must first be indicted before he could be claimed, and then in the reign of Henry VI. it was settled that the prisoner must first be convicted, and might either then claim his clergy by plea declining the jurisdiction, or, as was most usually practised, after conviction, by way of arresting judgment. The test of admission to this singular privilege was the clerical dress and tonsure—i.e. the claimant must be strictly in orders and not a mere assistant. The statute *Pro Clero* (1350), however, extended it to all manner of clerks, and by later practice it was extended to all who could read, whether of the clergy or laity—a mark of great learning in those days—and therefore capable of becoming clerks. Women, however, except professed nuns, were until the Reformation excluded. But laymen could only claim it *once*, and upon so doing were burned on the hand, and discharged; to be again tried, however, by the bishop, whose investigation usually resulted in an acquittal, which, although the offender had been previously convicted by a jury, or perhaps on his own confession, had the effect of restoring him to his liberty, his credit, and his property. The mode in which the test of reading was applied was as follows: On conviction, the felon demanded his clergy, whereupon a book (commonly a psalter) was put into his hand, which he was required to read, when the judge demanded of the bishop's commissary, who was present, *Legit ut clericus?*

and upon the answer to this question depended the convict's fate; if it were simply *legit*, the prisoner was burned on the hand, and discharged; but if *non legit*, he suffered the punishment due to his offence. By a series of statutes most of the serious crimes and all capital crimes had been excluded from benefit of clergy before the end of the 17th century, but it was extended to all persons convicted of clergyable offences, whether they could read or not; and instead of burning on the hand, a discretionary power was given to the judge to inflict a pecuniary fine or imprisonment. Newly-created felonies, which were numerous in the 18th century, were not entitled to the benefit. But all further attempts to modify and improve the law on this subject proving impracticable, the benefit of clergy was at last totally abolished, by the 7 and 8 Geo. IV. chap. 28; and now by the 4 and 6 Vict. chap. 22, the same is the law with regard to the peers. This privilege had never any existence or legal meaning in Scotland. See Hale's *Pleas of the Crown*; and Stephen's *History of the Criminal Law of England*, i. 459.

Benefit of Inventory, in the Scots law, was a legal privilege whereby an heir secured himself against unlimited liability for his ancestor, by giving up, within the *Annus deliberandi* (q.v.), an inventory of his heritage or real estate, to the extent of which, and no further, was the heir liable. The method of obtaining this privilege was simplified in 1847 and 1868, but it is now superseded by the general declaration in the Conveyancing (Scotland) Act, 1874, that 'an heir shall not be liable for the debts of his ancestor beyond the value of the estate of such ancestor to which he succeeds.' Of course this does not prevent universal liability where the estate is conveyed by a general settlement of all property belonging to the ancestor. See *ANNUS DELIBERANDI*, *INHERITANCE*, *DEBT*, and *MORTGAGE*.

Benefit Societies, associations for mutual benefit chiefly among the labouring classes, are better known under the name of *FRIENDLY SOCIETIES*, and are described under that head; while the associations sometimes called Benefit Building Societies, are discussed at *BUILDING SOCIETIES*.

Beneke, *FRIEDRICH EDUARD*, professor of philosophy in Berlin, was born in that city in 1798, and studied theology and philosophy, first at Halle, and then at Berlin. In 1820 he commenced lecturing in the latter university, but his lectures were soon interdicted by the minister Altenstein, as his philosophical views were quite opposed to those of Hegel. For three years he taught at Göttingen, but in 1827 his lectures at Berlin were again allowed, and in 1832, on Hegel's death, he was appointed extraordinary professor of Philosophy. In March 1854 Beneke disappeared suddenly from his residence, and nothing more was heard of him until June 1856, when his body was found in the canal at Charlottenburg. Beneke has more affinity with British thinkers than any other German philosopher. His most important works are on psychology, which he insists must be founded on the facts of our consciousness. His system of psychology is therefore what the Germans call 'empirical,' and his method is the Baconian as pursued in natural science.

Benevento (ancient *Beneventum*), a city of Southern Italy, capital of a Campanian province of the same name, is situated on a hill near the confluence of the Calore and Sabato, 61 miles N.E. of Naples by rail. It occupies the site of the ancient city, out of the materials of which it is entirely built, and is surrounded by walls about 2 miles in circumference. It has a citadel, a fine

old cathedral, some noteworthy churches, and a magnificent arch, erected in 114 A.D. to the honour of the Emperor Trajan, which, with the single exception of that of Ancona, is the best preserved specimen of Roman architecture in Italy. It is an archiepiscopal see, and has a population of (1881) 17,406, chiefly engaged in the manufacture of leather, parchment, and plated goods. The town was in the possession of the Samnites when history first takes notice of it, and it appears to have been captured from them by the Romans some time during the third Samnite war (298-290 B.C.). It was certainly in the hands of the Romans in 274 B.C.; and six years later they changed its name from Maleventum to Beneventum, and made it a Roman colony. The Carthaginians under Hanno were twice decisively defeated in the immediate neighbourhood during the second Punic war. It rapidly rose to be a place of importance under the Roman empire; under the Lombards, who conquered it in the 6th century, it continued to flourish; and at length it became capital of a duchy which included nearly the half of the late kingdom of Naples. This was seized by the Normans; the town was given (1053) to the pope by the Emperor Henry III. Thenceforward, until 1860, when it was united with the kingdom of Italy, Benevento continued, with slight intervals, to be governed through a resident cardinal with the title of Legate. In 1806 it was bestowed by Napoleon, with the title of prince, on Talleyrand; but it was restored to the pope in 1815.—The province of Benevento has an area of 834 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 238,425.

Benevolence, in the history of the law of England, was a species of forced loan or contribution, levied by kings without legal authority. It was first so called in 1473, when asked from his subjects by Edward IV. as a mark of good-will towards his rule, but similar compulsory 'free-will offerings' had not been uncommon in former reigns. Under Richard III., in 1484, an act of parliament abolished benevolences as 'new and unlawful inventions,' but spite of this they continued to be exacted by Richard himself and by Henry VII. In 1614 James I. tried, but with little success, to raise money by this expedient, and it was never again attempted by the crown; Charles I. expressly declining to have recourse to it.

Benfey, *THEODOR*, a great orientalist and comparative philologist, was born of Jewish parents near Göttingen in January 1809. He studied in Göttingen, Munich, Frankfurt, and Heidelberg, devoting himself especially to classical and comparative philology. In 1862 he was appointed to the chair of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in the university of Göttingen, which he held till his death in June 1881. One of his earliest literary efforts was a translation of Terence (Stutt. 1837); after this, however, he turned his attention almost exclusively to comparative philology, oriental languages, especially Sanskrit, and mythology. In his fifty years devoted with rare enthusiasm and persistency to linguistic studies, he did more than any other scholar to enlarge the boundaries of Sanskrit philology. In comparative philology, though an adherent of Bopp, he deviated from his master in deriving all Indo-European words from *monosyllabic primitive verbs*. This conception depends on his theory of the origin of stem suffixes. These, he holds, are almost all derived from a fundamental form *ant*, which appears in the present participle of verbs. To support this view he assumes the most violent permutations of sounds which set all phonetic laws at defiance. For his theory, see his *Leicon of Greek Roots* (Berl. 1839), *Short Sanskrit Grammar*

(Lond. 1868), and numerous essays. In Sanskrit he laid a foundation for the true study of the Veda by editing the *Sāma Veda* (Leip. 1848) with glossary and translation; and this work he continued by a scholarly translation of the first *mandala* of the Rig Veda in his magazine *Orient und Occident* (Gött. 1863-64). His Vedic grammar, for which he had been collecting materials for many years, was left unfinished. He also published a *Complete Sanskrit Grammar, Chrestomathy and Glossary* (Leip. 1854), and a *Sanskrit-English Dictionary* (Lond. 1866).

In comparative folklore his principal work is a translation of the *Panchatantra* (q.v.), published at Leipzig in two volumes in 1859. It is accompanied with elaborate notes, and the first volume consists entirely of an introduction in which he traces the course of these Indian stories in their wanderings and transformations both in eastern and western literatures.

Bengal (old *Bangālā*; the *Banga* of Sanskrit topography), a name given to part of British India, but variously signifying—(1) the old historical presidency which, in pre-mutiny times, comprised the greater portion of Northern India; (2) the modern military division, corresponding in extent to the old presidency; and (3) the modern province, sometimes also called Lower Bengal, comprising Bengal Proper, Behar, Orissa, and Chhota Nagpur. The word 'presidency' (a relic of the East India Company's time, when the three settlements were each administered by a president and council) is still loosely applied to the province as well as to Calcutta itself; but it is actually retained in the *Army List*, the Bengal Presidency command being held by the 'Commander-in-chief in India,' to whom the Commanders-in-chief of Bombay and Madras are subordinate. Lower Bengal is so called in contradistinction to the 'Upper Provinces' of the obsolete presidency, which are now placed under separate administrations.

The modern province, ruled by a lieutenant-governor, is the largest and most populous of the twelve divisions of British India. It is nearly as large as Spain, and half as large again as Great Britain and Ireland; while it has a population nearly double that of the United Kingdom. The census of 1881 gives a population of 69,536,861, the density over the whole inhabited area being 371 to the square mile, as compared with 303 in the United Kingdom, 221 in Germany, and 187 in France. The following are the census figures:

	Square Miles.	Inhabitants.
Bengal Proper.....	70,430	35,007,628
Behar.....	44,139	23,127,104
Chhota Nagpur.....	26,966	4,225,989
Orissa.....	9,053	3,730,735
	150,588	66,091,456
Fendatory States.....	36,634	2,845,405
Total.....	187,222	69,536,861

Roughly speaking, Bengal comprises the low-lying deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, and the alluvial plains stretching along their lower courses. In the N. it is hemmed in by the Himalayan ramparts; in the SW. angle the hilly region of Chhota Nagpur forms a continuation of the Central Indian plateau; while on the SE. a coast-line of 550 miles extends round the top of the Bay of Bengal, from Puri, in the south of Orissa, to the point at which Chittagong is terminated by the Lower Burmah frontier. Although for the most part level, Bengal is diversified in various parts by peaks and spurs thrown out from the great mountain-systems. Lying between 19° 18' and 28° 15' N. lat., and 82° and 97° E. long., it is bounded landwards by the native states of Nepal, Sikkim, and Blutan, on the N.; by Assam and Upper Burmah on the E.; by the North-west Provinces

and the Central Indian Agency on the W.; and on the S. by Madras. The province is portioned out into nine large administrative tracts called divisions, each under a commissioner, and of these, five—Calcutta (or Presidency), Burdwan, Rajshahi, Dacca, and Chittagong—form what is known as Bengal Proper, a name which is now purely geographical. The other divisions are Patna and Bhagalpur (forming the old province of Behar), Orissa, and Chhota Nagpur. These commissionerships are again divided into 45 districts, each with a magistrate, and among these may be named the densely-peopled metropolitan districts of Hughli (Hooghly), Howrah, and the 24 Parganas; and the rich trading districts of Dacca, Faridpur, and Patna. The average district in Bengal has an area of 3325 sq. m., more than half the size of Yorkshire. The distinctive features of Bengal are its immense network of rivers, the magnificent range of the Himalayas, the luxuriant but fever-haunted Terai at the base of the great mountain-chain, and the trackless forests and jungles of the Sundarbans (Sunderlands), on the sea-face of the delta—the almost undisputed home of the tiger and rhinoceros. Besides the main streams of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, the chief rivers are the Gogra, Són, Gandak, Kusi, Tista, Hughli (formed by the Bhagirathi and Jalangi), the Damodar, and Rupnarayan; and, in the extreme south, the Mahanadi, or 'Great River' of Orissa. All the rivers are subject to floods, bring down an immense quantity of soil, and thousands of square miles in the delta thus receive a splendid top-dressing every year. The country is so enriched by this system of recuperation as 'to defy the utmost power of over-cropping to exhaust its fertility.' As compared with Northern India, Bengal is remarkable for the absence of large cities. Calcutta, the capital, is one of the largest cities in the world, having a population of 800,000. But the other towns are small, the next largest being Patna, with 180,000 inhabitants. Altogether there are 33 towns with upwards of 20,000 inhabitants, including Dacca, Gaya, Bhagalpur, Darbhanga, Monghyr, Arrah, Cuttack, Murshidabad, Dinapur, Burdwan, Krishnagar, Naihati, and Chittagong. On the Hughli, within 20 miles of Calcutta, stand the small French settlement of Chandernagore, the Portuguese Hughli, the Dutch Chinsura, and the Danish Serampur. All these are now places of diminished importance, but they give to the river Hughli a peculiar historical significance; all but Chandernagore have been ceded to England, the Danish town as late as 1845.

The climate of the plains is similar to that of the Indian seaboard everywhere—hot and humid. But inland in Behar it is much drier, with hot winds in summer; while in ascending the hills, every variety of climate is met with, till the perpetual snow-line is reached. The ordinary range of temperature in the plains is from about 52° F. in the cold season, to 103° in the shade in summer. In good European houses the temperature in the hottest months can be kept down to 95°. The hill-station of Darjiling, at an elevation of 6685 feet, has a mean temperature of 54°. In the eastern districts the average yearly rainfall is over 100 inches, while on the hillsides this is greatly exceeded. Calcutta has only 66, Darjiling 126, and Chera Punji (in Assam) has 527, the largest fall recorded in the world. Bengal is exposed to the heavy sweep of the Monsoon (q.v.), while cyclonic waves and river inundations are frequent, carrying at times terrible havoc far into the low-lying country. In a cyclonic wave on the Orissa coast in September 1885 there perished 5000 souls. At the same time, earthquakes are not infrequent, a severe shock which traversed the province in July 1885 having caused wide-

spread destruction of property. The people are mostly employed in agriculture, and among the chief products are indigo, jute, the opium poppy, oil-seeds, many varieties of rice, cinchona, tea, turmeric, pepper, the silk mulberry, cotton, sugar, and innumerable grains, spices, and drugs. Opium is a government monopoly; and cinchona is chiefly grown at the government plantation at Darjiling, although in 1887 there were four private plantations, yielding in that year 30,000 lb. of dry bark. The enormous wealth of Bengal lies in its vast production of articles of commerce. The foreign export trade, chiefly to Great Britain, amounts in value to upwards of 45 millions sterling, and the import trade to 27 millions. From its position in relation to the interior, a vast traffic passes through Bengal, much of the wheat of the North-west, and the jute and tea of Assam, finding an outlet at Calcutta. Thus, exclusive of opium and railway material, Calcutta receives yearly from the interior commercial products to the value of 40 millions sterling, which are mostly re-exported. It is illustrative of the state of communications that, of this total, 11 millions sterling arrive by country boat, 3½ millions by river steamer, 3¼ millions by road, and all the rest by railway. In 1887 the value of the exports were in the following proportion: opium, 17½ per cent.; jute, 15; grain and pulses, 14; tea, 13½; oil-seeds, 11½; indigo, 7½; hides and skins, 7½; raw cotton, 4½; raw and made silk, 2. Other important exports are lac, saltpetre, and castor-oil. The value of the jute exports varies from 3 millions sterling to 6 millions in a 'bumper' year. In 1887 Calcutta alone exported 63,903,563 gunny-bags. Great interest attaches to the cultivation of tea, which promises to take a front rank among Indian industries. There were in 1888, 369 tea-gardens in Darjiling district and the Terai, including Jalpaiguri; but the Assam produce also passes through the province. In 1885 the total exports amounted to 49,352,504 lb.; in 1886, to 54,648,565 lb.; and from 1st May to 30th November 1887, to 64,029,330 lb. Of this last amount, 62,000,000 lb. went to Great Britain, 1,500,000 to Australia, and the rest to America.

Bengal has considerable mineral wealth. In Burdwan, coal, iron, and copper are worked commercially. In 1886 there were in all 94 collieries, many of them worked by steam-power, and the total output was 951,001 tons. The Raniganj coal-field alone employs 61 powerful steam-engines. The jute and cotton mills around Calcutta are even a more striking indication of industry, there being 47 of these, employing over 40,000 hands. In 1888 Bengal had 1950 miles of railway, the various lines being the East Indian, Patna-Gaya, Tarakeswar, Eastern Bengal, Bengal Central, Dacca, Northern Bengal, Kamniya-Dhara, Tirlut, Bengal and North-western, Deogarh, Nalhati, and Darjiling-Himalayan. The last-named is one of the most wonderful mountain-railways in the world. There are 5110 miles of telegraph line in Bengal, conveying, in 1887, 64,372 messages.

Standing far in advance of the rest of India in education, the enlightened classes in Bengal are largely employed in government service. The province had in 1887 five colleges affiliated to the university of Calcutta; but there were in all 29 'institutions' catalogued as giving university education; 280 high schools, 736 middle English schools, 1157 middle vernacular schools, 3149 upper primary schools, and 45,338 lower primary schools. With engineering, normal, industrial, and other schools, there were in all 53,121 educational institutions, with 1,316,594 pupils. In 1887, at Calcutta University, of 1350 candidates for the first arts examination 716 passed; of 687 for the B.A. degree, 369; and of 83 for the M.A., 63. Bengal

has also 4221 private native schools, with 45,508 pupils.

The peaceful character of the people may be judged from the extraordinary fact that a total garrison of little more than 7000 troops is found adequate to the control and safe-keeping of a population of 70 millions. The total number of Europeans (including Eurasians) in 1881 was 39,473, of whom 25,566 were in Calcutta and its neighbourhood. The British-born Europeans were 10,583 in all. In Bengal there were also 802 Armenians, 309 Chinese (shoemakers and carpenters in Calcutta), 156 Parsis, and 1059 Jews.

Within the province there is a great variety of race, language, religion, and degrees of civilisation. A large proportion of the people are descended from the Aryan stock; but no sharp line can be drawn between those called Hindus and those reckoned aborigines or non-Aryan, as many low-caste Hindus are wholly aboriginal in blood. There is within the lieutenant-governorship every degree of civilisation from that of the English educated, sceptical Hindu gentleman, to the primitive hillmen. Although essentially a Hindu province, Bengal has 22 million Moslem inhabitants, mainly belonging to the upper classes, while 2½ millions are semi-savage tribesmen, and 128,000 are returned as Christian converts. Bengalis speaking Bengali (q.v.) number 36½ millions; Hindustani speakers, 25 millions. In Bengal Proper the Santals are the most notable aboriginal stock; in the feudatory states are the Kolarian or Dravidian Gonds, Kols, and Bhuiyas, as well as Indo-Chinese tribes. Of the whole population, the census returns 46,250,000 as 'unemployed,' but this number includes 30,466,000 women, besides male children. Two millions of women work as agricultural labourers, and nearly as many in manufactures. Of men 15,332,500 are landowners or agriculturists; over a million are commercial; 2½ millions industrial; 624,500 are professional; and 15,830,000 unemployed (mainly old men and children).

The history of Bengal is merged in that of India. The Mohammedan conquest dates from 1200. The East India Company made its earliest settlements, purely commercial in character, in the first half of the 17th century. The old settlement was the key-stone of the British empire in India; and in the opinion of General Chesney (*Indian Polity*) it is even yet the one part of India which would be worth retaining were the rest to go. Main facts in the strictly provincial history are the Permanent Settlement of the Land Revenue enacted by Lord Cornwallis in 1793, by which the rights of proprietors were defined and secured in perpetuity; and the Tenancy Act of 1885, a supplement to the older measure, intended to protect the rights of the cultivators. See INDIA.

Bengal, BAY OF, a portion of the Indian Ocean, of the figure of a triangle. Its southern side, drawn from Coromandel to Malacca, so as merely to leave on the right both Ceylon and Sumatra, may be stated at 1200 miles. The bay receives many large rivers—the Ganges and the Brahmaputra on the north, the Irawadi on the east, and on the west the Mahanadi, the Godavery, the Krishna, and the Cauvery. On the west coast there is hardly anything worthy of the name of harbour; while on the east there are many good ports—such as Akyab, Gwa, Maulmain, Tavoy River. The islands in the bay are very numerous, and include the Andaman, Nicobar, and Mergui groups. The monsoons prevail over the whole of the north part of the Indian Ocean, of which the Bay of Bengal is a part, and also over the maritime tracts of Bengal itself. See MONSOON.

Bengali Language, one of the seven great Aryan vernaculars of India, spoken mainly in the basin of the Lower Ganges. See INDIA.

Bengal Light, or BLUE LIGHT, is a brilliant signal-light used at sea in a case of shipwreck, and in ordinary pyrotechny for illuminating a district of country. It is prepared from nitre, sulphur, and the black sulphide of antimony. The materials are reduced to fine powder, thoroughly dried, and intimately mixed in the following proportions by weight: nitre, 6; sulphur, 2; black sulphide of antimony, 1. The mixture constitutes the Bengal light, and when kindled, immediately bursts into rapid and vivid combustion, evolving a brilliant, penetrating, but mellow light. As the fumes evolved during the combustion of the Bengal light contain an oxide of antimony, and are poisonous, the light cannot be used with safety in rooms or inclosed spaces.

Bengazî, a seaport town of North Africa, capital of the Turkish vilayet of Barea, finely situated on the east coast of the Gulf of Sidra. Pop. about 7000 (including some 2000 Levantines and 2500 Jews), who carry on a trade with Mediterranean ports in oxen, sheep, wool, sponges, ostrich feathers, and corn, receiving in return, hides, oil, soap, tobacco, &c.; but of the total imports (£111,500 in 1886), more than a third is made up of English cotton and woollen goods, coal and iron. There is a considerable caravan trade with the interior, where the nomad population pays an annual tribute of over £10,000, about a fourth of the entire revenue of the pashalic. About 260 ships yearly enter the harbour; it has a lighthouse, worked by the Constantinople 'Compagnie des Phares,' but is rapidly filling up with sand. The town is comparatively clean and well built, and possesses a fine bazaar, and several mosques and synagogues, and a Catholic church. Bengazî is the site of the ancient city of *Hesperis*, which rose to some importance under Ptolemy III., who called it *Berenice*, after his wife. The ruins lie to the north-east of the present town.

Bengel, JOHANN ALBRECHT, a distinguished German theologian and commentator, born at Winnenden, in Württemberg, June 24, 1687. He studied at Tübingen, where, in 1708, he became theological tutor; later in life he held several high offices. He died 2d November 1752. He was the first Protestant author who treated the exegesis of the New Testament in a thoroughly critical and judicious style. He did good service also in the rectification of the text of the Bible, and was the first to classify the manuscript authorities for the text of the New Testament into families (Asiatic and African). The short notes in his *Gnomon Novi Testamenti* (1742) are invaluable, and have been translated into various languages. They were made much use of by John Wesley in his *Notes on the New Testament*, which forms one of the standards of Wesleyan Methodism. Indeed, Wesley's work may be regarded as little more than an abridged translation from Bengel. An exposition of the revelation of St John (1740) and a chronological work—the *Ordo Temporum a Principio per Periodos Economicæ Divinæ Historiæ atque Prophetiæ* (1741)—gained for Bengel, in his time, a great reputation; some regarding him as an inspired prophet, but the majority as a visionary. In these works he calculated, on the basis he supposed to be laid down in the Apocalypse, that the 'world would endure for the space of 7777½ years, and that the 'breaking loose and the binding of Satan' would take place in the summer of 1836. See the Lives of him by Burk (2 vols. 1831-37) and Wüchster (1865), and Reiff's *Bengel und seine Schule* (1882).

Benguela (also *Benguella*), a country of Western Africa, bordering on the Atlantic, between Angola on the N. and Mossamedes on the S., and the eastern limits of which are not very definitely fixed. It is usually represented as lying between 10° and 15° S. lat. and 12° and 17° E. long. Its surface is generally mountainous, rising from the coast-line inland in a series of terraces; several important rivers flow through it in a north-west direction to the Atlantic. These rivers have numerous affluents, and water is everywhere so plentiful that it may be found by digging two feet beneath the surface. Sulphur, copper, and petroleum are found in the mountains, and also gold and silver in small quantities. The description of flora and fauna given for Angola (q.v.), of which Benguela is a part, of course applies equally to this latter district.—SÃO FELIPE DE BENGUELA, the Portuguese capital of the above region, is situated on a level plain near the sea, backed by a line of hills, in 12° 33' S. lat. It is very unhealthy, and has a straggling appearance. The loss of trade has, moreover, given it an air of desolation. It was a great slave-station at one time, exporting annually 20,000 slaves to Brazil and Cuba. The present population numbers about 2000 natives and a garrison of 100 men. The harbour is good, though difficult of entrance, but is seldom visited now. See *From Benguella to Yucra*, by Capello and Ivens (1883).

Bent, a river of South America, in the state of Bolivia, rises in the La Paz Cordillera of the Andes, at a height of almost 12,000 feet, and collects all the streams that rush down from the mountains between 14° and 18° S. lat. Flowing through the department of its own name, it joins the Mamore, after a course of over 1000 miles, to form the Madeira, one of the largest affluents of the Amazon. The current is very strong, and there are numerous rapids, but the river is traversed by the rafts and canoes of india-rubber collectors and bark gatherers.

Bencarîo, a poor, dirty, walled town of Spain, in the province of Castellon, 84 miles SW. of Tarragona. Pop. nearly 8000, who manufacture 'full-bodied' wines for export to Bordeaux, where they are used in cooking clarets for the English market. Fiery brandy and carobs are also exported.

Benicia, capital of Solano county, California, and formerly capital of the state, is situated on the Carquinez Strait, which connects the San Pablo and Suisun bays, 30 miles NE. of San Francisco. It has a commodious harbour, and is the seat of the United States arsenal for the Pacific coast. Cement, leather, and flour are manufactured, and the town contains several educational establishments, including St Augustine's Theological School. Pop. (1881) 1794.

Beni-Hassan, a village of Upper Egypt, on the east bank of the Nile, remarkable for the catacombs excavated in the low hills that rise in this part of the valley. These chambers are about thirty in number, and are supposed to have been used as sepulchres by the principal inhabitants of Hermopolis, a city that stood on the opposite side of the river. Some measure 60 by 40 feet, and pillars, left smooth for hieroglyphics, are cut out of the rock in imitation of the columns that support the roofs of buildings. The sides of the caverns are covered with paintings representing the customs of the ancient Egyptians; and these, although not so artistic as those in the Theban catacombs, are of earlier date, and throw much light on the manners and customs of the people.

Beni-Israel ('sons of Israel'), a remarkable settlement, evidently of Jewish origin, existing in the west of India, chiefly in Bombay and some coast towns. Its adherents abstain from unclean fish

or flesh, keep the great feasts, and have always strictly observed the Sabbath, while they have a distinctly Jewish cast of countenance. Their number is about 5000, mostly artisans, though some are soldiers. They claim to have existed for about a thousand years, and assert that they assumed the name by which they are known because that of Jehudim ('Jews') was hateful to the Mussulmans. Some of them know Hebrew, but Marathi is their ordinary language, and in it they possess some literature. They rarely intermarry with the ordinary Jews. Among them there exists a class, called Kala Israel ('Black Israel'), with which they never intermarry, as the latter are socially much inferior, being either their own descendants by heathen wives, or the offspring of proselytes. A similar distinction exists among the Jews of Cochín. In Bombay an official called *Nassi*, or head, dispenses justice among the Beni-Israel, while the principal authorities in religious matters are the *kajees*; but in the outlying villages these dispose of both ecclesiastical and civil business, with the aid of a council. It should be remembered that the Afghans call themselves Bani-Israel, and claim descent from King Saul.

Benin', a country of Western Africa, lying between the lower Niger and Dahomey. Benin was formerly one of the most powerful kingdoms in West Africa, but now it is broken up into several states of small importance, whilst all the coast-line is British, included either in the colony of Lagos, or in the Niger protectorate, which are separated by the Benin River. The soil is very fertile, producing rice, yams, palms, pepper, plantains, cotton, sugar, &c. The population is dense. The government, customs, and superstitions of Benin are like those of Ashanti. The capital, Benin, is 73 miles inland from the mouth of the Benin River, and has a population of above 15,000. Gato, a harbour lower down the river, is an important centre for the palm-oil trade. Warri or Jakn, 130 miles S.E. of Benin, is on an island surrounded by a branch of the Niger. The river Benin is 2 miles wide at its mouth, but has a troublesome bar of mud. The export trade of Benin consists of palm-oil, salt, jasper, wild-beast skins, &c. Benin was discovered by the Portuguese Alfonso de Aveiro (1486), when a large trade in slaves was carried on. The Dutch had settlements here for a time.

Benin, BIGHT OF, that portion of the Gulf of Guinea (q.v.) extending from Cape Formosa on the E. to Cape St Paul on the W., a distance of about 300 miles, with a coast-line of 400 miles. Several rivers empty themselves into the Bight of Benin, three of which are accessible to shipping. Palm-oil and ivory are the principal articles of trade at the towns on the coast.

Beni-Souef', a town of Central Egypt, capital of a province of the same name, on the right bank of the Nile, about 70 miles SSW. of Cairo. A branch line of railway has been constructed westward to Medinet el Fayum, and the town is the entrepôt of all the produce of the fertile valley of Fayum, and has cotton-mills and alabaster quarries. Pop. (1882) 10,085. At the same census, the pop. of the province was 219,573; area, 470 sq. m.

Benitier, the vase or vessel for Holy Water (q.v.) in Roman Catholic churches, known in England as the holy-water font, vat, pot, stone, stock, or stoup. Benitiers are either movable or fixed; portable ones, commonly of silver, being used in processions; and fixed benitiers placed near the doors of churches, so that the people may dip their fingers in the water, and cross themselves with it as they enter or leave the church.

Benjamin ('son of the right hand'), the youngest and most beloved of the sons of Jacob.

His mother, Rachel, died at his birth, naming the child with her last breath *Benoni* ('son of my pain'), but his father changed this ill-omened name to Benjamin. He was the eponymous founder of one of the twelve tribes of Israel. Its warriors were noted for their skill in archery, and for their cleverness in the use of the left hand. According to the Scripture numeration, the tribe in the desert numbered 35,400 warriors above twenty years of age; and on the entrance into Canaan, 45,600. Its territory, which was small but fertile, lay on the west side of the Jordan, between the tribes of Ephraim and Judah. The chief places were Jericho, Bethel, Gibeon, Gilgal, and Jerusalem, the last of which was on the confines of Judah. In the time of 'the Judges,' the tribe of Benjamin became involved in a war of extermination with the eleven other tribes of Israel, who put to death all the males save 600, who afterwards procured themselves wives by a kind of Sabine rape. Saul, the first king of Israel, was of the tribe of Benjamin, which remained loyal to his son, Ishbosheth. After the death of Solomon, Benjamin along with Judah formed the kingdom of Judah; and on the return from the captivity, these two constituted the principal element of the new Jewish nation. The apostle Paul was a Benjamite.

Benjamin OF TUDELA, a Jewish rabbi, was born in Navarre, Spain. He was the first European traveller who gave information respecting the distant East. Partly with commercial views, and partly to inquire into the condition of his dispersed co-religionists, he made a journey, in the years 1159-73, from Saragossa, through Italy and Greece, to Palestine, Persia, and the borders of China, returning by way of Egypt and Sicily. He died in 1173, the last year of his travels. His itinerary—originally written in Hebrew, and frequently republished in Latin, English, Dutch, and French translations—is occasionally concise and valuable; but on the whole must be accepted with qualifications. Like all the early travellers, Benjamin had a greedy ear for the marvellous. His blunders, too, are numerous. The best edition, by Asher (Lond. 1840), contains the original text, with an English translation and learned annotations.

Benjamin, JUDAH PHILIP, Q.C., born in 1811 at St Croix, West Indies, was the son of Anglo-Jewish parents, who emigrated to the United States, where he practised as a lawyer in New Orleans. He early engaged prominently in politics, serving first with the Whigs, and afterwards with the Democrats. He sat in the United States senate from 1852 till Louisiana's secession in 1860, and in February 1861 joined Jefferson Davis's cabinet as Attorney-general. He was for a few months Secretary of War, and then acted as Secretary of State until Davis's capture in 1865, when he escaped with some difficulty to England. He was called to the English bar in the following year, became a Q.C. in 1872, and retired from a large practice in 1881. He died in Paris, 6th May 1884. His *Treatise on the Law of Sale of Personal Property* reached a third edition in 1883.

Benjamin Tree. See BENZOIN.

Ben Lawers, a Perthshire mountain, flanking the NW. shore of Loch Tay. Easy of ascent, it is rich in alpine plants, and there is a magnificent view from its summit, which is 3984 feet high, or with the cairn at the top (rebuilt in 1878), 4004.

Ben Led'i, a mountain (2875 feet) of Perthshire, $\frac{1}{2}$ miles W. by N. of Callander. A jubilee cairn was erected on it in 1887.

Ben Lo'mond, a Scottish mountain in the NW. of Stirlingshire, on the east side of Loch

Lomond, 18½ miles N. of Dumbarton. It is 3192 feet high, and consists of mica slate, with veins of quartz, greenstone, and felspar porphyry. The summit is precipitous on the north side, with a gentle declivity on the south-east; it is covered with vegetation to the top. Seen from Loch Lomond, it appears a truncated cone, and from between Stirling and Aberfoyle, a regular pyramid. The magnificent view from the top, in clear weather, includes the whole length of Loch Lomond, with its diversified isles, and wooded and cultivated shores, the rich plains of Stirlingshire and the Lothians, the windings of the Forth, the castles of Stirling and Edinburgh, the heights of Lanarkshire, the vales of Renfrewshire and Ayrshire, the Firth of Clyde, the Isles of Arran and Bute, the Irish coast, Kintyre, and the Atlantic. The north semicircle of the horizon is bounded by Bens Lavers, Voirdiel, Ledl, Cruachan, and Nevis; while some of the beautiful Perthshire lochs are seen.

Ben Macdhui, a mountain (4296 feet) of South-west Aberdeenshire, 18 miles WNW. of Castletown-of-Braemar. One of the Cairngorms, it is not a conspicuous summit, but was formerly thought to be higher than Ben Nevis.

Bennet. See ARLINGTON.

Bennett, JAMES GORDON, founder and proprietor of the *New York Herald*, a native of Scotland, was born at Newmill, Keith, September 1, 1795. Trained for the Roman Catholic priesthood, he emigrated to America in 1819, where he became in turn teacher, proof-reader, journalist, and lecturer. He had acted as casual reporter and writer in connection with several journals, and had failed in one or two journalistic ventures, previous to the issue of the first number of the *New York Herald*, as an independent newspaper, May 6, 1835, price one cent. He spared no effort and expense in securing news, and laid the foundation of its after enormous success. It was the first newspaper to publish the stock lists and a daily money article. At his death, on June 1, 1872, the *Herald* profits were estimated at from £100,000 to £150,000 per annum.—His son, JAMES GORDON BENNETT, has shown like enterprise in the conduct of the *Herald*. H. M. Stanley (q.v.) was sent by him in 1870 on the mission which resulted in the finding of Livingstone; and in conjunction with the *Daily Telegraph*, he supplied the funds for the same explorer's extraordinary journey across Africa by way of the Congo (1874-78).

Bennett, JOHN HUGHES, an eminent physician, born in London, August 31, 1812, graduated at Edinburgh in 1837, and after four years' study in Paris and Germany, settled in Edinburgh as an extra-mural lecturer. A work, published in 1841, in which he recommended cod-liver-oil in all consumptive diseases, first brought him into notice, and in 1848 he was made professor of the Institutes of Medicine in Edinburgh University—a post which he held until 1874. His health gave way in 1871, and most of his last years were spent abroad. He died at Norwich, September 25, 1875. His original investigations are embodied in numerous treatises and articles in medical journals, and in his *Text-book of Physiology* (Edin. 1870-71).

Bennett, WILLIAM, born in 1804, graduated B.A. at Oxford in 1837, and, taking orders, was incumbent of Portman Chapel, and of St Paul's, Knightsbridge. The latter charge he resigned in 1851, in consequence of an anti-Tractarian outcry; but he was almost immediately presented to the vicarage of Frome in Somersetshire. An extreme High Churchman, he was author of many theological works, but is chiefly remembered through the case of *Sheppard v. Bennett* (1870-72), wherein his teaching on the Real Presence was pronounced to

be not inconsistent with the doctrine of the Church of England. He died 15th August 1886.

Bennett, SIR WILLIAM STERNDALE, Mus.D., D.C.L., English pianist and composer, was born at Sheffield, April 13, 1816. After studying for ten years at the Royal Academy, London, he was sent to complete his musical education at Leipzig. He attracted the notice of Mendelssohn at the Düsseldorf Musical Festival, appeared with success at Leipzig in the winter of 1837-38, and was received with great applause when he returned to London. In 1838 he was elected member of the Royal Society of Music, and in 1856 became professor of Music at Cambridge. At the opening of the International Exhibition, 1862, Tennyson's ode, *Uplift a Thousand Voices*, was sung to music by Bennett. In 1868 he became principal of the Royal Academy of Music; and was knighted in 1871. He died February 1, 1875, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. His published compositions include a symphony, four concert overtures, the two cantatas *The May Queen* and *The Woman of Samaria*, and a few songs. But his peculiar individuality is best exemplified in his works for the pianoforte, of whose capabilities he was a great master; of these, the principal are four concertos and a capriccio with orchestra, two sonatas, and numerous studies. His music is characterised by graceful fancy and delicate finish in the minutest details, rather than commanding power or depth of feeling. His earlier works resemble Mendelssohn's, but a better parallel for the genius of his music generally has been pointed out in Scarlatti, his favourite master in pianoforte music. In his later years his creative activity was almost sunk in that of the teacher. Since his cordial recognition by Mendelssohn and Schumann, he has remained till lately almost the sole representative of English music at all widely known on the Continent.

Ben Nevis, a mountain of Inverness-shire, 7 miles SE. of Fort William, by a new carriage-road opened in 1880. The loftiest summit in Great Britain, it has a height of 4406 feet, with a tremendous precipice of 1500 feet on the north-east side. Granite and gneiss form the base of the mountain, which above is composed of porphyry. Till a road to the top was made in 1883, the mountain was difficult of ascent. A meteorological observatory was erected on the summit in 1883, and daily observations have since been made and communicated by telegraph wire to the lower world. There is now beside it a shelter for travellers.

Bennigsen, LEVIN AUGUST THEOPHIL, COUNT, a general in the Russian service, was born at Brunswick in 1745, and having entered the Russian army in 1773, soon attracted the notice of the Empress Catherine, who employed him to carry out her designs against Poland. He fought at Pultusk (1806), and held the chief command in the murderous struggle at Eylau (1807). When Napoleon invaded Russia in 1812, Bennigsen commanded the Russian centre on the bloody field of Borodino. Before the French began their retreat, he gained a brilliant victory over Murat at Tarutino (October 18). Differences with Kutusov made him retire for a time from the service; but after that general's death, he took the command of the Russian army of reserve, fought victoriously at the battle of Leipzig, and was created count by the Emperor Alexander on the field. Failing health made him retire finally, in 1818, to his paternal estate in Hanover, where he died in 1826.

Ben-Rhydding, a hydropathic establishment in the West Riding of Yorkshire, in a beautiful situation on the right bank of the river Wharfe, 12 miles NW. of Leeds. The building, erected in 1846 at the cost of nearly £30,000, is a very

imposing pile, on an eminence half-way up the side of the valley. There is accommodation for a large number of patients and visitors, and extensive pleasure-grounds around. In addition to the usual appliances of the water-cure, and a variety of gymnastic exercises, Dr McLeod (who died in 1875) introduced the compressed-air bath. The name Ben-Rhydding is a modern coinage.

Benshie. See BANSHEE.

Benson, EDWARD WHITE, Archbishop of Canterbury, born near Birmingham in 1829, graduated at Cambridge in 1852 as a first-class and senior optime, and was for some time a master at Rugby. He held the head-mastership of Wellington College from its opening in 1858 to 1872, when he was made a canon and chancellor of Lincoln Cathedral. In 1875 he was appointed chaplain-in-ordinary to the Queen, and in December 1876 was nominated to the newly-erected bishopric of Truro. Here he began the building of a cathedral (1880-87), most of the first cost, £110,000, having been gathered by his own energy. In 1882 he was translated to Canterbury to succeed Dr Tait as primate of all England. A high churchman, Dr Benson has been frequently select preacher at both universities, and has published several volumes of sermons.

Bent Grass (*Agrostis*), a genus containing about sixty species of grasses widely distributed through temperate and cold climates. All of slender and delicate appearance, some are very useful as pasture-grasses and for hay, upon account of their adaptation to certain kinds of soil, although none of them is regarded as very nutritious.—The Common Bent Grass (*A. vulgaris*) abounds on dry elevated pastures, but is apt to become a troublesome weed in arable land. *A. canina* is also very common.—Marsh Bent Grass (*A. alba*) is common in moist situations, and a variety (*A. stolonifera*) was formerly in considerable repute under the name of Florin Grass. *A. dispar*, the American Herd Grass, or Red Top Grass, is cultivated in France; and other species are of agricultural interest (see PASTURE), while the rarer and more delicate *A. spica-venti* is chiefly admired for its graceful appearance. Most of the European species are North American also. In the United States and Canada some of the bents are highly important as pasture and forage plants. On suitable soils *A. vulgaris* and *alba* give excellent crops of good hay.

Bentham, GEORGE, botanist, nephew of the jurist, was born in 1800 at Stoke, a village since absorbed in Portsmouth. The son of an officer who had risen to high rank in both the Russian and English services, young Bentham's earlier years were spent largely abroad, but from 1826 to 1832 he lived with his uncle, to whom he acted as secretary while carrying on his own legal studies. His *Outlines of a New System of Logic* (1827) is a remarkable book; herein for the first time is clearly set forth the doctrine of the quantification of the predicate, in which he thus anticipated Sir William Hamilton. Only sixty copies, however, were sold when the publishers became bankrupt; and the fact that the work contained this discovery was not recognised until 1850, although Bentham's claims have been fully vindicated since. Though called to the bar, he soon abandoned the law for botany. He had catalogued the plants of the Pyrenees (1824-26), and had been elected in 1828 a Fellow of the Linnean Society, and in 1829 secretary of the Horticultural Society. He now devoted himself to his new study, and soon published his important *Labiatarum Genera et Species* (1832-36). In 1854 he presented his collections to the Royal Gardens at Kew, where for the rest of

his life he was engaged almost every day in his task of systematisation and description. He there elaborated the flora of Hong-Kong and of Australia, and in conjunction with Sir Joseph Hooker, completed his exhaustive and valuable *Genera Plantarum* (3 vols. 1862-83), which may be said to summarise our present knowledge of botany. His numerous other writings have done much to elucidate the flora of almost every region outside the Arctic circle. He died 10th September 1884. From 1863 to 1874 president of the Linnean Society, Bentham was a member of many other British and foreign learned bodies, and in 1878, on the completion of the Australian flora, received a Companionship of St Michael and St George. See an article in *Nature*, October 2, 1884.

Bentham, JEREMY, writer on jurisprudence and ethics, was the son of a pushing attorney in London, where he was born (in Red Lion Street, Honddsditch) on 15th February 1748. At the age of seven he was sent to Westminster School; and in 1760, being only twelve years old, he entered Queen's College, Oxford, where he took his B.A. degree in 1763. But though his years were so tender, he appears to have been less unprepared than might be supposed to benefit by the university; for before entering it, he had already, by his precocious tendency to speculation, acquired the title of 'the philosopher.' His father, who expected him to become Lord Chancellor, set him to study law at Lincoln's Inn, where he was called to the bar in 1772. He never practised, however, having a strong distaste for his profession, which is paraded in many of his writings. Turning from the practice of law to its theory, he became the greatest critic of legislation and government in his day. His first publication, *A Fragment on Government* (1776), was an acutely hypercritical examination of a passage in Blackstone's *Commentaries*, prompted, as he has himself explained, by 'a passion for improvement in those shapes in which the lot of mankind is meliorated by it.' The *Fragment* abounds in fine, original, and just observation; it contains the germs of most of his after writings, and must be highly esteemed, if we look away from its disproportion to its subject and the writer's disregard of method. It procured him, in 1781, the acquaintance of Lord Shelburne (Lansdowne), at whose seat, Bowood, he afterwards passed perhaps the most agreeable hours of his life. Here it was that he met Miss Caroline Fox (Lord Holland's sister), who was still a young lady, when Bentham, in 1805, offered her his heart and hand, and was rejected 'with all respect.'

On the death of his father in 1792, he succeeded to property in London, and to farms in Essex, yielding from £500 to £600 a year. He lived frugally, but with elegance, in Queen Square, Westminster; and employing young men as secretaries, got through an immense amount of work and correspondence. By a life of temperance and great self-complacency, in the society of a few devoted friends ('who,' says Sir James Mackintosh, 'more resembled the hearers of an Athenian philosopher than the proselytes of a modern writer'), he attained the age of eighty-four, dying 6th June 1832. In accordance with his own directions, his body was dissected; and his skeleton, dressed in his accustomed garb, is preserved at University College, London.

A pamphlet on *The Hard Labour Bill* (1778), recommending an improvement in the mode of criminal punishment, was an excerpt from his *Rationale of Punishments and Rewards* (1823), which was written in 1775, but first saw the light in a French translation by Dumont (1811). In these two works, Bentham did more than any other writer of his time to rationalise the theory

of punishments by consideration of their various kinds and effects, their true objects, and the conditions of their efficiency. He published in 1787 *Defence of Usury*; in 1789, *Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation*; in 1802, *Discourses on Civil and Penal Legislation*; in 1813, *A Treatise on Judicial Evidence*; in 1817, *Paper relative to Codification and Public Instruction*; in 1824, *The Book of Fallacies*. His works were collected and edited in 1843 by Bowring and John Hill Burton, in 11 volumes. It is well, however, for Bentham's reputation, that it does not rest wholly on his published writings; and that he found in Dumont, the Mills, and Sir Samuel Romilly, generous disciples to diffuse his principles and promote his fame. In his early works, his style was clear, free, spirited, and often eloquent; but, from 1810, it became overloaded and darkened with technical terms. It is in regard to these more especially that M. Dumont has most materially served his master by arranging and translating them into French, through the medium of which language Bentham's doctrines were propagated throughout Europe, till they became more popular abroad than at home. James Mill, himself an independent thinker, did much in his writings to extend the application in new directions of Bentham's principles, a work in which, apart from his original efforts, he achieved a lasting monument of his own subtlety and vigour of mind.

In all Bentham's ethical and political writings, the doctrine of utility is the leading and pervading principle; and his favourite vehicle for its expression is the phrase, 'the greatest happiness of the greatest number,' which was first coined by Priestley, but owes its prominence in politics to Bentham. 'In this phrase,' he says, 'I saw delineated for the first time a plain as well as a true standard for whatever is right or wrong, useful, useless, or mischievous, in human conduct, whether in the field of morals or politics.' In the application of the principle Bentham arrived at various conclusions, which he advocated irrespective of the conditions of society in his day, and of the laws of social growth, which, indeed, neither he nor his contemporaries understood. He demanded nothing less than the immediate remodelling of the government, and the codification and reconstruction of the laws; and insisted, among other changes, on universal suffrage, annual parliaments, vote by ballot, and paid representatives. Many of his schemes have been realised, many more are in the course of realisation; the end and object of them all was the general welfare, and his chief error lay in conceiving that organic changes are possible through any other process than that of growth and modification of popular needs, ideas, and institutions. It was this error that led the philosopher, in his closet in London, to devise codes of laws for Russia (through which country he made a tour in 1785) and America, the adoption of which would have been equivalent to revolutions in these countries, and then bitterly to bewail the folly of mankind when his schemes were rejected. But in Mill's words, 'he found the philosophy of law a chaos, and left it a science.' He may be regarded as the philosophic pioneer of Liberalism, and even of Radicalism, and as such will always have a high place in the history of political thought. See J. H. Burton's *Benthamiana* (1843), and the article UTILITARIANISM.

Benthamia, a sub-genus of *Cornaceæ* (q.v.) in which the many small drupes grow together. *Benthamia fragifera*, a native of Nepal, is a small tree, with lanceolate leaves, fragrant flowers, and a reddish fruit, not unlike a mulberry, but larger; not unpleasant to the taste. Its fruit has been known to ripen in the south of England.

Bentinck, WILLIAM, first Earl of Portland, born in Holland in 1649, was the descendant of a noble family which in the 14th century had migrated from the Palatinate to Gelderland, where it is still represented by a younger line. He was from boyhood the favourite and friend of William III., and was founder of the fortune of the Bentinck family in England. He was constantly employed, both in military and diplomatic services, and trusted beyond all others with the secrets of the king's foreign policy. After the coronation of William and Mary, Bentinck was created an English peer, and presented with large estates and numerous offices in the royal household; but these last he resigned in 1699, from jealousy of Arnold van Keppel, Earl of Albemarle. The king's affection, however, never wavered to the end of his life, and his last audible words were an inquiry for his favourite. Bentinck died in 1709.—WILLIAM CAVENDISH BENTINCK, third Duke of Portland, born in 1738, entered Lord Rockingham's cabinet in 1765, and succeeded him as leader of the Whig party. He was twice prime-minister—April to December 1783, and 1807-9; but his best work was done as Home Secretary under Pitt, with charge of Irish affairs, throughout the eventful period 1794-1801. He died a month after resigning the premiership, November 30, 1809.—LORD WILLIAM CAVENDISH BENTINCK, Indian statesman, second son of the third Duke of Portland, was born in 1774, and became an ensign in the Coldstream Guards in 1791. Having served with distinction in Flanders and Italy, he was governor of Madras (1803-7), where he advocated several useful reforms; but his proscription of sepoy beards and turbans led to the massacre of Vellore, and his own immediate recall. From 1808 to 1814 he was serving in the Peninsula and Italy; in 1827 he was appointed governor-general of Bengal, and in 1833 became the first governor-general of India. His policy in India was pacific and popular, and his viceroyship was marked by the suppression of suttee and thuggism, the educating and employment of natives, the opening up of the internal communication, and the establishment of the overland route. He returned to England in 1835, and died at Paris, June 17, 1839.

LORD GEORGE BENTINCK, sportsman and leader of the Protectionists, the third son of the fourth Duke of Portland, was born 27th February 1802, and, entering the army in 1819, attained six years afterwards the rank of major. From 1822 to 1825 he was private secretary to his uncle, Mr Canning, and in 1826 was elected member for Lynn-Regis. At first, attached to no party, he voted for Catholic emancipation and for the principle of the Reform Bill, but against several of its most important details, and in favour of the celebrated Chandos clause. On the formation of Peel's ministry in December 1834, he and his friend Lord Stanley, afterwards Earl of Derby, with some adherents, formed a separate section in the House of Commons; but, on Peel's resignation in the following April, Lord George openly joined the Conservative party, and in 1841 received from Peel an offer of office, which he declined, being at that time too deeply engrossed in racing and field-sports. When Peel introduced his free-trade measures in 1845, a large body of his supporters formed a Protection party, Lord George assuming its leadership, and taking henceforth a prominent part in the debates. A hard hitter, and a master of figures, he was no orator; yet his speeches in the session of 1846 were most damaging to the government of Sir Robert Peel, and contributed in no small degree to hasten its downfall. He was always a champion of religious liberty, advocating the removal of the Jewish disabilities, and the endowment of the Irish Catholic

clergy out of the land; and at the time of the potato famine he wanted government to lend £16,000,000 'for reproductive works in Ireland. He was an 'Admirable Crichton' of field-sports, and though he never did win the Derby, had brilliant success on the turf, whose dishonest practices he showed the utmost zeal at all times to suppress. He died suddenly, 21st September 1848, whilst walking near Welbeck Abbey, Notts. See his *Life* by Lord Beaconsfield (1851).

Bentley, RICHARD, scholar, was born of yeoman parentage at Oulton, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, January 27, 1662. After four years at Wakefield grammar-school, he entered St John's College, Cambridge, in 1676, as subsizar. Little is known of his university career, except that he showed early a strong taste for the cultivation of ancient learning. At the usual time, he took the degree of Bachelor of Arts; and in 1682 he was appointed by his college to the head-mastership of Spalding grammar-school, in Lincolnshire. Within the year he resigned this situation to become tutor to the son of Dr Stillingfleet, then Dean of St Paul's, and subsequently Bishop of Worcester. In 1689 he accompanied his pupil to Oxford, where he had full scope for the cultivation of classical studies; and that he succeeded in acquiring there some local reputation is evinced by his having been twice appointed to deliver the Boyle Lectures on the Evidences of Natural and Revealed Religion. He had taken orders in 1690, and to Stillingfleet he owed various good ecclesiastical preferments, with the post of librarian of the King's library at St James's. His *Letter to Mill* (1691) on the chronicle John Malelas is itself a masterpiece; but it was the *Dissertation upon the Epistles of Phalaris* (1699), an expansion of an earlier essay, that established his reputation throughout Europe, and may be said to have commenced a new era in scholarship. The principles of historical criticism were then unknown, and their first application to establish that the so-called Epistles of Phalaris (q.v.), which professed to have been written in the 6th century B.C., were the forgery of a period some eight centuries later, filled the learned world with astonishment.

In 1700 Bentley was appointed Master of Trinity College, Cambridge; and in the following year he married Joanna Bernard, the daughter of a Huntingdonshire knight. The history of Bentley's Mastership of Trinity is the narrative of an unbroken series of quarrels and litigations, provoked by his arrogance and rapacity, for which, it must be confessed, he was fully as well known during his lifetime as for his learning. He contrived, nevertheless, in 1717, to get himself appointed regius professor of Divinity, and, by his boldness and perseverance, managed to pass scathless through all his controversies. Notwithstanding that in 1714 one Bishop of Ely, the visitor of Trinity, was hindered only by death from pronouncing sentence depriving him of his mastership, that in 1718 the university senate deprived him of his degrees, and that in 1734 another bishop did actually pronounce his deposition, he was in full possession of both mastership and degrees at the time of his death. This stormy life did not impair his literary activity. He edited various classics—among others, Horace (1711) and Terence (1726)—upon which he bestowed vast labour. Emendations were at once his forte and foible—the latter conspicuously in his edition of *Paradise Lost* (1732). He is, perhaps, more celebrated for what he proposed than for what he actually performed. The proposal (1720) to print an edition of the Greek New Testament, in which the received text should be corrected by a careful comparison with the Vulgate and all the oldest

existing Greek MSS., was then singularly bold, and evoked violent opposition. He failed in carrying out his proposal; but the principles of criticism which he maintained have since been triumphantly established, and have led to important results in other hands, as in Lachmann's. He is to be regarded as the founder of that school of classical criticism of which Porson afterwards exhibited the chief excellences as well as the chief defects; and which, though it was itself prevented by too strict attention to minute verbal detail from ever achieving much, yet diligently collected many of the facts which men of wider views are still grouping together to form the modern science of comparative philology. Bentley died 14th July 1742, leaving behind him one son, Richard, who inherited much of his father's taste with none of his energy, and two daughters, one of whom, Joanna, married, and was the mother of Richard Cumberland the dramatist. See Monk's *Life of Bentley* (2 vols. 1833); Jebb's *Bentley* (1882); and Tyce's unfinished edition of his works (3 vols. 1836-38).

Benton, THOMAS HART, an American statesman, born in North Carolina in 1782, settled in Tennessee, where he studied law, and was elected to the legislature. In 1812 he raised a regiment of volunteers, and also served on General Jackson's staff. After the war, he started a newspaper in St Louis, by which he became involved in several duels. On the admission of Missouri as a state, he was chosen United States senator in 1820, and in this post, during thirty years' continuous service, took a leading part in public affairs. He died in Washington, April 10, 1858. A determined opponent of Calhoun's nullification scheme, he afterwards supported Jackson in his war on the United States bank, and earned the sobriquet of 'Old Bullion' by his opposition to the paper currency. He published *A Thirty Years' View, or a History of the Working of the American Government from 1820 to 1850* (2 vols. 1854-56); and *An Abridgment of the Debates of Congress from 1789 to 1856* (15 vols. 1857).

Bennuë (spelt also *Binnuë* and, by Dr Barth, *Bennuë*), an important river of Central Africa, forming the great eastern affluent of the Niger, which it joins about 230 miles above the mouth of that river in the Gulf of Guinea. Dr Barth describes the Bennuë as being 800 yards across, with a general depth in its channel of 11 feet, and 'a liability to rise under ordinary circumstances at least 30 feet, or even at times 50 feet higher.' In 1854 an expedition under the command of Dr Baikie explored it as far as Dulti, a place about 350 miles above its confluence with the Niger. In a second expedition, undertaken in 1862, Dr Baikie explored as far north as Kano, in Hausa. The Church Missionary Society sent out an exploring party in 1879, under Mr Flegel, who, in 1883, reached its sources, in the Adamawa (q.v.) country, in 7° 30' N. lat. and 13° E. long. Flowing through wide tracts of fertile territory, and navigable for 700 miles, the Bennuë is a highway into the heart of the Soudan, and is evidently destined to be an important channel of commerce with Central Africa.

Benyowsky, MAURICE AUGUSTUS, COUNT DE, a remarkable Hungarian adventurer, born in 1741. While fighting for the Polish Confederation, he was taken prisoner in 1769, and banished to Kamchatka, where he was made tutor in the family of the governor. In this capacity he gained the affections of the daughter of the governor, by whom he was assisted in his plans for escape; which, however, was not effected without a struggle, in which the governor was killed. Benyowsky, with ninety-six companions, set sail in a ship well armed and provisioned, and with a considerable amount of

treasure, and reached France in 1772. Invited by the French government to found a colony at Madagascar, he arrived on the island in February 1774, and was made king in 1776 by the chiefs in conclave, he adopting the native costume. His relations with the French were now not always friendly, and involving himself in contention with the government of Mauritius, he was killed in battle, May 23, 1786. See *Memoirs and Travels of Benjowsky, written by Himself* (1790).

Benzene, a compound of carbon and hydrogen, C_6H_6 , discovered by Faraday in 1825, in a tarry liquid resulting from the distillation of oil. It must not be confounded with Benzine or Benzoyl, which names have at different times been used for benzene. *Benzine* is the name given to a distillate from American petroleum, which is much used as a substitute for turpentine, and for dissolving oils and fats. *Benzoyl* is the commercial name applied to a mixture of substances, including benzene and its homologues. *Benzol* is synonymous with benzene, while *benzoline* is a name applied to benzine and impure benzene indiscriminately. Benzene is found amongst the products of the destructive distillation of a great many organic bodies. The most abundant source of benzene is coal-tar (see GAS, COAL). On distilling coal-tar, the more volatile liquid hydrocarbons pass over first, mixed with acid and basic compounds, and constitute what is known as light oil or coal naphtha. When the crude naphtha is purified by redistillation and subsequent agitation, first with sulphuric acid, and then with caustic soda, an oil is obtained which consists mainly of benzene and its homologues. By submitting this oil to a process of fractional distillation, a portion is obtained, boiling at 176° - 212° (80° C.- 100° C.), from which benzene crystallises out on cooling the liquid to 32° (0° C.). The benzene is freed by pressure from the substances remaining liquid at this temperature. Commercial benzene is, however, always impure. Pure benzene is most readily obtained by cautiously distilling a mixture of one part benzoic acid with three parts of slaked lime. The mixture of benzene and water which passes over is shaken up with a little potash, the benzene decanted, treated with calcium chloride to take up the water, and the dried benzene thus obtained is rectified on the water-bath. At ordinary temperatures benzene is a thin, limpid, colorless liquid, evolving a characteristic and pleasant odour. At 32° (0° C.) it crystallises in beautiful fern-like forms, which liquefy at 40° (4° - 5° C.); and at 176° (80° C.) it boils, evolving a gas which is very inflammable, burning with a smoky flame. It readily dissolves in alcohol, ether, turpentine, and wood-spirit, but is insoluble in water. It is valuable to the chemist from the great power it possesses of dissolving caoutchouc, gutta-percha, wax, camphor, and fatty substances. Impure benzene is thus much used in removing grease-stains from woollen or silken articles of clothing. When heated, benzene also dissolves sulphur, phosphorus, and iodine. Although commercially of importance, from the chemical point of view benzene is a compound of surpassing interest. It consists of 12 parts of carbon by weight, with 1 part of hydrogen, and might therefore be represented by the formula CH ; but it has been found that the molecule weighs six times as much as this, and requires the formula C_6H_6 . The manner in which the atoms are arranged in the molecule has already been referred to in the article on the AROMATIC SERIES, and it will be seen by a reference to the graphic formula there given, that the number of compounds derivable from benzene is practically unlimited. The so-called coal-tar colours are all derivations of benzene (see DYE-STUFFS, and ANILINE).

Benzerta. See BIZERTA.

Benzoic Acid, or the *Flowers of Benzoïn*, has been known since the beginning of the 17th century, and occurs naturally in many balsamiferous plants, and especially in benzoïn gum, from which it may be readily obtained by several processes. The simplest is as follows: The coarsely-powdered resin is gently heated in a shallow iron pot, the mouth of which is closed by a diaphragm of coarse filter-paper. Over this is tied a covering of thick paper somewhat like a hat. The porous filter-paper allows the vapours of benzoic acid to pass through it, but keeps back the empyreumatic products. At the end of the operation, the hat-like cover is found lined with a crystalline sublimate of benzoic acid which is nearly pure, being mixed only with traces of a volatile oil, which gives it a pleasant smell like vanilla. The benzoic acid thus prepared is the best for pharmaceutical purposes. Benzoic acid is also prepared from the urine of granivorous animals. The urine is allowed to putrefy, then mixed with milk of lime and filtered. The filtrate, concentrated by evaporation, gives with hydrochloric acid a precipitate of benzoic acid. Benzoic acid thus prepared is cheaper, but always smells of urine. By subliming it with a small quantity of benzoïn gum, the pleasant vanilla-like smell may, however, be imparted to it also. Benzoic acid is always in the form of snow-white, glistening, feathery crystals, with a fairy aspect of lightness, having a warm, acid, and acidulous taste. It is readily dissolved by alcohol and ether, but sparingly soluble in water, which, however, dissolves it readily on the addition of borax or phosphate of soda. Benzoic acid is one of the materials present in *Tinctura Camphoræ Composita*, and has been administered in chronic bronchial affections, its value being due to its locally stimulating properties. It has also been used largely in genito-urinary diseases. Benzoic acid taken into the stomach increases within three or four hours the quantity of hippuric acid in the urine. It forms a numerous class of compounds with the oxides of the metals, lime, &c., called benzoates. The chemical formula for crystallised benzoic acid is C_6H_5COOH . Oil of bitter almonds (hydride of benzoyl) is the aldehyde of benzoic acid (see ALDEHYDES), and the corresponding alcohol, benzoic or benzylic alcohol, is also known.

Benzoïn, BENJAMIN, or BENZOIC GUM, a fragrant resinous substance, formed by the drying of the milky juice of the Benzoïn or Benjamin Tree (*Styrax*, or *Lithocarpus benzoïn*), a tree of the natural order Styracaceæ, and a congener of that which produces Storax (q.v.), a native of Siam, and of Sumatra and other islands of the Indian Archipelago. Benzoïn is first mentioned by Batuta in 1350 A.D. as Java Frankincense (Arabic *Lubân Jâvi*), corrupted into Banjawi, Benjoïn, Benzoë, &c. Benzoïn comes to us in reddish-yellow transparent pieces. Different varieties, said to depend upon the age of the trees, are of very different price; the whitest, said to be the produce of the youngest trees, being the best. Amygdaloidal benzoïn contains whitish almond-like tears diffused through its substance. Benzoïn is obtained by making longitudinal or oblique incisions in the stem of the tree: the liquid which exudes soon hardens by exposure to the sun and air. Benzoïn contains about 14 to 18 per cent. of Benzoic Acid (q.v.), although in some varieties this is either entirely wanting or replaced by 11 per cent. of cinnamic acid. A very fragrant oil, *styröl*, is present in small proportion (a few drops from a pound), the bulk of the gum consisting of resin. Benzoïn is used in perfumery, in pastilles, and for incense, being very fragrant and aromatic, and

yielding a pleasant odour when burned. Its compound tincture is prepared by macerating benzoin, along with storax, tolu, and aloes, in rectified spirit for seven days, and subsequent straining, when the Compound Tincture of Benjamin (called variously Wound Balsam, Friar's Balsam, the Commander's Balsam, or Jesuit's Drops) is obtained. It is frequently applied to wounds directly; or is used as an exterior varnish over a bandage. In the preparation of court-plaster, sarcenet (generally coloured black) is brushed over with a solution of isinglass, and then with a coating of the alcoholic solution of benzoin. The tincture is likewise used in the preparation of soaps and washes. Benzoin possesses stimulant properties, and was formerly much used in medicine, particularly in chronic pulmonary affections. The name *Asua dulcis* (q.v.) was given to it in the 16th century.—The milky juice of *Terminalia benzoin*, a tree of the natural order of Combretaceæ, becomes, on drying, a fragrant resinous substance resembling benzoin, which is used as incense in the churches of the Mauritius. It was at one time erroneously supposed that benzoin was the produce of *Benzoin odoriferum*, formerly *Laurus benzoin*, a deciduous shrub of the natural order Lauraceæ, a native of Virginia, about 10 to 12 feet high, which still bears in America the name of Benzoin, or Benjamin Tree, and is also called Spicewood or Fever-bush. It has a highly aromatic bark, which is stimulant and tonic, and is much used in North America in intermittent fevers. The berries are also aromatic and stimulant.

Benzoyl, the radical of the benzoic series, represented by the formula C_7H_5O , is a hypothetical substance supposed to exist in benzoic acid and many other bodies. Thus, benzoic acid, from this point of view, is regarded as hydrate of benzoyl, C_7H_5OOH , and the oil of bitter almonds as the hydride of benzoyl, C_7H_5OH . As further examples of this group of bodies, we may mention benzoyl chloride, C_7H_5OCl , and benzoyl cyanide, C_7H_5OCN . *Dibenzoyl* ($C_7H_5O_2$), or benzoyl, as it is sometimes called, may be looked on as the above-mentioned radical in the free state, and is prepared by the action of sodium amalgam on benzoyl chloride, in small colourless prisms, soluble in alcohol and ether.

HYDRIDE OF BENZOYL is the volatile or essential oil belonging to the benzoic series. It is represented by the formula C_7H_5OH , and has been already considered under ALMONDS, VOLATILE OIL or ESSENTIAL OIL OF (q.v.).

Beowulf, the name of an Anglo-Saxon poem of epic character, which relates the heroic deeds of Beowulf, prince of the Geatas, especially his struggle with the Grendel, a grisly monster of the fens and moors, as well as its mother; and a long time after with a dragon, which victory cost him his life.

The only manuscript of the poem in existence is an inaccurately written parchment codex now in the British Museum, which once belonged to Sir Robert Cotton, and was much injured by the fire in the Cottonian Library in 1731. The poem consists of 6356 short alliterative lines, and is the oldest large poem in any Teutonic tongue. Its language, according to Mr T. Arnold, is neither Northumbrian nor East Anglian, but with some slight Northumbrian exceptions, the pure literary Anglo-Saxon of Wessex; and the poem must be referred to a very early stage of Anglo-Saxon culture, when Christianity, though it had been introduced, had not yet supplanted the fierce joy in fighting, in song, and feasting and senfaring, so characteristic of the old Norse heathendom. The poem in its present form may be assigned with some degree of confidence to an early period in the 8th century;

but it is a hazardous matter to determine whether it was originally carried by our forefathers from the Continent, and afterwards rewritten and worked up into literary form by a late Anglo-Saxon editor, or was entirely due to the invention of an early but native Anglo-Saxon poet. Of course the poem, as we have it, has undergone considerable alterations, and contains many interpolations. Mr Sweet's opinion is that it is a poem composed before the Teutonic conquest of England. 'The localities are purely continental: the scenery is laid among the Goths of Sweden and the Danes; in the episodes the Swedes, Frisians, and other continental tribes appear, while there is no mention of England, or the adjoining countries and nations. It is evident that the poem, as a whole, cannot have been composed directly from the current traditions of the period: the variety of incidents, their artistic treatment, and the episodes introduced, show that the poet had some foundation to work upon, that there must have been short epic songs about the exploits of Beowulf current among the people, which he combined into a whole. In the poem, as it stands, we can easily distinguish four elements: the prologue, the two chief exploits of Beowulf against Grendel and the dragon, and the episodes.'

Ettmüller and Müllenhoff believe the work to be an amalgam of several poems, the latter maintaining that it is made up of four distinct lays or *Heldensagen*, written by at least four hands, the introduction again being due to a still later writer; while each lay has been enlarged by later interpolations, which are detailed with all the certainty and boldness of the true German critic. This ingenious reasoning wears on its face, in the absence of direct contrary evidence, a delusive air of accuracy. It is a matter of great difficulty to determine how much history and how much romance or myth there is in the old poem of *Beowulf*. Thorpe thought it was a metrical paraphrase of an heroic saga, composed in the south-west of Sweden in the old common language of the north, and probably brought to this country during the sway of the Danish dynasty. Kemble, in his edition of the text (1833), assumed the leading characters of the poem to be historical, and assigned the events to the commencement of the 5th century, but in his translation four years later he assigned the incidents of the poem to the poetical cycle of the Angles, seeing in the central figure a god rather than a man with superhuman attributes of defending, protecting, and redeeming the people. Grein and Mr T. Arnold discover in the poem an historical foundation, the former considering that it treats of actions done among the Danes in Denmark, the latter recognising in King Hygelac the historical King Chocilagus spoken of by Gregory of Tours, as well as in the *Gesta Regum Francorum*. Mr Haigh is the originator of a bold but untenable theory which claims for the poem a purely English origin, as the composition of a Northumbrian *scop* familiar with the scenes described, and identifies many of the places mentioned in the poem with localities on the Yorkshire coast. With this Professor Henry Morley substantially agrees, thinking that the poem was originally a Danish tale made English by a poet who lived in the Whitby district, and who, when he described or suggested scenery, produced impressions from the only scenery he knew. Professor Earle believes that the poem is Anglian, and was written in the reign of Offa, king of Mercia, between the years 755 and 794, its aim being to set up an heroic example as the institution of a prince. The central figure is mythical, but in all points exemplary, and particularly resembling King Offa. He thinks further that the saga was probably written originally in Latin, and most likely came out of Frankland to the hands of the English poet.

Professor Skeat, in the *Journal of Philology* (No. 29, 1886), assumes Beowulf to have been a real hero, and Grendel a bear, and sees in the poem a glorified poetical account of some great fight with a bear that impressed itself on the popular imagination. The name *Grendel* means 'the grinder,' and *Béo-wulf*, literally the 'bee-wolf,' a name scarcely applicable to any animal but a bear. The former is a name that might well be given to a bear, while the latter might be a nickname for a notable slayer of bears in particular. The learned professor makes out a strong case, but his interpretation is too literal and realistic, and it is hard to conceive that the poetic imagination could have worked so richly round so simple and ordinary a story. German scholars like Müllenhoff have read the whole story into myth, and harmonised it with the legends of nature that form part of the old northern mythology. Simrock, again, recognises the god Thor under the mask of Beowulf, and compares the dragon-fight to Thor's final battle with the Midgard snake, at the close of which he perishes of his venom. It is most likely that in the action of the poem, to some extent at least, real events are described, transformed though they may be into legendary marvels; yet the manners and customs of the old makers of England are accurately painted withal, and its descriptions of wild nature, with its half-spiritual aspects, mark the beginning of what was yet to be a characteristic note in the latest English poetry. The old heathenism, with its strong nature-worship and fatalism, is but thinly veiled by the Christianising touch of its old English editor. Indeed such a passage as that in which Grendel is described as a descendant of Cain, is an example of an interpolation that corresponds but indifferently with the general heathen colouring of the poem. The poem was first edited by Thorkelin (Copenhagen, 1815), next by Kemble (London, 1833), Thorpe (1835), Thomas Arnold (1876), and Harrison and Sharp (1883). German editions are those of Heyne (1863); Grein (1867; re-edited by Wülfker, 1881); Zapitzka, an autotype of the MS. (1882); Möller (Kiel, 1883); and Holder (Freiburg, 1884). Translations in English are those of Kemble (1837), Thorpe, and Arnold, the last two accompanying the same editors' editions of the texts, Lamsden's (1881) in ballad metre, and Garnett's (1883). The chief German translations are Ettmüller's (1840) and Simrock's (1869). See Dederich, *Historische und Geographische Studien zum Beowulf-Lied* (1877); Mr Sweet's 'Sketch of the History of Anglo-Saxon Poetry' in vol. ii. (1871) of Hazlitt's edition of Warton's *History of English Poetry*; and vol. i. of Henry Morley's *English Writers* (1887), and the appendix therein containing a bibliography of Beowulf.

Bequeath (A.S. *bicwethan*), a word meaning originally to declare, and in the technical language of English law, to leave personal property by will to another. In Scots law the words bequeath and bequest are less used than in England. In both countries the expression 'leave and bequeath' is appropriate to the disposal of personal property, but in neither country would the courts defeat the intention of a testator to include his heritable or real estate; if that intention sufficiently appeared. See WILL.

Béranger, PIERRE JEAN DE, the greatest song-writer of France, was born on the 19th August 1780, in the street of Montorgueil, in Paris. His father, a notary's clerk, had left his mother six months after their marriage, and Béranger was brought up by his grandfather, Champy, a tailor, until his ninth year, when he passed into the care of an aunt who kept an inn in the suburbs of Péronne. She was an

ardent republican, and appears to have taken pains to imbue her nephew with her political principles. From his fourteenth to his seventeenth year Béranger worked as apprentice to a printer in Péronne. He afterwards acted as a clerk to his father, who about this time gained a fortune by financial enterprises, only to lose it, however, in 1798. Béranger then settled in Paris, and gave himself to literature, living in the garret of which he has sung so charmingly, planning the most ambitious works (among them an epic on Clovis), and making careful studies of French style, until in 1804 distress compelled him to ask aid from Lucien Bonaparte. The assistance sought was willingly given; and about three years later the poet Arnauld found Béranger a clerkship in the office of the Imperial University, a post which he held until 1821. On the publication of the first collection of his songs in 1815, he was recognised as the lyrical champion of the opposition to the Bourbons. His popularity with the working-classes was immense. It was for them that he always wrote, and they repaid him with an ardour of gratitude and admiration such as no other poet has excited in modern times. The *chanson*, in which the 18th-century writers had trifled in praise of love and wine, became in his hands a trenchant political weapon.

His politics, a curious compound of republicanism and devotion to the Napoleonic legend, exactly hit the taste of the multitude. His songs passed from mouth to mouth before they were published; since the invention of printing he is the only poet, it has well been said, who might have dispensed with the services of the press. For a time the government did not interfere, but two volumes which he published in 1821 led to a trial, at the close of which he was fined 500 francs and sentenced to three months' imprisonment in St Pélagie. Another volume, issued in 1825, was the cause of a second prosecution. Béranger was on this occasion fined 10,000 francs and condemned to nine months' imprisonment in La Force, where he was visited by Hugo, Dumas, Sainte-Beuve, and others of the greatest men of the day. In 1830 he published *Chansons Nouvelles*, and in 1840 he wrote the story of his life. In 1848 he was elected, against his will, by more than 200,000 votes to represent the Department of the Seine in the Constituent Assembly. He took his seat, but a few days afterwards begged to be allowed to resign. He rejected sundry offers of advancement from Napoleon III., and lived in retirement during his last years. He died at Paris on July 17, 1857. Béranger has been repeatedly compared to Burns, but he has neither the passion nor the deep humour of the Scottish poet. His songs cover a wide variety of subjects. Their vivacity and wit and tripping lightness of movement, their spontaneity and humanity, their gaiety which trembles into pathos, their satire which melts into laughter, their inimitable simplicity and seemingly unstudied grace of workmanship, explain and justify the unequalled popularity which their author secured and still retains among his countrymen. See *Ma Biographie* (Paris, 1857), and his correspondence edited by Boiteau (4 vols. 1859-60); also Jules Janin's *Béranger et son Temps* (Paris, 1866); W. Besant's *French Humorists* (Lond. 1873); and W. H. Pollock's *French Poets* (Lond. 1879).

Berar, or HYDERABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS, a province of Central India, forming a commissionership under the resident of Hyderabad (Haidarabad). It is bounded on the N. and E. by the Central Provinces, on the W. by Bombay, and on the S. by the Nizam's dominions. Its length from east to west is about 150 miles, and its average breadth 144 miles; area, 17,711 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 2,672,673. The province consists of the districts of Amraoti, Ellichpur, Wun, Akola, Buldana, and

Basin, assigned to the British government under the treaties of 1853 and 1861 with the Nizam of Hyderabad, who was bankrupt, and unable to pay a large and increasing debt. The province is mainly a broad valley running east and west, between the Satpura Range in the north and the Ajanta Range on the south, and is divided into the *Balaghat* or upland country, and the *Payanghat* or lowland country. The valley at the base of the Satpuras, consisting of black loam, is extremely fertile, and is one rich sheet of waving crops in harvest time. It is traversed in its length by the Purna—itsself a tributary of the Tapi—which, with its numerous affluents, affords an ample supply of water to the valley, and it is thus peculiarly suitable to the cultivation of cotton, forming indeed the richest and most extensive cotton-field in India. The other products are millet, oil-seeds, wheat, pulses, tobacco, and castor-oil. Beds of coal are found near the Wardha River, in the Wun district; iron ore is plentiful in the east, and the only natural lake is the salt Lake of Louar. The Great Indian and Peninsular Railway runs through the province from east to west. Ellichpur (pop. 26,728) was the capital of the old kingdom. The British, under General Wellesley, helped the Nizam in 1803 to crush the Mahratta power.

Berat', a town of Albania, Turkey, in the province of Janina, 30 miles N.E. of the seaport of Avlona. It is the seat of a Greek archbishop. Pop. about 12,000, a third of whom are Greeks.

Berber, a town on the right bank of the Nile, below the confluence of the Atbara. It is a station on the route from Khartoum to Cairo, and a point to which caravans come from Suakin on the Red Sea. In the course of General Graham's operations against Osman Digna in 1885, a railway was projected from Suakin to Berber, and the work was actually begun, but was ultimately abandoned when military protection was taken away. The pop. is about 8000.

Berberah, a seaport of Somali, Eastern Africa, with a good harbour, on a bay of the Gulf of Aden. It was conquered by Egypt in 1875, but in July 1884 the British government took possession of it, and a small Indian force is now stationed here. It is the scene of a large annual fair, which brings over 30,000 people together from all quarters in the East. Coffee, grains, ghee, gold-dust, ivory, gums, cattle, ostrich-feathers, &c. are brought hither from the interior, and exchanged for cotton, rice, iron, Indian piece-goods, &c.

Berberid'ca, or BERBERIDACEÆ, a natural order of thalamifloral dicotyledons, of which the different species of *Barberry* (q.v.) afford the best-known examples. Many of the plants of this order are spiny shrubs; others are herbaceous perennials. Their leaves are alternate; their flowers are usually in racemes, and are readily characterised by their trimorous symmetry and recurved anther valves; the fruit is either a berry or a capsule, and is usually acid, bitter, or astringent. There are more than 100 species, widely distributed through the temperate zone and on the mountains of the tropics, but absent from South Africa and Australasia.

Berbers, the general name usually given to the tribes inhabiting the mountainous regions of Barbary and the northern portions of the Great Desert. It is derived, according to Barth, either from the name of their supposed ancestor, *Ber*, which we recognise in the Lat. *A-fer*, an African, or from the Greek and Roman term *Barbari*. The name by which they call themselves, and which was known to the Greeks and Romans, is Amázigh, Mazigh, Mazys, &c. according to locality, and

whether singular or plural. These tribes have a common origin, and are the descendants of the aboriginal inhabitants of Northern Africa. They belong to the Hamitic family, and though they have been conquered in succession by the Phœnicians, Romans, Vandals, and Arabs, and have become, in consequence, to some extent a mixed race, they retain in great part their distinctive peculiarities. Till the 11th century, the Berbers seem to have formed the larger part of the population inhabiting the southern coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt to the Atlantic Ocean; but, on the great Arab immigrations which then took place, they were driven to the Atlas Mountains, and to the desert regions where they now live. In Tripoli, the allegiance they pay to the Turks is little more than nominal; in Algeria, where they usually are termed Kabyles (*K'bila* = 'union'), they long remained unconquered by the French; and in Morocco, where they are called *Shelluh*, they are only in form subject to the sultan. The Berbers occupying the desert, who are called *Tuareg* or *Tawarek*, by the Arabs, have become much mixed with the negro race. The number of the Berbers is estimated at between three and four millions. They are of middle stature, sparsely but strongly built, and the complexion varies from reddish to yellowish brown. Their manners are austere, and in disposition they are cruel, suspicious, and implacable. They are usually at war either with their neighbours or among themselves, and are possessed of a wild spirit of independence, which makes it impossible for them to unite for any common purpose. They live in clay huts and tents, but in their larger villages they have stone houses. They have herds of sheep and cattle, and practise agriculture. The mines of iron and lead in the Atlas are wrought by them, and they manufacture swords, guns, and gunpowder. They formerly professed the Christian religion, but are now bigoted adherents of Islam. A *Dictionnaire Français-berbère* was prepared by Brosselard and Janbert (1844). See also Renan, *La Société Berbère*; and René Basset, *Contes Berbères*, with the list of books on the Berbers and their language appended (1887). See AFRICA.

Berbice', the eastern division of British Guiana (q.v.), bounded on the E. by the Corentyn and Dutch Guiana. Area about 21,000 sq. m. Once a separate colony, Berbice was united with Essequibo and Demerara under one government in 1831. The chief product is sugar, with rum, molasses, timber, cocoa, and tropical fruits. The forests abound with splendid timber-trees, including the mora and bullet-tree. The Berbice River is navigable for small vessels 175 miles from its mouth. An important affluent is the Canje. New Amsterdam, on the right bank of the Berbice River (pop. 9000), is the chief town and port of the district. See GUIANA.

Berchem, or BERGHEM, NICHOLAS, an eminent Dutch painter, was born at Haarlem in 1620, and having studied under his father and Van Goyen, Weenix the elder, and other masters, he spent several years in Italy, where he soon acquired an extraordinary facility of execution. His industry was naturally great; and his innumerable landscapes now decorate the best collections of Europe. The leading features of Berchem's works, besides the general happiness of the compositions, are warmth of colouring, a skilful handling of lights, and a mastery of perspective. His etchings are also highly esteemed. He died in 1683.

Berchemia. See SUPPLE JACK.

Berch'ta (modern form *Bertha*, the old High German *Perchtta*, 'the bright'), a goddess of South German mythology, apparently the same as the

Hulda ('the gracious') of Northern Germany. In Dame Hulda, the gracious and kindly aspect came to be the predominant; but in Dame Berchta, the severe and awe-inspiring, the reason for this being that the popular Christian view had degraded her lower than Hulda. Dame Berchta has the oversight of spinners; whatever spinning she finds unfinished on the last day of the year she spoils. Her festival is kept with a prescribed kind of meagre fare—oatmeal-gruel, or pottage, and fish. If she catches any one eating other food on that day she cuts his stomach open, fills it with chopped straw, and sews up the gash with a ploughshare for a needle, and an iron chain for a thread. She is represented in some places as having a long iron nose and one big foot. It is likely that many of the attributes of Berchta were transferred to the famous Berthas of mediæval history and fable, as Berta, wife of King Pippin and mother of Charlemagne. She has been connected with the feast of the Epiphany (6th January), and has been explained by some as a personification of the brightness of the heavenly vision that appeared to the shepherds in the field; but it is far more likely that the analogy of the 'bright' day was tacked on to a previously existing Perhta, a deity of heathendom. The numerous stories of the 'White Lady' (q.v.) who appears in noble houses at night, and acts as the guardian angel of the race, have doubtless their root in the ancient heathen goddess Berchta.

Berchtesgaden, a village of Bavaria, charmingly situated on a mountain-slope, about 15 miles S. of Salzburg. Its abbey is now a royal castle, and in the neighbourhood is a royal hunting-lodge. The place is most remarkable for its government salt-mines, from which 150,000 cwt. of rock-salt are annually obtained. Fresh water being introduced to the mine, it is run off as brine into a reservoir, and afterwards conducted to Traunstein and Rosenheim, about 40 miles distant. Pop. (1885) 1901.

Berck-sur-mer, a harbour and bathing resort in the French department of Pas-de-Calais, 22 miles S. of Boulogne, with some shipbuilding and sailmaking. Pop. 5187.

Berdiansk', a seaport of Southern Russia, in the government of Taurida, on the NW. coast of the Sea of Azov. It has the finest harbour in the Sea of Azov, and is a place of commercial activity. Pop. (1880) 18,180.

Berditchef, a town of Russia, 108 miles WSW. of Kiev by rail, famous for its five annual fairs. At these, cattle, corn, wine, honey, leather, &c. are disposed of. The average annual value of the sales is £600,000. Pop. (1880) 56,980, chiefly Jews.

Bere, a kind of Barley (q.v.).

Bere'ans, an almost extinct sect of Christians, who originated in Scotland in the 18th century. They took this name from the people of Berea, who are spoken of in Acts, xvii. 11, as having 'received the word with all readiness of mind.' Their founder was the Rev. John Barclay (1734-98), a native of Muthill, in Perthshire, who acted as assistant minister at Fettercairn for nine years. They believe that the knowledge of God's existence and character is derived from the Bible alone, and not from reason or nature; that the Psalms of David relate exclusively to Christ; that assurance is of the essence of faith; and that unbelief is the unpardonable sin. In other points of doctrine they are ordinary Calvinists.

Beregonium is a misprint in the Ulm edition of Ptolemy's Geography (1486) for *Reirigonium*, a town of the Novantæ, now identified with the fort of Innermessan on the east shore of Loch Ryan. Boece applied the name Beregonium to a large

vitrified fort in Ardehatten parish, Argyllshire, 5½ miles NNE. of Oban. But there is no historical ground for supposing this to have been a seat of ancient kings, Scottish or other, as is often assumed.

Be'rengar I., king of Italy, succeeded at his father's death to the dukedom of Friuli. After the deposition of Charles the Fat in 887, he was crowned king of Italy, but he soon irritated the nobles by condescending to hold his territory in fief from Arnulf, king of Germany; and Guido, Duke of Spoleto, was persuaded to contest the throne. With the help of Arnulf, however, Berengar ultimately prevailed. After Guido's death in 894, his son, Lambert, compelled the king to share with him the sovereignty of North Italy until 898, when Lambert was assassinated. Berengar's influence quickly sank, since he could not check the plundering incursions of the Magyars and Arabs, and many years were spent in struggles to maintain his position. In 915 he was crowned emperor by Pope John X.; but the nobles again revolted, and under Rudolf of Burgundy completely overthrew him in 923. In his extremity, Berengar called in the Hungarians to his aid, which unpatriotic act alienated the minds of all Italians from him, and cost him his life, for he was assassinated in 924.—**BERENGAR II.**, grandson of the preceding, succeeded his father as Count of Ivrea in 925, and married Willa, niece of Hugo, king of Italy, in 934. For a conspiracy against Hugo, he was compelled to flee to Germany, where he was kindly received by the emperor, Otto I. In 945 he recrossed the Alps at the head of an army, and placed the weak Lothaire, the son of Hugo, on the throne. On the death of this prince, who was probably poisoned by Willa, Berengar allowed himself to be crowned along with his son, Adalbert, in 950. His tyranny induced his subjects to call in the aid of the emperor, who marched into Italy in 961, and took possession of the country. After three years' refuge in a mountain-fortress, Berengar surrendered, and was sent as a prisoner to Bamberg, in Bavaria, where he died in 966.

Berengaria. See RICHARD I.

Berenga'rius OF TOURS, a distinguished scholastic theologian, was born at Tours, in France, 998 A.D. In 1031 he was appointed preceptor of the school of St Martin in Tours, and, about 1040, archdeacon of Angers. Here he first drew upon himself the charge of heresy in reference to the doctrine of transubstantiation. He held that the bread and wine in the sacrament of the eucharist remained bread and wine, and that the faith of the believer who recognised their symbolic meaning only transformed them subjectively into the body and blood of Christ. This interpretation was condemned by Pope Leo IX. (1049-50). In 1054 Berengarius retracted his opinion before the Council of Tours, but immediately returned to his conviction, and commenced to advocate it anew. For this he was finally, in 1078, cited to appear at Rome, where he repeatedly abjured his 'error,' but never seems to have really abandoned it. Hildebrand, now Pope Gregory VII., treated him with great moderation; and at last conceived it best to let him alone. Harassed and weakened by the attacks of the orthodox party, headed by Lanfranc of Canterbury, he finally retired to a cell at St Côme, on an island in the Loire (now a ruin on the south bank), near Tours, where he spent the last years of his life in devotional exercises. He died in 1088. The greater number of his works are lost; such as are extant have been collected and published by A. F. & F. T. Vischer (Berlin, 1834).

Bereni'ce (modern name, *Sakdyt-el-Kubli*), a town of Egypt, on a bay in the Red Sea, 20 miles

SW. of Ras Benass. It was founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, and was in ancient times the emporium of the trade with India, but it is now ruined, and interesting only for its antiquities.

Berenice, the name of several celebrated women of the house of Ptolemy, including (1) the wife of Ptolemy I., celebrated by Theocritus; the daughter of Ptolemy II.; and the wife of Ptolemy III. This last queen, during the king's wars in Asia, made a vow to offer her beautiful hair to the gods when her husband returned safely—a vow which she fulfilled. The hair was suspended in the temple of Aphrodite, from which, according to the fable, it was taken to form a constellation, *Coma Berenices*.—(2) **BERENICE**, also called *Cleopatra*, daughter of Ptolemy IX. (Lathyrus), was, on her succession to the throne, married to Alexander II., by whom she was murdered nineteen days after marriage.—(3) **BERENICE**, daughter of Ptolemy XI. (Auletes), eldest sister of the renowned Cleopatra, was raised to the throne after her father's deposition, 58 B.C., but was put to death when her father was restored, 55 B.C. She was first married to Seleucus, whom she caused to be put to death, and afterwards to Archelaus, who was put to death with her.—There were, besides, two Jewish Berenices—the one, daughter of Salome, sister of Herod the Great, and mother of Agrippa I.; the other, and more famous, was daughter of this latter monarch. She was three times married: her uncle, Herod, Prince of Chalcis, left her for the second time a widow, at the age of twenty; and she deserted her third husband to return to her brother, King Agrippa II., the same before whom Paul defended himself at Caesarea. After the capture of Jerusalem, she went to Rome, and Titus, who was much in love with her, would have married her but for the opposition of the people. The intimacy of Berenice and Titus forms the subject of a tragedy by Racine.

Beresford, **WILLIAM CARR BERESFORD**, VISCOUNT, general, was born in 1768, a natural son of the first Marquis of Waterford. He entered the army in 1785, in 1786 lost his left eye through an accident, and, after serving in all the four continents, bore a conspicuous part (1806) in the reconquest of the Cape, and the capture of Buenos Ayres. The latter achievement was followed by his own surrender, but in 1807 he made his escape. In 1808 he did gallant service during the retreat to Corunna; and in 1809 he took the command of the Portuguese army, with the local rank of lieutenant-general. He succeeded in improving its discipline so greatly, as soon to render it highly efficient for active service. For his services at Busaco (1810) he was made a Knight of the Bath; and for his victory over Soult at Albuera (1811) he received the thanks of parliament. He was present at Badajoz, and at Salamanca, where he was severely wounded, and distinguished himself in many other battles. In 1814 he was created Baron, and in 1823 Viscount, Beresford. He quitted Portugal in 1822; and in the Wellington administration (1828-30) he was master-general of the ordnance. He bore the title of Duke of Elvas in Spain, and of Conde de Trancoso in Portugal. He died, without issue, 8th January 1854, when his title became extinct.

Beresina, or **BEREZINA**, a river of Russia, having its rise in the north of the government of Minsk in Lithuania. It flows in a southward direction for about 350 miles (over 200 of which are navigable) to the Dnieper. Its shores are flat, and the stream is of importance as a means of floating the timber of the country to the sea in rafts. It is connected with the Dina, or Dwina, by a canal, a communica-

tion between the Black and Baltic Seas being thus established. The Beresina is memorable on account of the disastrous passage of the French army, November 1812, during the retreat from Moscow. Two bridges over the river were hastily constructed amid terrible hardships, and, on the 27th, the passage of the French commenced, and went on throughout the whole day. Marshal Victor's rear-guard of 7000 men, under Partonieux, were, however, intercepted by the Russians, and had to capitulate. On the 28th a vigorous attack was made by the Russians upon the French on both sides of the river; and they established a battery of twelve pieces to command the bridge. The panic and confusion of the French became dreadful. One bridge broke, and all rushing to the other, it was soon choked; multitudes were forced into the stream, while the Russian cannon played on the struggling mass. On the 29th a considerable number of sick and wounded soldiers, women, children, and sutlers still remained behind, until preparations were completed for burning the bridges. Then a fearful rush took place; and as the fire seized the timbers, men, women, and children threw themselves in desperation into the flames or the river. The 12,000 dead bodies found on the shores of the river, when the ice thawed, attested the magnitude of the French disaster. The Russians took 16,000 prisoners and 25 pieces of cannon.

Bereslav, a thriving town in the Russian government of Kherson, on the Dnieper. Pop. (1885) 11,093.

Berezna, a town of Russia, in the government of Tchernigov, on a tributary of the Desna. Pop. (1880) 10,827.

Berezov' ('the town of birch-trees'), a town of Siberia in the government of Tobolsk, on the left bank of the Sosva, a branch of the Obi. It marks the northern limit of the region of rye, barley, and horses, and is important as a fur and skin trading station. Pop. 2000, made up of Cossacks and exiles.

Berezovsk, a village in the Russian province of Perm, near Ekaterinburg, gives name to a famous gold-field, wrought since 1744. The mines are on the eastern slopes of the middle Ural chain, and the field is above 5 miles long. The washings on the Berezovka River are also very productive.

Berg, a former duchy of Germany, on the right bank of the Rhine, now incorporated with the Prussian dominions, between Disseldorf and Cologne. It is a densely populated manufacturing country. After various vicissitudes, the duchy had merged in the electorate of Bavaria, and in 1806 Bavaria ceded it to France. Napoleon erected it into a grand-duchy, constituting his brother-in-law, Murat, its sovereign; and two years afterwards, Napoleon's nephew, then Crown Prince of Holland, was made grand-duke. The peace of 1815 gave Berg to Prussia.

Berg, **CHRISTIAN PAULSEN**, Danish politician, born in 1829, near Lemvig, in Jutland, in 1865 entered the Folksting, of which he was chosen president in 1883. In 1877 he became leader of the Radical opposition, and in 1881 editor of the *Morgenblad*; in 1886 his fierce attacks on one of the ministry brought on him six months' imprisonment.

Berga, a town of Catalonia, Spain, 52 miles NNW. of Barcelona. Pop. 5000.

Bergama (ancient *Pergamos*), a city of Asiatic Turkey, province of Aidin, situated in a beautiful and fertile valley, 40 miles N. of Smyrna. In early times the city was the capital of the kingdom of

Pergamum (q.v.). The present population is about 6000.

Bergamo (the ancient *Bergomum*), a fortified town of Lombardy, situated on low hills, 34 miles N.E. of Milan by rail. It has a castle occupying the most elevated part of the town, a cathedral, school of art, museum, lyceum, library, two theatres, &c. Silk, cotton, linen, woollen fabrics, and iron goods are manufactured. It has also an extensive trade in grindstones, quarried in the vicinity. Annually, in the month of August, the largest fair in Northern Italy is held here. Bergamo was destroyed by Attila, 452 A.D.; after the fall of the Roman empire, it became capital of a Lombard duchy, and its inhabitants placed themselves under the protection of the Venetian Republic in 1427. Bernardo Tasso (the father of Torquato), Tiraboschi, and Donizetti were natives of Bergamo. Pop. (1881) 23,819. Bergamo is the capital of a province, which has an area of 1015 sq. m., and a pop. (1881) of 391,580.

Bergamot is the name applied to a group of varieties of pear, which agree in more or less completely resembling an apple in shape, in melting juicy pulp, and pleasant flavour. See PEAR.

Bergamot is also the name of a species or variety of the genus *Citrus* (q.v.), also called the BERGAMOT ORANGE, or MELIAROSA; by some botanists regarded as a variety of the orange (*C. Aurantium*); by others, as a variety of the lime (*C. limetta*); and elevated by Risso to the rank of a distinct species, under the name of *C. bergamota*. The name comes from Bergama (q.v.), a city in Asia Minor, the ancient Pergamos. It is now cultivated in the south of Europe; and from the rind of its fruit, the well-known Oil of Bergamot is obtained, which is extensively used in making pomades, fragrant essences, eau de Cologne, liqueurs, &c. The fruit is pear-shaped, smooth, of a pale-golden colour, and has a green, subacid, firm, and fragrant pulp. The essential oil is obtained by distillation, or by grating down the rinds, and then subjecting them to pressure, which is the better method. The oil is also obtained from other varieties or species of the same genus. It is of a pale-yellow colour or almost colourless. One hundred Bergamot oranges are said to yield about 2½ ounces of oil. Oil of Bergamot is frequently employed for diluting or adulterating the very expensive blue volatile oil of Chamomile (q.v.). — BERGAMOT is also applied to certain fragrant Labiates, notably *Mentha citrata* or *odorata*, as also to species of *Monarda* (*M. fistulosa*, &c.).

Bergedorf, a district and town of Germany, 10 miles S.E. of Hamburg, to which it belongs. Part of the territory is known by the name of the Four Lands (*Vierländer*). It is inhabited by a well-conditioned and industrious population, much occupied in the cultivation of fruit and vegetables, not only for the market of Hamburg, but for that of London. Area, 35 sq. m.; pop. (1885) 16,368. Pop. of town (1885) 5209.

Bergen, a fortified seaport in the west of Norway, and the second city of the kingdom, in the province of the same name, situated on a promontory at the head of a deep bay, and, with the exception of the north-east side, where lofty mountains inclose it, surrounded by water. The harbour is safe and commodious, and around it the town is built, presenting a picturesque appearance from the sea, with its wooden houses of various colours. It has a cathedral, various churches, schools, hospitals, and public institutions; and is the seat of a bishop, and the station of a naval squadron. The museum has valuable collections of Norse antiquities and specimens of

Norwegian fishes. The chief manufactures of Bergen are gloves, tobacco, porcelain, leather, soap, and cordage. It has numerous distilleries, and several shipbuilding yards. Its principal trade, however, is the export of stockfish, herrings, and fish-oil and roe. Twice a year, the Norlandmen come to Bergen with their fish, receiving in exchange for them such articles of necessity or luxury as they require. The annual value of the stockfish exported from this port is about £450,000. In addition, it exports about half a million barrels of herrings and 20,000 barrels of cod-liver oil. There is constant steam communication with Copenhagen, the Baltic ports, Hamburg, Rotterdam, Hull, Newcastle, and New York. Since 1883 Bergen has been connected by railway with the north of the Hardangerfjord. The chief imports are brandy, wine, corn, cotton, woollens, hemp, sugar, tobacco, coffee, &c. The climate is exceedingly humid, but not unhealthily; the yearly rainfall is 89 inches, and the temperature averages 46° F. Bergen, formerly called Björgvin ('the pasture betwixt the mountains'), was founded about 1070 by Olaf Kyrre, who made it the second city in his kingdom, and it was soon raised to the first rank. English and Scottish traders were early displaced here by the merchants of the Hanse towns, who continued to exercise and abuse their monopoly until their supremacy was broken by an act issued by Frederick II. of Denmark in 1560; and in 1763 their last warehouse fell into the hands of a citizen of Bergen. In the 13th century, Bergen had thirty churches and religious houses, but these have been mostly swept away in the numerous conflagrations which have devastated it from 1189 to 1855. The town was long the most important trading town of Norway, but has been recently surpassed by Christiania. The castle of Bergenhus was till 1397 the residence of the Norwegian kings. Bergen was the birthplace of Holberg, the painter, Dahl, Welhaven, and Ole Bull. Pop. (1885) 46,552.

Bergen-op-Zoom, a town formerly strongly fortified, in the Dutch province of North Brabant, 21 miles N. by W. of Antwerp, and 39 E. by N. of Flushing. It stands on the little river Zoom, at its entrance into the east branch of the Scheldt, in a marshy district, frequently inundated. It has a harbour, manufactures of brick and earthenwares, and a large trade in anchovies. Pop. (1880) 10,419. The importance of its position rendered the town the object of many contests. The Netherlands made it one of their strongholds in their struggles with Spain, and the Spaniards, who had been expelled in 1577, unsuccessfully attempted to capture the place, either by siege or storm, in 1581, 1588, 1605, and 1622. The fortifications were afterwards strengthened by the engineer Coehorn, so as to give it the reputation of being impregnable. Yet the French, under Count Löwendal, in 1747, after a siege of nearly three months, and the springing of 41 mines by the assailants, and 38 by the defenders, took the place by storm, and in 1795 it capitulated without resistance to Pichegru. Being incorporated with France in 1810, it was blockaded in 1814 by the English, who attempted to surprise the fortress on the night of the 8th of March with a force of 3900; but after carrying the greater part of the works, they were, through Sir Thomas Graham's remissness in sending support, overpowered by the brave garrison, and either slain or forced to surrender. The French only gave up the post under the Treaty of Paris; in 1867 the fortress was demolished.

Bergenroth, GUSTAV ADOLF, historian, born in Prussia, 1813, studied law, and entered the state service, from which he was dismissed, owing to his

revolutionary views, in 1848. Becoming further compromised, he went to America in 1850, but settled in 1857 in England, where he devoted himself to the study of the state papers of the Tudor reigns. After a visit to Simancas, in Spain, the results of his labours were published under the title *Calendar of Letters, Despatches, and State Papers relating to the Negotiations between England and Spain* (3 vols. Lond. 1862-68). He died in Madrid, February 13, 1869.

Bergerac, a town in the French department of Dordogne, on the Dordogne, 60 miles E. of Bordeaux by rail. Most of its inhabitants are employed in the surrounding ironworks and paper-mills. The wines of the district, both white and red, are esteemed. During the wars with the English, Bergerac was a fortress and an entrepôt of trade; but after siding with the Calvinists, and consequently suffering greatly in the religious wars, the place was dismantled by Louis XIII. in 1621, whilst the revocation of the Edict of Nantes drove many of its citizens into exile. Pop. (1886) 11,867.

Bergerac, SAVINIEN CYRANO DE, a French author, born in Paris, 1619, distinguished for his courage in the field, and for the number of his duels, more than a thousand, most of them fought on account of his monstrously large nose. He died in 1655. His writings, which are often crude, but full of invention, vigour, and wit, include a tragedy, *Agrippine*, and a comedy, *Le Pedant Joué*, from which Corneille and Molière have freely borrowed ideas; and his *Histoire Comique des États et Empires de la Lune et du Soleil* probably suggested 'Micromégas' to Voltaire, and 'Gulliver' to Swift. His works have been frequently republished, the last time at Paris, 1875.

Berghaus, HENRICH, an eminent geographer, was born at Cleves, in Rhenish Prussia, in 1797. His early services as an engineer in the French and Prussian armies largely advanced his knowledge of geodesy. After being employed on the trigonometrical survey of Prussia, he became (1824) professor of Mathematics in the Architectural Academy of Berlin, and (1836) director of the Geographical School in Potsdam. The best-known of his cartographical works is his *Physical Atlas* (90 plates, 2d ed. 1832). He edited several geographical periodicals, and wrote numerous valuable works on physical and political geography, including the *Länder- u. Völkerkunde* (1840). His correspondence with A. von Humboldt, published at Leipzig in 1863, fills 3 vols. He died at Stettin, 17th February 1884.

Bergk, THEODOR, a distinguished German classical scholar, born at Leipzig, May 22, 1812. From 1842 to 1869 he was professor of Philology successively at Marburg, Freiburg, and Halle. In the latter year ill-health enforced his retirement, and the remainder of his life was spent in preparing his *Geschichte der griechischen Literatur*, of which, however, he finished the first volume only (Berl. 1872), the other two being edited by G. Hinrichs (1883-84). Bergk's chief complete work is his *Poete Lyrici Graeci* (3 vols. Leip. 1843). He also published numerous papers on philology and editions of individual Greek poets. He died July 20, 1881.

Bergman, TORBERN OLOF, a celebrated Swedish chemist, born at Katharinalberg, in West Gothland, March 20, 1735. A student under Linnaeus at Upsala in 1758, he was raised to the chair of Physics there, and in 1767 to that of Chemistry. Here he continued till his death, July 8, 1784. Bergman's earliest studies were in natural history; his later, in chemistry and mineralogy. His theory of elective or chemical affinities had an

important place in the history of chemistry, and his work in mineralogy did much to prepare the way for a scientific classification of minerals. His dissertations are collected into 6 octavo vols. (Leip. 1779-81); and English translations of them fill 3 vols. (1784-85).

Bergmehl, or MOUNTAIN-FLOUR, is a recent deposit of a white or cream-coloured powder of extreme fineness, composed almost entirely of the indestructible siliceous frustules or cell-walls of Diatomaceæ (q.v.). From its resemblance to flour, it has been mixed with ordinary food in seasons of scarcity, and thus used by the inhabitants of Norway and Sweden, who suppose it to be nutritious. When subjected to a red heat, it loses from a quarter to a third of its weight, the loss consisting probably of organic matter, and this would make it in itself nutritious; but it seems to derive its chief value from its increasing the bulk of the food, and rendering the really nutritious portion more satisfying. On the other hand, some experiments tend to show that bergmehl does contain a very small proportion—3 or 4 per cent.—of positive nutriment. Similar deposits occur at Dolgelly in North Wales, at South Mourne in Ireland, and in Mull, Raasay, Skye, and elsewhere in Scotland. The contained organisms show that these beds have been deposited in fresh water.

Bergues, a town and fortress in the French department of Nord, on the Colme, 5 miles SSE. of Dunkirk. Four detached forts, two of which command the road to Dunkirk, guard the town, which was fruitlessly besieged by the English in 1793. Pop. 5435.

Bergylt (*Sebastes norvegicus*), a common fish in northern seas, belonging to the family Scorpaenidae, in the great order of fishes with spinous rays (Acanthopterygii). It is somewhat like a perch in appearance, and used to be called *Peregrina marina*; no resemblance, however, can justify another of its names—the Norway Haddock. It attains a length of 2 feet or more, has a red colour, and is good for food. Though occasionally found on British coasts as far south as Berwick, its true home is farther north. The genus *Sebastes* includes 24 other widely-distributed species.

Berhampur, the name of two towns in British India.—(1) Berhampur, in Madras, is a military station in the district of Ganjam, 18 miles SW. of the town of Ganjam, and but 9 from the coast. The climate is very healthy, and there is some trade in sugar and silk cloth. Pop. (1881) 23,599.—(2) Berhampur, in Bengal, on the left bank of the Bhagirathi, 5 miles below Murshidabad. It was long one of the principal military stations in British India, and the barracks, now largely devoted to other uses, still form the most prominent feature of the town. In 1857 Berhampur was the scene of the first open act of mutiny. Pop. (1872) 27,110; (1881) 23,605.

Beri, a town of India, in the British district of Rohtak, Punjab, 36 miles W. by N. from Delhi. It is a considerable trade centre, with two large fairs in February and October. Pop. (1881) 9695.—The state of Beri, in Bundelkhand, has an area of about 30 sq. m., and a pop. in 1881 of 4935.

Bering. See BEHRING.

Berja, a town of Spain, 22 miles W. of Alueria. The inhabitants are chiefly engaged in mining lead. Pop. (1877) 15,500.

Berkeley, a small town of Gloucestershire, on the Avon, 17½ miles SW. of Gloucester by rail. The town lies in the Vale of Berkeley, which consists of rich meadow pasture-land, on a deep, fat loam, and is celebrated for its dairies and 'Double Gloucester' cheese. Berkeley Castle,

on an eminence to the south-east, about 1162 was granted by Henry II. to Robert Fitzhardinge, with whose descendants it has since continued for more than seven centuries, they having held the title of Baron Berkeley from 1295, and of earl and viscount from 1679. Here Edward II. was murdered in 1327. In the civil wars of Charles I., the castle held out for the king, but was taken after a nine days' siege by the Parliamentarians. Dr Jenner, the discoverer of vaccination, was a native of Berkeley, and is buried in the parish church. Pop. of town, 870. See Smyth's *Lives of the Berkeleys* (1883).

Berkeley, a village of Alameda county, California, overlooking the Bay of San Francisco, is the seat of the state university, with 300 students.

Berkeley, GEORGE, Bishop of Cloyne, an historical figure in the 18th century, whose romantic life of unselfish enthusiasm and self-sacrificing philanthropy animated a metaphysical genius still powerful in philosophical speculation. He was born in the neighbourhood of Kilkenny, on the 12th of March 1685 (N.S.), according to reliable tradition, in the half-ruined castle of Dysert, on the bank of the Nore. He was a scion of the noble House of Berkeley; his mother was a Wolfe, of the same Irish family as the hero who afterwards fell at Quebec. At the age of eleven he was sent to the Duke of Ormond's School at Kilkenny, from which he proceeded, in his fifteenth year, to Trinity College, Dublin. There he continued to reside, as student and fellow, for thirteen years. Trinity College was then influenced by independent thinkers. The philosophy of John Locke, which gave form to, and expressed the spirit of the 18th century, was already in vogue there, and, along with Descartes and Malebranche and the new physics of Newton, was superseding medieval scholasticism. To these stimulating influences the young student from Kilkenny responded with characteristically ardent enthusiasm. A *Commonplace Book* of 1705-6, lately discovered, and first published in the collected edition of his works in 1871, reveals an intellectual fermentation of extraordinary interest. Throughout its pages we see a subtle and original mind, stimulated by Locke's psychology to a conception of the universe which Locke himself never consciously approached.

The ardent spirit of the *Commonplace Book* soon found vent in philosophical authorship. Its 'new principle' was soon given to the world, first in its application only to our visual perception of things, and then, in two succeeding treatises, with philosophical comprehensiveness, as a system of universal immaterialism in which the whole world of sense is spiritualised. Accordingly, in 1709, he produced an *Essay towards a New Theory of Vision*, the purpose of which was to show that the act of seeing, which seems so immediate and indecomposable, is not really a direct and inexplicable revelation of something outside all self-conscious intelligence, but is an act of interpretation, involving a process essentially (if unconsciously) rational, which presupposes too a rational or orderly constitution in the visually interpreted phenomena themselves. The *Essay* is thus a psychological analysis of visual perception, with an ontological outcome. It was Berkeley's first step towards a clarification of the confused popular, and self-contradictory philosophical conceptions of *matter*, by its translation of the semi-conscious processes of sight into a virtual recognition of the perpetual creative agency of Supreme Reason. The argument was enlarged in scope in a *Treatise on the Principles of Human Knowledge*, in 1710, followed in 1713 by *Dialogues between Hylas and Philonous*, in which the new conception of matter

is popularised. These three books set in motion in Europe a train of speculation which, slow at first, through popular and philosophical misunderstanding, has not ceased since to move human thought about all the ultimate questions of our life and our surroundings. The central conception of the three continued to develop in Berkeley's mind throughout his life. His 'new principle'—that the world which we see and touch is not an abstract independent substance, of which conscious mind may be an effect, but is the very world that is presented to our senses, and which depends for its actuality on being perceived—was long misconstrued as the monstrous paradox that matter has no perceived existence. We are only now learning to realise, through its help, that phenomena in a sense presuppose the presence and continual agency of Supreme Reason; that external nature is thus throughout and always supernatural; that the orderly evolution of its sense phenomena, in inorganic and organic things, interpreted in natural science, is, for mere science, only a succession of phenomena, but that to the eye of philosophy these phenomena are severally and collectively dependent on the immanence of Reason, and ultimately on the moral agency of Spirit—so that the evolution of finite things, even in an endless succession, is in no way inconsistent with their being the subjects of constant creative activity. The material world of Berkeley is just what the senses present: all in it beyond this belongs to the world of mind, which converts the presented phenomena into a language that is expressive of absent sense phenomena, of other finite spirits, and of the all-pervading Reason that is supreme and absolute. What we know beyond sense phenomena is their intelligible synthesis in the form of variously qualified things. Our objective perception of this external or interpretable world is reached, not through any single sense, but through sense symbolism, which enables us to connect what is actually present in one sense with what is conditionally presentable in the others. Belief in the real existence of the external world is belief in the permanence of this intelligible connection among sense phenomena. This belief presupposes that we are in a trustworthy and intelligible universe, in which the sense signals presented to us to regulate our lives by may be depended on. Our security for the reality of the Berkeleyan external world is the thus inevitable assumption that nature is reasonable; that its phenomena express thought akin to our own; that it is more or less interpretable by us in progressive physical or natural science; and that even in the world of the senses we are living and moving and having our being in the supreme all-pervading Reason, theologically called God.

In 1713 Berkeley went to London, and was introduced by his countryman Swift to the statesmen and men of letters who there formed a brilliant society in the reign of Queen Anne. After spending nearly a year in London, he gave seven years to travel in France and Italy, first as chaplain to the brilliant and eccentric Earl of Peterborough, and afterwards as tutor to a son of the Bishop of Clogher. His journals, lately recovered, contain vivid descriptions of this continental experience, including adventures in crossing Mont Cenis in winter, a perilous visit to the crater of Vesuvius during an eruption, and an interview and metaphysical discussion at Paris with the aged Malebranche.

On his return to Ireland in 1721 he was distressed by the symptoms of social corruption and disorder occasioned by the South Sea Mania. This was the beginning of his public career as a missionary-philanthropist in pursuit of ideals for society. His sociological thoughts first found

expression in a short *Essay towards preventing the Ruin of Great Britain*, charged with suggestions economical and ethical, significant of his own chivalrous indifference to wealth. In 1724 he resigned his fellowship in Trinity College, on being made Dean of Derry, with an income of £1100, which put him for the first time in easy circumstances. Yet that very year he carried to London a letter from Swift to Lord Carteret, the lord-lieutenant of Ireland, bearing that it was 'to introduce an absolute philosopher with regard to money, titles, and power, who for three years past has been struck with the romantic notion of founding, by a charter from the crown, a college at the Bermudas for the Christian civilisation of America, where he exorbitantly proposes a whole hundred pounds a year for himself as its head, and whose heart will break if his deanery be not for this purpose taken from him.' With a foresight of our vast colonial empire, he laboured in London for three years to interest Sir R. Walpole and other leading politicians in this missionary project, the grandest conceived in the 18th century. At last £20,000 was voted by the House of Commons for the endowment. On the faith of this he sailed for America in September 1728, taking with him a congenial auxiliary in his newly-married wife. To prepare for Bermuda, he made a romantic temporary home for himself for nearly three years in Rhode Island, where a few years before some American missionaries had settled. In one of them, a Dr Samuel Johnson, he found congenial companionship and a philosophical disciple, whose works, as well as those of Jonathan Edwards, helped to propagate his metaphysical conception of matter in America. Berkeley never reached Bermuda, as the promised grant was in the end withdrawn. In the autumn of 1731 he returned to England, carrying with him literary fruit ripened in Rhode Island, in 'the still air of delightful studies,' and given to the world in 1732 under the title of *Alciphron, or the Minute Philosopher*, the most finished of his works, with pleasant pictures of American scenes and life, while in form and ideas it resembles dialogues of Plato. Its philosophy cannot be out of date as long as agnostic contention with personality in man and God is continued. *Alciphron* was followed in 1733 by a *Vindication* of Berkeley's early visual immaterialism. In the *Analyst*, published in 1735, his theological philosophy was further unfolded, in an argument meant to show that the higher mathematics involve assumptions which as truly exclude definite or exhaustive conception as do any of the mysteries of religion, and which equally with the latter illustrate the spiritual fact, that the ultimate or marginal conceptions of an intelligence like ours must be only half-conceived truths.

Meantime, in 1734, Berkeley was made Bishop of Cloyne, in the south of Ireland, where in a beautiful home-life of eighteen years he found a channel for his ardent philanthropy in devotion to the social problems of Ireland. Two years after he went to Cloyne, he began the publication of the *Querist*, which appeared, in that and the two following years, in three instalments, consisting of about five hundred questions suggested by Ireland, with 'more hints, than original, still unapplied, in legislation and political economy than are to be found in any equal space.' The *Querist* was followed, in succeeding years, by other pamphlets on Ireland, and appeals for a larger toleration of its religious differences. The medical virtues of tar-water, on which he had been experimenting, were characteristically connected in Berkeley's mind with the ultimate conceptions of religious philosophy. In 1744 he published *Siris*, or a chain of philosophical reflections on the virtues of tar-water, a treatise which he said cost

him more research and thought than any of his other works. Through the crude mechanics, chemistry, and physiology of a past age, it suggests a connection between the resinous element in tar and the Spiritual Power by which the universe is being perpetually created. Plato and the Neo-Platonists, the companions of his advancing years, appear here as his authorities, and throw into the background Locke and the empirical teachers of his youth. In *Siris* he traces the steps by which, at the dawn of the Christian era, Greek and Graeco-oriental speculation sought to rise towards the Infinite and Ineffable, and to connect the sensible world and the embodied spirits of men in an intellectual unity in the Divine Reason.

The beautiful home-life at Cloyne ended in 1752, when declining health hastened the execution of a long-formed project to resign his episcopate and make Oxford the home of his old age. Six months after he had reached Oxford, on an evening in January 1753, he suddenly passed from the world of sense. His body was buried in the cathedral of Christ Church.

Berkeley's life has been one of the principal forces in modern philosophy. His thought has indeed been for the most part only unconsciously operative, beneath the shock and sense of strangeness with which, interpreted as an absurd paradox, it has been popularly received. But it is at the root of all the great conflicts of ultimate speculation about the universe in the 18th and 19th centuries. David Hume, looking only at what Berkeley denied, so misapplied the 'new principle' as to disintegrate spirit as well as matter into a succession of isolated feelings; although Berkeley had really resolved even matter, not into isolated feelings, but into a continuous presentation of significant sense phenomena. Reid and the Scottish psychologists were roused to attempt a deeper and truer psychology than Locke's by the desire to refute the Berkeley they saw in Hume. English and French empirical psychology, from Hartley and Condillac to John Stuart Mill and Comte, has accepted the phenomenalist theory of matter, but emptied of the originating and directing Reason which in Berkeley's thought was its philosophically necessary constitution. In Germany, Kant told that he was roused into philosophical criticism from his 'dogmatic slumber' by the metaphysical nescience which Hume had discovered in his one-sided Berkeley; and the Kantian criticism has formed the European thought of the 19th century, as Lockian psychology formed it in the 18th, and the dogmatic constructions of Cartesianism in the 17th. The abstract self-consciousness of Neo-Kantianism has a certain affinity with the Neo-Platonic idealism of *Siris*—not yet sublimated into Hegelian abstractness in Berkeley's concrete spiritualism, which recognises Reason as at once personal and supreme. It is thus a fact of history that Berkeley has employed the modern philosophical world in a struggle, virtually about his new conception of the universe, which has lasted for nearly two hundred years.

The only complete edition of Berkeley is the Clarendon Press 'Collected Works' (4 vols., Oxford, 1871), annotated with dissertations and a Life by Professor Campbell Fraser, who has also published *Selections from Berkeley* (3d ed. 1884), and *Berkeley* (2d ed. 1885), in Blackwood's 'Philosophical Classics.'

Berkeley Sound, next to Stanley Sound the most frequented inlet of the East Falkland Island, near its north-eastern extremity. Though it is difficult to enter, yet it contains several excellent harbours.

Berkhamstead, a market-town of Hertfordshire, on the small river Bulburn, 28 miles NW.

of London. Straw-plaiting is carried on; and there are manufactures of wooden articles and chemicals. The poet Cowper was a native. Pop. 5000.

Berkovitz, the chief town of a district in western Bulgaria, 40 miles NNW. of Sofia, on a small tributary of the Danube. Pop. (1881) 5445.

Berkshire, a midland county of England, bounded N. by Gloucester, Oxford, and Bucks, E. by Oxford and Bucks, SE. by Surrey, S. by Hampshire, and W. by Wiltshire. Its greatest length is 53 miles; its greatest breadth is 30; and the area is 705 sq. m., or 451,210 acres, nearly one-half of which is under tillage, one-fourth in pasture, and one-sixteenth in wood. Berkshire, which is one of the most beautiful of the English counties, lies in the valley of the Thames, and has an undulating surface, rising in some parts into hills. Solid chalk underlies the whole area. A range of chalk-hills, or downs, connected with the Chilterns on the east and the Marlborough Downs on the west, crosses the county into Wiltshire, from Reading to Wallingford, attaining at White Horse Hill (so called from the gigantic figure of a horse rudely defined in the chalk—a relic of ancient times) a height of 893 feet. Between this range—the west part of which is occupied by sheep-walks—and a smaller oolitic one skirting the valley of the Thames, is the Vale of the White Horse, the richest part of the county, and drained by the Ock. To the south of the Downs is the fertile Vale of Kennet, drained by the river of that name, and its feeder, the Lambourn. To the east is the forest district, comprising Windsor Forest, part of Bagshot Heath, &c. The forest chiefly consists of hazel, oak, beech, ash, and alder. The Thames skirts the whole north border of the county, winding through a course of 100 miles, but in a direct line only 52, and navigable nearly the whole way. It is the chief river of Berkshire, the other rivers of the county being its tributaries; of which the chief are the Kennet, Loddon, and Ock. The Kennet is navigable for 30 miles. The climate of Berkshire is very healthy, being mild in the valleys, and bracing on the high lands. The soil varies greatly; in the valleys it is generally a fertile loam, with a subsoil of chalk, gravel, or clay. The country between the valleys of Kennet and the White Horse consists chiefly of sheep-walks; and along the Thames, and to the west of the Ridge Way, or Downs, it is chiefly dairy and pasture land. The chief crops are oats and wheat. 'Double Gloucester' and 'pine-apple' cheese are sent in large quantities to London. Swine are extensively reared, especially near Faringdon, the breed being one of the best in England. Property is very much divided, and the number of gentlemen's seats is very great. The farms are generally of moderate size. The county is traversed by the Great Western Railway and its branch lines, and by two canals. Berkshire is divided into 20 hundreds, 151 parishes, and 12 poor-law unions. It returns five members to parliament, one for each of the three divisions (Abingdon, Newbury, Wokingham), one for Reading (the county town), and one for Windsor. Till the Seats Act of 1885, the boroughs of Wallingford and Abingdon also elected members. The county contains besides, the municipal boroughs of Newbury and Maidenhead, and the market-towns of Faringdon, Hungerford, Wantage, Wokingham, East Isley, and Lambourn. The chief manufactures are noticed under READING. The British and Roman remains are numerous, including Roman roads, and many camps and barrows. Of the old castles, the principal is Windsor; of monastic establishments, the abbeys of Abingdon and Reading. The churches

are small, and from the scarcity of building-stone, are often constructed of chalk and flint. There are many Norman churches, erected in the 12th and 13th centuries. In 1836 Berkshire was transferred from the diocese of Salisbury to that of Oxford. Pop. (1801) 110,480; (1841) 161,759; (1881) 218,363. See Lieutenant-colonel Cooper-King's *History of Berkshire* (1887).

Berlad (Roumanian *Bârlad*), a town of Lower Moldavia, on the Berlad River, 40 miles above its junction with the Sereth. It is an important place, connected with Braila by rail, and has a brisk trade. Pop. (1886) 26,568.

Berlen'gas, a group of rocky islands in the Atlantic Ocean, off the west coast of the Portuguese province of Estremadura.

Berlichingen, GÖTZ VON. See GÖTZ.

Berlin', the capital of Prussia, and, since 1871, of the German empire, the chief residence of the emperor of Germany, the seat of the German Reichstag and Prussian Landtag, and the third largest city of Europe, is situated on the Spree, in 52° 30' N. lat., 13° 24' E. long. The city is built upon a flat sandy plain, which, though cultivated, is far from being fertile. Its average height above the level of the Baltic is only 100 feet, and its mean temperature is 48° F. The Spree, here about 200 feet wide, with a current so sluggish as scarcely to be perceptible, flows from SE. to NW. through the city, dividing it into two nearly equal parts, and communicating with the Oder and the Baltic by canals. The inconvenience of its low-lying situation in the midst of the sandy flats of Brandenburg is more than made up for by the great geographical advantages of its position in the heart of Northern Germany, Berlin being half-way from Hamburg to Breslau, from Stettin to Leipzig, and from Memel to Alsace, as well as equidistant from the frontiers of Russia and Holland, and from the mountains of Central Germany to the Baltic. By rail it is 177 miles SE. of Hamburg, 101 NNE. of Leipzig, and 362 ENE. of Cologne; whilst from London it can be reached in 25 hours, Paris in 23½, and Vienna in 15. The advance of the city has been extraordinary. In 1804 the pop. was 182,157; in 1858 it was 438,961; in 1871 it was 826,341 (including 20,565 soldiers); in 1880, 1,122,330; and in 1885, 1,315,287, the city covering at that date an area of 15,500 acres, and measuring about 6 miles from north to south and from east to west, with a circumference of 29 miles.

As far back as the 13th century, the central part of the present city was inhabited. *Kölln*, on the island formed by the Spree on its left bank, was united to *Old Berlin* on the right bank in 1307. These names are still retained by the corresponding quarters of the modern city. The Wendish *kollen* means 'a hill rising above water or swampy ground,' and *Berlin* is most probably to be traced to the root of *wehr* (English *weir* or *weir*), 'a dam in a river.' Berlin was long little more than a fishing-village; it was not till the 'Great Elector,' Frederick-William (1640-88), had united the separate duchies of which Prussia is now formed, that the town became of consequence as the capital of a large state. In the next century it received accessions of French and Bohemian colonists, driven into exile by religious persecution. Every inducement was then held out to bring foreigners to settle in the rising city. Under Frederick the Great, it continued to prosper. At his death, the inhabitants numbered 145,000. After the peace of 1815, Berlin increased with extraordinary rapidity, and, being the seat of government, a focus of the arts and sciences, and a great centre of commercial enterprise, it has gradually risen to a position which

fairly entitles it to its present rank as the metropolis of the German empire.

The centre of the city is now devoted almost exclusively to commerce. Small towns and villages are gradually being incorporated: Moabit has already disappeared as a separate community; and Charlottenburg, a town of 42,000 inhabitants, is likely soon to follow. Berlin consists of sixteen different quarters, containing about 560 streets, 65 squares, 48 bridges, 700 public buildings, and upwards of 25,000 private houses (comprising 305,000 dwellings). The houses are built of brick, plastered or stuccoed outside, and they soon acquire a faded appearance. The style of these has very much altered since 1864. Before that, the greater portion of the houses were of one, two, or three stories, but these are fast giving way to houses of a larger size. Private houses of more than five inhabited stories and over 72 feet high have (1887) been prohibited. The increase in the value of house-property has been enormous, and the result is that about one-tenth of the population are driven to take up their abode in cellars underground, and more than 63,000 families live in dwellings of one room. In 1887 one building in Ackerstrasse housed no fewer than 1000 persons! Berlin contains a large number of very fine buildings. At the centre of the city is the royal palace, with nearly 700 apartments, including the richly adorned staterooms, the finest of which are the magnificent 'Weisser Saal' and the palace chapel. Near this are the emperor's palace and that of the crown prince; the royal library, which contains upwards of 1,000,000 volumes and 30,000 manuscripts; the old and new museums, the national gallery, the arsenal, the royal theatre, the opera-house, the guard-house, and the university. These are all situated between the Spree and the east end of the street 'Unter den Linden' (so called from its double avenue of limes), one of the finest streets in Europe, about a mile long, and almost 150 feet broad, a continuation of which, called Kaiser-Wilhelm-Strasse, beyond the Opernplatz, Lustgarten, and Kaiser-Wilhelmsbrücke (1887), is being cut through the old town on the other side of the Spree. The other chief streets are the Friedrichstrasse (2 miles long), the Leipzigerstrasse, the Königstrasse, and the Wilhelmstrasse, in which is the imperial chancellor's palace, where the Congress of Berlin sat in 1878. The city is adorned throughout with numerous statues of national heroes, the statue of the Great Elector (on the Langebrücke), and the equestrian statue of Frederick the Great (in front of the emperor's palace), being the most remarkable. There are in all more than 20 theatres in Berlin. Of educational institutions, Berlin had, in 1885, 24 classical and other gymnasia, 13 higher boys' and 55 higher girls' schools, and 213 middle and elementary schools, with a total of 170,000 pupils. Besides these there are 23 *kindergärten*. The university, established in 1809, possesses 4 museums and a library of 300,000 volumes, and has a very high reputation. Among the professors whose talents have rendered it famous were Fichte, Hegel, Schelling, and Schleiermacher. The number of professors and lecturers is now about 276, and of students about 6000. Of the other public institutions of Berlin may be mentioned the Academy of Sciences, by far the most important of the kind in Germany; the Military Academy; the Academy of Architecture; the Academic High School (of art); the School of Mines; the School of Agriculture; the Artillery, Technical, and Engineering Colleges; the Industrial (1881), Ethnological (1886), and other museums; the Academy of Music; the Observatory; many scientific and learned societies; several seminaries

for teachers and missionaries; and a large number of public and private institutions and societies for benevolent purposes. Of the numerous hospitals in Berlin, the Charité (adjoining which is the Pathological Institute, under Professor Virchow) is the largest in Germany. About 88 per cent. of the population are Protestants, 7 per cent. Roman Catholics, and 5 per cent. Jews. Berlin has a cathedral and 58 Protestant and 9 Catholic churches. Of these, the Nicolikirche (restored in 1880), Marienkirche (with a spire 295 feet high), and Klosterkirche, all of the 13th century, are the oldest; the Petrikirche (with a tower 315 feet high) is the loftiest; and the Michaelskirche (Catholic), Thomaskirche, Zionskirche, Dankeskirche (1884), and Heiligekreuzkirche (1887), are the finest and most recent. The New Synagogue (1866) has a richly decorated interior, a gilded dome 158 feet high, and seats for 3000 persons.

The Old Museum contains antiquarian specimens, a collection of 90,000 coins, a gallery of ancient sculpture, and a picture-gallery with about 1300 paintings. The New Museum contains six magnificent mural paintings by Kaulbach in the grand staircase, a very extensive and valuable collection of casts arranged in 12 saloons, the Egyptian museum, and a fine collection of engravings numbering upwards of 500,000. The National Gallery includes about 700 works by modern artists. The celebrated Brandenburg Gate (erected in imitation of the Propylæa at Athens, 65 feet high, and 205 feet wide) leads from Unter den Linden and the Pariser Platz to the Thiergarten, a park of 370 acres (with the monument of Friedrich-Wilhelm III., and those of Goethe and Queen Luise, both erected in 1880), the largest of the five parks belonging to the town. To the south-west of this lies the Zoological Garden, which has recently been considerably extended. The Botanical Garden (at Schöneberg) contains 25,000 species. Noteworthy also are the Rauch Museum in the Lagerhaus (the oldest secular building in the city), the Rathhaus, the Aquarium, the eight marble groups on the Schlossbrücke, the royal chateau of Monbijou (with the Hohenzollern Museum), the Ruhmeshalle in the arsenal (beautifully rebuilt in 1883), the monuments of Stein, of Calvin, of Schiller (before the royal theatre), and of the Humboldts (in front of the university), the Gothic monument on the Krenzberg, the Column of Peace in the Belle-Alliance-Platz, the Warriors' Monument, and the Column of Victory, 200 feet high, erected in the Königsplatz in commemoration of the great victories of 1864, 1866, and 1870-71, near which are the War Office and the new building for the Reichstag (the latter in course of construction).

The commerce and manufactures of Berlin have increased so rapidly of late years, that it now ranks among the most important mercantile places of continental Europe. The traffic is carried on by the Spree, the canals, and fourteen railways, of which the intra-mural or 'city railway,' opened in 1882, has a length of 7 miles, and passes through the middle of the city from east to west, and the suburban or 'ring railway,' 23 miles long, forms a complete circle round its outskirts. In 1886 the city railway carried eight million passengers; the city omnibuses, thirteen; and the tramway-cars, seventy. The traffic by water is 50 per cent. greater than that of any inland town of Germany, amounting in 1886 to 3,716,000 tons. The staple commodities are grain, cattle, spirits, and wool. The Exchange, daily visited by 3500 persons, is the centre of the North German money-market. The Reichsbank is the chief bank in Germany for the issue of notes. It has £6,000,000 of paid-up capital, and 218 branch offices. The principal

branches of industry are woollen-weaving, calico-printing, and the manufacture of engines and other machinery (for which there are now 100 establishments), also of iron, steel, and bronze wares, drapery goods, and confections. Of ladies' mantles alone Berlin produces annually £5,000,000 worth (two-thirds for export trade). It has also very important manufactures of railway and other carriages, sewing-machines, safes, telegraphic apparatus, scientific instruments, chronometers, steel pens, and jewellery. Of the other industries of Berlin the chief are its manufactures of pianofortes (of which the four largest manufactories turn out as many as 6000 in a year), accordions (of which Berlin is the main source of supply for the foreign trade), and other musical instruments; hardware, German silver, lumps, and metal toys; leather, paper, rubber, soap, and chemicals; furniture, carpets, porcelain, and other earthenware; gloves, linen articles, straw-hats, and artificial flowers. The silk trade alone appears to have fallen off of late years. Of beer, over 47,000,000 gallons were brewed in the year 1883-84, the malt-tax for the same period amounting to nearly £100,000. Most large enterprises are now carried on by joint-stock companies, although a number have in recent years ended in disaster, with great loss to the shareholders. In respect of its publishing trade, Berlin now shares with Leipzig the first rank amongst German cities. In 1885 there appeared 410 journals, of which more than 30 were daily papers. The number of letters and other articles sent through the Berlin post-office amounted in 1885 to 50,000,000; and the recently started telephone company had in that year 9 offices and 6000 subscribers. See VIZETELLY, *Berlin under the New Empire* (2 vols. 1879); RING, *Die Deutsche Kaiserstadt Berlin* (2 vols. Leip. 1883); and ERNST FRIEDEL, *Berlin, Potsdam, und Umgebungen* (33d ed. Berlin, 1887).

THE CONGRESS OF BERLIN met at Berlin in June 1878, and consisted of representatives of Russia, Turkey, Germany, Great Britain, France, Austria, and Italy. It was primarily designed to revise the preliminary treaty of San Stefano, concluded by Russia and Turkey after the war of 1877-78, and the treaty of Berlin began a new era in the history of the Ottoman empire. Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro were recognised as independent, the latter powers receiving additional territory. The concession of additional territory to Greece was recommended (and made, 1881). Roumania received the Dobruja in exchange for Bessarabia, given to Russia. Ardahan, Kars, Batoum, and other parts of Armenia were ceded to Russia by Turkey. Turkey engaged to carry out reform in Asia Minor and Crete. Bulgaria became an autonomous but tributary principality, and Eastern Roumelia (which was practically united to Bulgaria after the war with Servia in 1885), though remaining under the direct political and military authority of the sultan, secured administrative autonomy and the right to have a Christian governor-general. Bosnia and Herzegovina were to be occupied and administered by Austro-Hungary. Prince Bismarck was president of the Congress, and the Earl of Beaconsfield and the Marquis of Salisbury were the English plenipotentiaries.

Berlin, a town of Ontario, Canada, 62 miles SW. of Toronto by rail. Pop. 4054.

Berlin, the name of forty different towns, villages, hamlets, and townships in the United States, none of them of importance. The largest is a city of Green Lake county, Wisconsin, on the Fox River, 96 miles NNW. of Milwaukee by rail, with a tannery and several mills. Pop. 3241.

Berlin Decree. See CONTINENTAL SYSTEM.

Berlin Spirit, a coarse whisky made chiefly from beet-root, potatoes, &c. Because of its cheapness it has been largely used in the making of brandy, and in mixing low wines. The effect upon the consumer is pernicious, the cheap wines thus fortified being considered very unwholesome. See BRANDY, DISTILLATION, WINE.

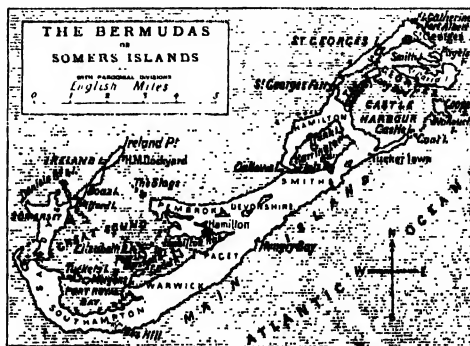
Berlioz, HECTOR, a musical composer of remarkable but eccentric genius, was born December 11, 1803, at Côte-St-André, in the department of Isère, France, where his father was a physician. Against the wishes of his parents, who intended him to pursue the same profession, and sent him to Paris to study medicine, he devoted himself to music, entering the Conservatoire as a pupil of Lesueur. Amid severe privations—for his father had cut off his supplies—Berlioz continued his musical education, winning the second prize in 1828, and the first, or *Grand prix de Rome*, in 1830, with a cantata entitled *Sardanapalus*. In accordance with the conditions attached to this prize, Berlioz now went to Italy, where he resided for upwards of a year, and became acquainted with Liszt and Mendelssohn. The artistic surroundings of his life in Rome, however, were profoundly distasteful to him, and his sojourn was not marked by much creative work. After his return to Paris, in the year 1832, Berlioz soon brought some of his compositions to a hearing; but their complicated and peculiar nature failed to win popular recognition, and Berlioz was driven to support himself and his wife—he married the Irish actress, Henrietta Smithson, in 1833—by writing musical criticisms for various newspapers, an irksome burden from which he only freed himself at the close of his life. In this work, often wrung from him with the utmost pain and effort, are revealed those remarkable gifts of style, of picturesque expression, and of humour, which render his letters and his memoirs such admirable reading. When occasion offered, Berlioz also adopted the precarious livelihood of a concert-giver. In 1838 Paganini was so much impressed by a performance of the *Symphonic Fantastique* that he presented, or became the medium for presenting, Berlioz with the sum of 20,000 francs. In 1842 he set out on the first of those foreign concert tours which more than anything else indemnified him for the indifference of his compatriots. More than once he was offered a post in Germany, but could not make up his mind to tear himself away from Paris. In the course of these journeys Berlioz visited and was received with almost uniform enthusiasm in Belgium, Germany, Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, and even Russia. In 1848 he was engaged by Jullien as conductor at Drury Lane, but the enterprise proved a disastrous failure. In 1855 he fulfilled another engagement in London as conductor of the New Philharmonic Society. It is pleasant to think that Berlioz, who was much attached to England, and had a profound veneration for Shakespeare, has owed the posthumous rehabilitation of his fame chiefly to the efforts of musicians resident in that country. Mr Charles Hallé, a friend of Berlioz's earlier years, produced his *Damnation de Faust* at Manchester in 1880, since when it has made its way into the *répertoire* of all the chief choral societies of the kingdom; and Mr Marns, at the famous Saturday concerts of the Crystal Palace, has been equally assiduous in familiarising English audiences with the colossal masterpieces of the French composer. Between 1855 and 1869, in which year Berlioz died, the course of his life presents no special features. He had practically abandoned composition, the only

work produced in this period being his opera *Les Troyens*, performed with moderate success in 1863. The complete list of Berlioz's works is comprised within the limits of twenty-six *opus*-numbers; but this scanty array affords no clue to the magnitude of their dimensions. After his *Faust*, which is, perhaps, deservedly his most popular work, his most successful achievements are his symphonies, *Roméo et Juliette*, *Harold en Italie*, and the *Symphonie Fantastique*; his overtures, *Carnaval Romain*, *Benvenuto Cellini*, and *Waverley*; his charming opera, *Beatrice et Bénédict*; his sacred trilogy, *L'Enfance du Christ*; and finally, his great *Messe des Morts*—the requiem written for the obsequies of General Damrémont in 1837—and his *Te Deum*, in the *Judex* of which Berlioz rises to his greatest height. A great deal of Berlioz's best literary work is buried in the files of the *Débats*; but his published writings amount to several volumes, including his *Soirées d'orchestre*, *A travers Chants*, *Les Grotesques de la Musique*, his *Mémoires* (published in 1865), and finally, his well-known treatise on orchestration, which has been translated into English, and is a standard work on the subject. The characteristics of Berlioz's compositions are too remarkable to be discussed in a brief summary. His conceptions were grandiose rather than great, and in carrying them out he sometimes narrowly escaped an abrupt lapse from sublimity to bathos. He delighted overmuch in extravagantly exciting effects; but his sense of orchestration was so abnormally acute that, as an English critic has observed, no matter what the effect was, it was sure to sound exactly as he intended it. In delicate orchestral embroidery he stands alone—witness the 'Queen Mab' scherzo in his *Roméo et Juliette*, and the accompaniment to the chorus of spirits of the air in *Lélio*. Though accused of being a revolutionary in music, he entertained the most touching and enthusiastic reverence for Beethoven, Weber, and Gluck. Of an imperious and uncompromising disposition in his official and professional relations, he was nevertheless on terms of close intimacy with a great number of his contemporaries, amongst whom may be mentioned Liszt, Heine, Balzac, Stephen Heller, and Ernst. Schumann at once recognised his great talent, and published eulogistic analyses of his works in the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*. Berlioz was made a chevalier of the Legion of Honour in 1839, and was elected a member of the Institute at Paris in 1856. He was also librarian of the Conservatoire. The best account of him is to be found in the notice by M. Daniel Bernard prefixed to his *Correspondance Inédite* (Paris, Calmann Lévy, 1879). See also his *Autobiography* (Eng. trans. 1884). [The name is pronounced *Berliozz*, not *Berlioh*.]

Bermondsey, a south-east suburb of London, on the south bank of the Thames, and traversed by the Greenwich Railway. It has extensive tan-yards and wharfs. Pop. of parish (1881) 86,652.

Bermu'das, or **SOMERS' ISLANDS**, British possessions in Mid-Atlantic, were so named respectively from Bermudes, a Spaniard, who first sighted them in 1515, and from Sir George Somers, an Englishman, whose shipwreck here in 1609 was the immediate occasion of their being colonised from Virginia—itself only four years old—in 1611. This low and lonely archipelago is a mere group of specks; for though it numbers perhaps 100 islets and more than twice that number of rocks, yet it measures only about 12,000 acres in all, the whole occupying a space of about 14 miles in length by little more than 5 in breadth. The islands are composed of blown coral sand, and are surrounded by a living, growing reef of coral, the whole being

a modified Atoll (q.v.), and the most northerly of such structures. The great value of this natural fortress as a British naval station, defended by its extensive barrier of reefs and rocks, with only one or two intricate channels, arises from its situation. In 32° 15' N. lat., and 64° 51' W. long., the Bermudas occupy, commercially and politically, a singularly commanding position. At a distance of 580 miles from Cape Hatteras, in North Carolina, they are about equally remote from the north of Maine and from the south of Florida; while they are a connecting link between Canada and the British West Indies. In the principal or Main Island is situated the present seat of government, Hamilton, on a deep inlet running 2 or 3 miles into the land. St George's, the island next in importance, contains the picturesque town of the same name, and a land-locked harbour, the entrance to which is defended by strong batteries. Ireland



Island is entirely occupied by Her Majesty's Dockyard and other naval establishments; and Boaz and Watford Islands have the military depôts and garrisons. At Ireland Island also is the celebrated Bermuda Floating Dock, built in England, and towed out in 1869. It is 381 feet in length by 124 feet in breadth, and is sufficiently powerful to lift a ship of the *Minotaur* class. The minor islands of St David, Cooper, Smith, Nonsuch, Godet, and others, form numerous picturesque creeks and bays of great size and depth, such as the Great Sound, Castle Harbour, Harrington Sound, and others. Most of the other islands are insignificant, many of them without name or inhabitant. The group forms an almost continuous chain, and, with one break, there is uninterrupted communication by roads, causeways, and bridges for a distance of about 22 miles; but from the strange shapes of most of the islands, and the number of spacious lagoons, the communications are almost as necessarily by water as are those of Venice. The climate is tempered by an almost constant sea-breeze, and the air is moist at all seasons. The thermometer never falls below 40° F., and seldom rises above 85°. The islands are becoming a popular holiday and winter resort, especially for Americans, and both Hamilton and St George's are plentifully supplied with hotels and shops. The climate, however, is not suited for consumptive invalids. The soil is poor in quality, and not more than a fourth is cultivable at all; but there being no winter frosts, crops can be prepared for March, April, May, or June, and the large quantities of early potatoes, onions, tomatoes, and other garden vegetables, which in these months fetch high prices at the New York markets, enable the Bermudians to live comfortably on the income of their comparatively small portions of ground.

Besides being useful as a station for those British vessels of war which are charged with the care of the West Indies on the one side and the northern provinces on the other, Bermuda was formerly an important dépôt for convicts, but since the year 1862 it has ceased to be so. There is a regular fortnightly mail service with New York, and a weekly service in the early spring. The colony has no railways, but has a very complete telegraph system. Pop. (1871) 12,121; (1881) 14,314, including 5384 whites, 8564 coloured persons, and 266 civilians employed in the naval and military establishments. The total imports in 1885 had a value of £238,000; the exports, £85,000. The revenue in 1885 was £28,693; the expenditure, £29,096; the public debt, £5284. The fisheries are productive. As their own early crops are too valuable for home consumption, the Bermudians import grain, flour, rice, and also livestock from the United States. The group is under the authority of a governor and council of 9 members appointed by the crown; and an assembly of 36, four of whom are elected by each of the nine parishes. Hamilton and St George's have each a mayor, three aldermen, and five councillors. The schools are mostly private, and charge fees, but are aided by public grants, under the supervision of a Board of Education; and attendance is compulsory. There were in 1885, 23 schools with 1293 scholars. Hamilton possesses a very good public library. More than two-thirds of the population belong to the Church of England, which has five clergymen, under the Bishop of Newfoundland and Bermuda; the Presbyterians have two, the Wesleyans three ministers, and other bodies are also represented. Under a temporary act, all churches are endowed at the rate of £10 for every 100 members. See works on Bermuda by Lefroy (1882), Ogilvy (1883), and Dorr (New York, 1884); Stark's *Illustrated Bermuda* (Boston, 1884), and the *Annual Bermuda Pocket Almanac, Guide, and Directory*.

Bermudez, a state in the NE. of Venezuela, between the Orinoco and the Caribbean Sea, formed in 1881 from the former states and present sections of Barcelona, Cumana, and Maturin. Area, 32,128 sq. m.; pop. (1884) 55,677.

Bern, or **BERNE**, a Swiss canton, bounded on the N. by France. It is the most populous, and next to the Grisons the most extensive canton of Switzerland; its area being nearly 2650 sq. m., and its population (1880) 532,164, more than one-sixth of the total inhabitants of Switzerland. Of these, 66,000 were Roman Catholics and over 1300 Jews. The fertile valleys of the Aar and the Emmenthal divide the mountainous Alpine region in the south from the Jura Mountains in the north. The valleys of Simmenthal, Lauterbrunnen, Grindelwald, and Hasli, in the south, called the *Bernese Oberland*, are celebrated for their beauty. The lakes of Thun, Brienz, Nenchâtel, and Bienné are in the canton, which is watered by the Aar and its several tributaries. The climate is generally healthy. The plains of the Aar and the Emmenthal are the most fruitful, producing corn and fruits of various kinds, and affording excellent pasturage for cattle, which, with dairy-produce, form the chief agricultural wealth of Bern. The vine grows in some districts. The horses of the Emmenthal are much prized. The lakes abound with salmon and trout. Iron-mines are worked, and a little gold is found, and quarries of sandstone, granite, and marble are abundant. Its manufactures, which are not extensive, consist chiefly of linen, coarse woollens, leather, iron, and copper wares, articles of wood, and watches. Bern entered the Swiss Confederation, in which it now holds the second rank, in 1352. In the 15th and 16th centuries, it

added to its possessions Aargau and Vaud, which it lost during the wars of the first Napoleon; but it received in return Bienne and its territory, and the greater part of the bishopric of Basel. The present constitution of the canton, proclaimed in 1874, but based on the laws of 1848, is one of representative democracy.

Bern, or **BERNE**, capital of the above canton and of Switzerland, is situated on a lofty sandstone promontory formed by the winding Aar, which surrounds it on three sides, and is crossed by several bridges, one of which is an imposing iron structure of 1883, 751 feet long, and 115 high. Bern is 68 miles by rail SSW. of Basel. It is one of the best and most regularly built towns in Europe, as it is the finest in Switzerland. The houses are massive structures of freestone, resting upon arcades, which are lined with shops, and furnish covered walks on both sides of the street. Rills of water flow through the streets. The view of the Alpine peaks from the city is magnificent. The principal public buildings are a Gothic cathedral (1421-1573), whose restoration and completion was undertaken in 1887; the magnificent Federal Council Hall (1857), the mint, the hospital, and the university. Bern has an interesting museum, and a valuable public library of 50,000 volumes. The manufacturing industry is trifling, and consists chiefly of dress fabrics and hats; but it has a considerable trade in the produce of the surrounding district. Pop. (1885) 47,793. Bern was founded in 1191, was made a free imperial city in 1218, under Frederick II., and gradually extended its possessions until it became an independent state; and between 1288 and 1339 successfully resisted the attacks of Rudolf of Hapsburg, Albert his son, and Louis of Bavaria. The 'Disputation of Bern' between Catholics and Reformers in 1528 (January 6-27) prepared the way for the acceptance of the reformed doctrine. Bern is the residence of foreign ministers, and, since 1849, the permanent seat of the Swiss government and diet. On account of the traditional derivation of its name (old Swabian *bern*, 'a bear'), bears have for several centuries been maintained in Bern at the expense of the community, and the bear-pit is still one of the 'sights' of the city.

Bernadotte, the French Napoleonic officer who became king of Sweden as Charles XIV. (q.v.).

Bernalda, a town in South Italy, in the province of Potenza. Pop. 6976.

Bernard, **GREAT ST.** See **ST BERNARD**.

Bernard, **CLAUDE**, a great French physiologist, born at Saint-Julien, near Villefranche, 12th July 1813. He studied medicine at Paris, became a hospital-surgeon in 1839, and two years later assistant at the Collège de France to the great physiologist Magendie, with whom he worked for thirteen years, until his own appointment in February 1854 to the chair of General Physiology. The same year he was chosen member of the Academy of Sciences, and in 1855 he succeeded to Magendie's chair of Experimental Physiology. Bernard was elected to the Academy in 1869, and died at Paris, February 10, 1878. His funeral was conducted at the public expense, an honour never before given to a man of science, and his *éloge* at the Academy fell to Renan. As an original investigator, Bernard stands among the foremost of the century. His earliest researches were devoted to the physiological action of the various secretions of the alimentary canal. His proof that the sole use of the pancreatic juice in the digestive system is so to modify the ingested fats as to render them capable of being absorbed by the chyle ducts, is a masterpiece of biological demonstration. Another important discovery established the saccharine function of the

liver. Still more important was his demonstration of the connection between this function of the liver and the nervous system. He showed that the normal formation of sugar in the liver could be totally interrupted by severing the pneumogastric nerve in the neighbourhood of the heart, and moreover, that by a wound made on the floor of the fourth ventricle of the brain, an abnormal formation of sugar could be immediately induced—a great contribution to our knowledge of the pathology of diabetes. For these great discoveries Bernard received the physiological prizes of the French Academy in 1851 and in 1853. Later researches were on the change of temperature of the blood in its passage from one organ to another; on the absorption of oxygen by the blood, and the respective amount of it in arterial and in red and black venous blood; on the comparative properties of the opium alkaloids; on the poisonous properties of curarine; and on the sympathetic nerves in general; as well as numerous investigations on the individual processes in the act of digestion. The great experimentalist was a remarkably lucid lecturer, alike in the academic chair and on the platform, and his *Leçons de Physiologie Expérimentale appliquée à la Médecine* (1865) is a standard work far beyond his country. Other books are: *Leçons sur les Effets des Substances Toxiques et Médicamenteuses* (1857), *Introduction à l'Étude de la Médecine Expérimentale* (1865), and *Leçons de Pathologie Expérimentale* (1874). Many of his papers appear in the special scientific journals, and in the *comptes rendus* of the Académie des Sciences and the Société de Biologie, of which last he was one of the founders and the president for the last eleven years of his life.

Bernard, St., of Clairvaux, one of the most influential theologians of the middle ages, was born of a noble family at Fontaines, near Dijon, in Burgundy, in 1091; entered the Cistercian monastery of Cîteaux at twenty-two; and became two years later the first abbot of the newly-founded monastery of Clairvaux, in Champagne. He died at Clairvaux, August 20, 1153; and was canonised by Pope Alexander III. in 1174. His ascetic life, solitary studies, and stirring eloquence made him during his lifetime the oracle of Christendom. He founded more than seventy monasteries, and his persuasive earnestness was such that he drew also into the monastic life both his two elder and his two younger brothers, while we are told that mothers hid their sons, wives their husbands, companions their friends, that they might escape the resistless spell of his spiritual enthusiasm. He was honoured with the title of the 'mellifluous doctor,' and he is regarded by the Catholic church as the last of the fathers. Bernard drew up the statutes of the Knights Templars at the request of their grandmaster in 1128. The reverence in which he was held gave him great influence in the political movements of his time. It was due to his persuasion that Innocent II. was recognised at the Synod of Étampes (1131) by Louis VI. of France, soon after by Henry I. of England and the Emperor Lothar of Germany, as pope in opposition to the antipope Anacletus. His influence in Christendom rose to its height under the reign of Pope Eugenius III., his disciple. It was his glowing eloquence at the council at Vézelay in 1146 that kindled the enthusiasm of France for the second crusade. Charged by the pope to excite the religious zeal of the people of France and Germany, Bernard accomplished his mission with fatally memorable success. Fields, towns, cities, and castles were in many places almost depopulated, and thousands of men, fired by his prophetic eloquence, hurried to the East, but few of whom were ever to see their homes again.

The influence of St Bernard as a spiritual teacher through his fervid piety and living grasp of Christian doctrine was a wholesome antidote to the dry and cold scholasticism which prevailed among the churchmen of his age. 'If there ever lived on the earth a God-fearing and holy monk,' says Luther, 'it was St Bernard of Clairvaux.' Yet his Christianity lacked the perfect flower of gentleness, and his harsh severity towards the unhappy Abelard and Bishop Gilbert of Poitiers is a distinct blot on his character. His writings are exceedingly numerous. They consist of more than 400 epistles, 340 sermons, and 12 distinct theological treatises. They are all instinct with genius, though it is difficult for us now to appreciate their extraordinary influence. The best edition of the works of St Bernard is that of Mabillon, first printed at Paris in 6 vols. (1667-90). They appear as 4 vols. of Migne's *Patrologia Latina* (1851-52). He was one of the greatest of the Latin hymn-writers, many modern hymns being based on his *Jesu Dulcis Memoria*. The monks of the reformed branch of the Cistercians, which he instituted, are often called, after him, Bernardines. He gave name also in France to the nuns of the Cistercian order, which his sister, St Humbeline, is said to have founded. See Morison, *Life and Times of St Bernard* (3d ed. 1877), and Ratisbonne, *Histoire de Saint-Bernard et de son Siècle* (9th ed. Paris, 1883).

Bernard of Morlaix, a monk of Cluny about 1140, is said to have been born of English parents at Morlaix in Brittany. He is the author of the remarkable poem *De Contemptu Mundi*, in 3000 long rolling, 'leonine-daetylic' verses, which has been freely translated by Dr Neale as *The Rhythm of Bernard of Morlaix*. From this 'Jerusalem the Golden' and other well-known hymns are taken.

Bernard Dog. See ST BERNARD DOG.

Bernardines. See CISTERCIANS.

Bernardino, St., of Siena, born in 1380 at Massa-Carrara, of a distinguished family, made himself famous by his rigid restoration of their primitive rule amongst the degenerate order of the Franciscans, of which he became a member in 1404. In 1438 he was appointed vicar-general of his order for Italy. Bernardino was unweariedly devoted in his activity during the great Italian plague of 1400, both as an impressive preacher and an attendant upon the sick and dying. He founded the *Frates de Observantia*, a branch of the Franciscan order, which already numbered more than 300 monasteries in Italy during his day. Bernardino died in 1444, and was canonised in 1450. His eminently mystical works were published at Venice in 1591, and at Paris in 1636.

Bernauer, AGNES, the beautiful daughter of a poor surgeon of Augsburg, secretly married, in 1432, to Duke Albrecht of Bavaria, only son of the reigning Duke Ernst. Their happiness was undisturbed, till Albrecht's father, becoming aware of his son's attachment, had the knightly lists shut against him, as one who was living with a woman in licentiousness. Albrecht now made Agnes be openly honoured as Duchess of Bavaria. But in her husband's absence, Duke Ernst had Agnes tried for sorcery, condemned for having bewitched Albrecht, and drowned in the Danube in the presence of the whole people, October 12, 1435. Albrecht took up arms against his father; but after a year of war he was prevailed on to return to his father's court, and ultimately consented to marry Anna of Brunswick.

Bernay, a French town in the department of Eure, 25 miles WNW. of Evreux. One of the

largest horse-fairs in France is held here annually. Pop. 6931.

Bernays, JAKOB, an eminent philologist, born of Jewish parents at Hamburg in 1824, made his studies at Bonn, where he became professor and librarian in 1866, and died, May 26, 1881. Among his numerous books were a *Life of Scaliger* (1855), *Lucian und die Cyniker* (1879), an edition of *Lucretius* (1852), and a translation of the first three books of Aristotle's *Politics* (1872). His *Gesammelte Abhandlungen* were edited by Usener (1885).

Bernburg, a town in the German duchy of Anhalt, till 1863 capital of Anhalt-Bernburg, lies on the Saale, 23 miles S. of Magdeburg. Bernburg has manufactures of machinery, sugar, spirits, porcelain, paper, and starch. Pop. (1871) 15,709; (1885) 21,464.

Berners, or BARNES, DAME JULIANA, a writer on hunting and hawking, of whom almost nothing is really known. Tradition has it that she was prioress of Sopwell Nunnery, near St Albans, and daughter of Sir James Berners, who was beheaded in 1388. To her has been generally conceded the authorship of the *Treatyse perchevynge to Hawkyng, Huntynge, and Fysshynge with an Angle: also a right noble Treatyse on the Lynage of Coote Armiris; endynge with a Treatyse which specyfeth of Blasyng of Armys*; although she probably wrote only the treatise on hunting, and part of that on hawking. The heraldry is certainly not hers. The earliest extant edition, printed at St Albans in 1486, is issued without the treatise on fishing. A facsimile of this with an introduction by William Blades appeared in 1881. A folio edition was printed by Wynkyn de Worde in 1496, and at least ten more editions appeared before 1600, a testimony to the popularity of the 'Boke of St Albans.' A facsimile was issued by Haslewood in 1810, with a thorough examination of her claims to be regarded as the first female writer in the English language. Baskerville printed an edition of the *Treatyse of Fysshynge* in 1827, and another was issued in 1880.

Bernhard, Duke of Weimar, a celebrated German general, born in 1604, was the youngest of the eight sons of John, third Duke of Saxe-Weimar. On the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War, he took the side of Protestantism, and first distinguished himself in 1622 at the bloody battle of Wimpfen. Subsequently, he became colonel in the army of Christian IV. of Denmark. In 1631 Gustavus Adolphus made his appearance in Germany, and Bernhard was one of the first who flew to his standard. He commanded the left wing at Lützen, and after the king's death had the chief command. He took a very important part in the war; but after a brilliant career, he fell suddenly ill, and died at Neuburg on the Rhine, July 8, 1639. Bernhard's own opinion, and that of others, that he died of poison administered by his physician, who is supposed to have been in the pay of Richelieu, is not supported by evidence. See Droysen, *Bernhard von Weimar* (Leip. 1885).

Bernhardt, ROSINE, called SARAH, a French actress, born of Jewish parents in Paris, October 22, 1844, was baptised into the Christian faith by her father's desire, and brought up in a convent at Versailles. Entering the Paris Conservatoire in 1858, she gained second prizes for both tragedy and comedy, and in 1862 made her début as 'Iphigenie' at the Théâtre Français, but attracted so little notice that she soon left the theatre, only to meet with still less success in burlesque at the Gymnase and Porte St Martin. In 1867 she played minor parts at the Odéon, and became famous by her impersonation of the 'Queen of Spain' in *Ruy Blas*,

and of 'Zanetto' in Coppée's *Passant*. She was recalled to the Théâtre Français in 1872, and after 1879 made annual appearances, with marked success, in London. Her tours in North and South America, in Italy, Russia, &c., were also pecuniarily successful; but her essay at the management of a Paris theatre involved her in heavy debt. In 1882 she was married to M. Jacques Daria or d'Amala, a Greek actor, from whom she was divorced shortly afterwards. Madame Bernhardt is probably the greatest *tragédienne* since Rachel, and in comedy also she ranks as a finished actress. Her talent as an artist is considerable, and both paintings and statues from her studio have appeared in the Salon.

Bernhardy, GOTTFRIED, a German scholar, born of Jewish parents near Frankfort in 1800, was educated at Berlin, and in 1829 became director of the philological seminary at Halle. Here he died, May 14, 1875. Of his numerous philological works may be mentioned his *Syntax der griechischen Sprache* (1829); *Paralipomena Syntaxis Græcæ* (1854); and the critical edition of *Suidæ Lexicon* (4 vols. 1834-53). His works on Roman and Greek literature, especially the history of the latter, are also of high value.

Berni (also *Bernie*), FRANCESCO, a favourite Italian poet, from whom comic or jocular poetry has the name of *Versi Berneschi*, was born at Lamporecchio, in Tuscany, about 1490. He first entered the service of his uncle, Cardinal Bibbiena, and was afterwards for several years secretary to Ghiberti, chancellor to Clement VII. About 1530 he betook himself to Florence, where he was made a canon, and lived in favour with the two Medici, Duke Alessandro, and Cardinal Ippolito, till his death in 1536, which, however, according to another story, was brought about by the former, in consequence of Berni's refusal to poison the cardinal. His *Opere Burlesche* are to be found in the *Classici Italiani* (Milan, 1806). His recast or rifacimento of Boiardo's *Orlando Innamorato* was received with such favour that it was thrice reprinted from 1541-45; it is still read in Italy (and justly so) in preference to the original. He had a large share in establishing Italian as a literary language. A full account of Berni is given in his *Life* (Florence, 1882) by Virgili, who has also published a volume of his lyrics, letters, and Latin verses (1885).

Bernicia, a Latinised form of the British word *Bryneich*, used to indicate the northern part of what became the kingdom of Northumbria, the part north of the Tees. The Anglian kingdom of Bernicia is said to have been founded by Ida, who made his capital at Bamborough about 550 A.D. See NORTHUMBRIA.

Bernier, FRANÇOIS, a French physician and traveller, famous alike as a philosopher and a wit, was born at Angers, in France, and departed for the East about 1654. He visited Syria, Egypt, Arabia, and India, in the last of which countries he resided for twelve years in the capacity of physician to Aurungzebe, and on his return to France he published a delightful account of his travels in 1670-71. Bernier died at Paris in 1688.

Bernina, a mountain of the Rhetian Alps, 13,290 feet high, in the Swiss canton of Grisons, with remarkable and extensive glaciers. Its summit was first attained in 1850. The Bernina Pass, which attains an elevation of 7642 feet, and over which a carriage-road was completed in 1864, leads from Pontresina to Poschiavo.

Bernini, GIOVANNI LORENZO, sculptor, architect, and painter, was born at Naples in 1598. He early devoted himself to sculpture, and in his

eighteenth year finished his admired group of Apollo and Daphne, which gave promise of greater excellence than was afterwards realised by the artist. Pope Urban VIII. employed him to produce designs for the embellishment of St Peter's at Rome, and his greatest achievement in architecture is its colossal colonnade. In 1663 he accepted the flattering invitation of Louis XIV., and travelled to Paris with great pomp. In Paris he resided above eight months; but his design for the Louvre being deemed inferior to Perrault's, he confined himself entirely to sculpture. His visit, however, proved a highly remunerative one. Richly laden with gifts, he returned to Rome, where he died, November 28, 1680, leaving a fortune of £100,000 to his children. Besides his works in sculpture, Bernini also left numerous paintings behind him. Few artists have been so much admired and rewarded during their lifetime as Bernini; but time has rather subtracted from than added to his fame.

Bernoulli, or **BERNOULLI**, was the name of a family that produced a succession of men who became famous over all Europe for the successful cultivation and extension of various branches of mathematical and physical science. The family originally resided in Antwerp, whence, in 1583, its attachment to the reformed religion drove it to seek an asylum in Frankfort. Afterwards the Bernoullis settled in Basel, where they achieved the highest professional honours. Eight of them became highly distinguished; but special mention can be made here only of the three most celebrated—James, John, and Daniel.

JAMES BERNOULLI was born at Basel, December 27, 1654, where he also died, August 16, 1705. He devoted his life to the study of mathematics, of which, in 1687, he became professor in the university of Basel, succeeding in that chair the distinguished Megerlin. His *Commen Navi Systematis Cometae*, an essay on comets, suggested by the appearance of the comet of 1680, and his essay *De Gravitate Aetheris*, both showed the influence of Descartes' philosophy. Besides a variety of memoirs on scientific subjects, he published no other work of importance. *De Arte Conjectandi* was a posthumous work concerning the extension of the doctrine of probabilities to moral, political, and economical subjects. His collected works were published in 2 vols. 4to, at Geneva, in 1744. Among his triumphs are to be recorded his solution of Leibnitz's problem of the isochronous curve, and his determination of the catenary. At his request, a logarithmic spiral was engraved on his tomb, with the motto, *Eadem mutata resurgo*.

JOHN BERNOULLI, brother of the preceding, was born at Basel, July 27, 1667. He and James were the first two foreigners honoured by being elected associates of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and they were also made members of the Academy of Berlin. John devoted himself to chemical as well as to mathematical science. In 1694 he took the degree of M.D., and soon after became professor of Mathematics at Groningen, whence he only removed to succeed his brother James in the university of Basel. His forte was pure mathematics, in which he had no superior in Europe in his day. He died January 1, 1748. The determination of the 'line of swiftest descent,' and the invention of the 'exponential calculus,' have been claimed as his achievements. His collected works were published at Geneva, in 4 vols. (1742).

DANIEL BERNOULLI, born at Groningen, February 9, 1700, died at Basel, March 17, 1782, was the second son of John. Like his father, he devoted himself to medicine as well as to mathematics. The family reputation early helped him to the professorship of Mathematics at St Petersburg,

which he held for several years. Thence, however, he ultimately retired to Basel, much against the will of the czar. At Basel, he occupied in succession the chairs of Anatomy and Botany, and of Experimental and Speculative Philosophy. He published various works between 1730 and 1756, of which the chief are concerned with pneumatical and hydrodynamical subjects.

Berée, one of the commonest representatives of the most intensely active sub-class of Cœlenterates—the Ctenophora (q.v.). These are free-swimming pelagic animals, of great delicacy and beauty, generally of a more or less cylindrical form, and without any trace of skeleton, which indeed rarely occurs in the more active lower animals. Berée is the type of a small family, Beroidæ, in which the body is oval or spherical, but slightly flattened in one plane. They are transparent, and often beautifully coloured, especially during reproductive periods. The lower pole is occupied by the large mouth, which leads into a spacious and complex alimentary canal ending at the top. The superior pole bears a complex sensory organ, and between the two are eight meridional bands, each bearing a row of comb-like plates formed from the union of cilia. These ciliary plates move very rapidly, producing a beautiful iridescence, and wafting the berée through the water in any desired direction. It has been recently shown that the limy 'otocyst,' which forms part of the sense organ, may act as an automatic balancing and steering apparatus. Like many other active marine animals, the Ctenophora are phosphorescent, and berée is one of the most brilliant examples. The light shines out especially from the regions of the meridional bands. The berées are very voracious, feeding on small crustaceans and the like, but with a marked preference for their own relatives! They are themselves swallowed in shoals by whales. During the day they descend to deeper water, but come to the surface at night. In autumn they seem to frequent the surface more constantly, and may then be observed in great crowds. The distribution of the genus, which includes three certain species, is very wide, and one form is quite common on British coasts. Berée differs most markedly from related forms, such as Cydippe, Pleurobrachia, &c., in the absence of a pair of long tentacles. See CTENOPHORA.

Bero'sus, a priest of Babylon, who had a knowledge of the Greek language, and flourished about 260 B.C. He wrote, in Greek, three books of Babylonian-Chaldean history, in which he made use of the archives in the temple of Bel at Babylon. The work was highly esteemed by Greek and Roman historians, but unfortunately only a few fragments have been preserved by Josephus, Eusebius, and Syncellus; even these are of great value, as they relate to the most obscure portions of Asiatic history. They have been edited by W. Richter (Leip. 1825), and Müller, in the second volume of *Historiarum Græcorum Fragmenta* of the 'Collection Didot' (Paris, 1848). The *Antiquitatum Libri Quinque cum Commentariis Joannis Anni*, first published in Latin by Eucharius Silber (Rome, 1498) as a work of Berosus, and often republished, was the pseudonymous work of the Dominican, Giovanni Nanni of Viterbo. See BABYLONIA.

Berre, ÉTANG DE, an extensive lagoon of France, department Bouches-du-Rhône, about 45 miles in circumference, with large salt-works and eel-fisheries.

Berri, or **BERRY**, formerly a province of Central France, now forming the departments of Indre and Cher. Having come, in 1100, into the possession of the French crown, it was raised to a duchy in 1360, and gave title at various times to French

princes, the younger son of Charles X. being the last who held it.

Berri, CHARLES FERDINAND, DUC DE, second son of the Count of Artois (afterwards Charles X.), was born at Versailles, January 24, 1778. In 1792 he fled with his father to Turin; fought with him under Condé against France; afterwards visited Russia, and lived for some time in London and Edinburgh. In 1814 he returned to France, and the following year was appointed by Louis XVIII. commander of the troops in and around Paris. In 1816 he married Caroline Ferdinande Louise (born 1798), eldest daughter of Francis, afterwards king of the Two Sicilies—a marriage on which depended the continuance of the elder Bourbon line. The duke was assassinated on 13th February 1820, as he was conducting his wife from the Opera-house to her carriage, by a fanatic named Louvel. He left only a daughter, born 1819; but on 29th September 1820, the widowed duchess gave birth to the Comte de Chambord (q.v.). After the July revolution, 1830, in which the duchess exhibited immense force of character and courage, offering herself to lead on the troops against the insurgents, she, with her son, followed Charles X. to Holyrood, but left a considerable party in France in favour of the pretensions of her son as Henry V. During a visit to Italy, she was so far encouraged in her ambition, that a project was formed for reinstating the Bourbons; and, accompanied by several friends, she landed near Marseilles, April 29, 1832. After many adventures, she was betrayed by a Jew at Nantes, and was imprisoned in the citadel of Blaye. The confession of the duchess, that she had formed a second marriage with the Neapolitan marquis, Lucchesi-Palli, at once destroyed her political importance, and the government set her at liberty. She died in Styria, 16th April 1870. See P. Monière, *La Captivité de la Duchesse de Berri* (1882).

Berry (*Bacca*), a term employed in popular language to designate almost any small succulent fruit, but restricted in botanical language to simple fruits with pericarp succulent throughout, whether developed from superior (grape, potato, bitternut, belladonna, bryony, asparagus, tomato), or more commonly inferior ovary (gooseberry, currant, burberry, bilberry, &c.). Strawberry, raspberry, blackberry, mulberry, yewberry, &c. are thus all excluded from the definition, for the first is an expanded succulent axis, bearing the true fruits as dry nutlets; and the second and third are an aggregation or *sterio* of drupes (corresponding in fact, save for their origin from a single flower, to a bunch of cherries). The mulberry arises from the union of a crowded cluster of separate female flowers of which the fruit of each is an achene, the pulp belonging to the calyx, while the red berry-like pulp of the yew fruit is a subsequent upgrowth or *Aril* (q.v.).—The orange and other fruits of the same family, having a thick rind dotted with numerous oil-glands, and quite distinct from the pulp of the fruit, receives the name *hesperidium*; the fruit of the pomegranate, which is very peculiar in the manner of its division into cells, is also sometimes distinguished from berries of the ordinary structure by the name *balausta* (see POMEGRANATE). Fruits which, like that of the water-lily, are at first juicy, and afterwards, when ripe, are dry, are sometimes designated *berry-capules*. Fruits of the gourd family (*Cucurbitaceæ*) are commonly distinguished under the name of *pepo*, but, at anyrate when the rind as well as the pulp is soft at maturity, are true berries.

Berryer, PIERRE ANTOINE, a distinguished French advocate and political orator, was born in Paris, 4th January 1790, and first distinguished

himself by his brilliant defence of Lammennais in 1826, and Châteaubriand in 1833. In 1829 he was chosen deputy, and ever afterwards steadily represented the rights and policy of the elder Bourbons. His legitimist tendencies kept him for a time in the political background under Louis-Philippe; but as the legitimist party in the Chamber increased, his position grew in importance. He repeatedly undertook the defence of persons prosecuted by the government, not only of his own party, but republican leaders. It was he who defended Louis Napoleon, 1840, after the Boulogne escapade, as well as Montalembert afterwards in 1858. With the elder Bourbons he was in constant communication, and was one of the heads of the legitimist party who made a pilgrimage to the Count of Chambord in London in 1843. After the revolution of 1848, he represented the Bouches-du-Rhône; seemed inclined to support the government of the president, Louis Napoleon; and became a member of his privy-council. But this did not hinder him from going to Wiesbaden in 1850 to do homage to the Count of Chambord. He was one of the few who boldly protested against the *corp d'état*. In 1854 he was elected a member of the French Academy. His inaugural speech contained some uncomplimentary allusions to the emperor, and its publication was for a time prohibited. He died at his country seat near Paris, 29th November 1868. His *Discours Parlementaires* fill 5 vols. (1872-74); his *Plaidoyers*, 4 vols. (1875-78). His statue was erected in the Palace of Justice at Paris in 1879.

Bersaglieri (Ital., 'marksmen'), the riflemen or sharpshooters of the Italian army; first organised in the Sardinian army in 1836. Light active soldiers, wearing a picturesque but serviceable dark-green uniform, and hats with dark plumes of cock's feathers, they have always been to the front, alike in the Crimea and in the struggles that resulted in Italian unity. There are over 46,000 bersaglieri in the regular army. Akin to them are the Alpini, a force of mountaineer sharpshooters, organised since 1876.

Ber-serker, a redoubtable hero in Scandinavian mythology, the grandson of the eight-handed Starkadler and the beautiful Alfhlilde. By the daughter of King Swafurlam, whom he had slain in battle, he had twelve sons, who inherited the name of Berserker, along with his frenzied, warlike fury or 'berserker-rage.' The name means 'bear-sark' (or shirt), not 'bare shirt,' and by Baring Gould is connected with the Werewolf (q.v.) superstition.

Bert, PAUL, French statesman and physiologist, was born at Auxerre in 1833. He studied both law and medicine, became assistant to Claude Bernard at the College of France, and successively occupied the chairs of Physiology at Bordeaux and Paris. Entering political life in 1870, on the proclamation of the Republic, he was four times re-elected to the Chamber. He brought forward laws removing primary instruction from the control of the religious orders, and making it compulsory. During the premiership of Gambetta he held the post of minister of public instruction and worship. While engaged in public life, M. Bert still pursued with ardour his scientific investigations, attracting world-wide attention by his experiments in vivisection. Appointed by the French Ministry to the governorship of Tonquin and Annam, he went out there in 1886, but died on 11th November of the same year. The anti-religious views of M. Bert excited much controversy. He was also the author of several works on anatomy and physiology, and of numerous educational and political writings. M.

Bert was a member of the French Academy of Sciences, and of many other distinguished bodies at home and abroad.

Bertha, the name of several famous women in the legendary history of the middle ages.—**ST BERTHA**, whose day is kept on the 4th July, a Frankish princess who married Æthelbert, king of Kent (560 A.D.), became the means of his conversion, and of the spread of Christianity among the Anglo-Saxons.—In the romances of the Charlemagne cycle, there figures a **BERTHA**, called also 'Bertrada with the Big Foot,' daughter of Count Charibert of Laon, wife of Pepin the Little, and mother of Charlemagne. Her whole personality is of a mythical nature, and has several of the attributes of the goddess Berchta.—In the romances of the *Round Table*, the name of a sister of Charlemagne, mother of Roland by Milo d'Anglesis.—Better known is **BERTHA**, wife of Rudolf II. (937), king of Burgundy beyond Jura, who afterwards married Hugo, king of Italy.

Berthelot, **PIERRE EUGÈNE MARCELLIN**, an eminent French chemist, born at Paris, October 25, 1827, at an early age made a special study of acids and fermentation, and was appointed professor of Organic Chemistry in the École de Pharmacie in 1859, and in the Collège de France in 1865. In 1876 he was named inspector-general of higher education; and in December 1886 he became minister of public instruction. His labours to reproduce the substances which enter into the composition of organic bodies, besides opening up a new field of research, have directly benefited more than one industry. His early studies established the theory of polyatomic alcohols (see *ALCOHOL*), and he has devoted much attention to explosives; whilst, more recently, his observations of the heat-phenomena which produce chemical combinations have laid the foundation of thermochemistry. Among his numerous publications are *Chimie Organique* (1860); *Sur la Force de la Poudre et des Matières Explosives* (1872); *La Synthèse Chimique* (3d ed. 1881); *Essai de Mécanique Chimique* (1879); and *Les Origines de l'Alchimie* (1885).

Berthier, **ALEXANDER**, Prince of Neuchâtel and Wagram, and Marshal of the French empire, was born at Versailles, February 20, 1753. The son of a military engineer, he entered the army in 1770, and fought with Lafayette in the American war of independence. In the French Revolution he soon rose to be chief of the staff in the army of Italy (1795), and in 1798 entered the papal territory, and proclaimed the republic in Rome. He accompanied Napoleon to Egypt in the same year as chief of the staff, a post which he also held in all the subsequent campaigns. At the revolution of 18th Brumaire (1799), he became war-minister, but continued to accompany the emperor on his campaigns. In 1807 he was made sovereign of the formerly Prussian principality of Neuchâtel, vico-constable, and imperial prince. In the campaigns of 1812, 1813, and 1814, he was constantly by the emperor's side, and acted both as chief of the staff and as quartermaster-general. On the fall of Napoleon, Berthier had to surrender the principality of Neuchâtel; and not to lose more, he submitted to Louis XVIII., who continued him his rank as peer and marshal. Napoleon made overtures to him from Elba; these he neither answered nor yet revealed to Louis, and this made him suspected by both. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, in a fit of irresolution Berthier retired to Bamberg, in Bavaria, to his father-in-law, Duke William. On 1st July 1815, as he looked from a window at a division of Russian troops marching towards the French frontier, the bitter sight was too much—he threw

himself down into the street, and thus ended his life. His *Mémoires* appeared in 1826.

Berthollet, **COUNT CLAUDE LOUIS**, one of the most distinguished theoretical chemists of his time, was born at Talloire, a village of Savoy, in 1748. He studied at Turin, and afterwards went to Paris. He now applied himself with great assiduity to chemistry; in 1781 he was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences. In 1785 he announced his adherence to the antiphlogistic doctrines of Lavoisier, whom he aided both in his researches on gunpowder and in the formation of a new chemical nomenclature. In the same year, Berthollet published a paper on 'dephlogisticated marine acid'—now called chlorine—pointing out its use for bleaching purposes; and following up the experiments of Priestley, he showed ammonia to be a compound of three volumes of hydrogen gas and one volume of nitrogen gas. During the early part of the French Revolution, he travelled through the country, giving instruction as to the process of smelting and converting iron into steel. He was made a senator by Bonaparte, who also made him a count. Notwithstanding, he voted for the deposition of Napoleon in 1814; and on the restoration of the Bourbons he was created a peer. He died at Arcueil, November 6, 1822.

Bertholletia. See *BRAZIL NUTS*.

Bertin, **LOUIS FRANÇOIS**, called Bertin *l'Aîné*, an eminent French journalist, was born in Paris, December 14, 1766. The Revolution made him a journalist, and in 1799 he started the famous *Journal des Débats*. His royalist principles offended Napoleon, and cost him imprisonment and banishment to Elba; thence, however, he escaped to Rome, where he formed a friendship with Châteaubriand. In 1805 he returned to Paris, and resumed the editorship of the *Débats*, but was much hampered by Napoleon. The second restoration of the Bourbons restored once more to Bertin the free control of his journal, and henceforward he gave almost constant support to the ministerial party. He supported the July monarchy, and edited the *Débats* till his death, 13th September 1841.—**ARMAND LOUIS MARIE BERTIN**, son of the former, was born in Paris, August 22, 1801, and became, after the restoration, secretary to Châteaubriand during his embassy in England. In 1820 he joined the editorial staff of the *Journal des Débats*, and at his father's death assumed the chief direction. He died at Paris, January 11, 1854.

Bertrand, **HENRI GRATIEN**, **COUNT**, one of Napoleon's generals, known for his faithful attachment to the emperor through all his fortunes, was born at Châteauroux (1773), and early entered the armies of the Revolution as engineer. He accompanied the expedition to Egypt, and directed the fortification of Alexandria. He distinguished himself at Austerlitz, and became the emperor's adjutant; and, after the battle of Aspern in 1809, for his share in saving the French army by bridges, he was created count and governor of Illyria. After serving with credit in the subsequent campaigns, he retired with the emperor to Elba, was his confidant in carrying out his return to France, and finally shared his banishment to St Helena. On Napoleon's death, Bertrand returned to France, where, though sentence of death had been pronounced upon him—a sentence which Louis XVIII. had wisely recalled—he was restored to all his dignities, and in 1830 appointed commandant of the Polytechnic School. In 1840 he formed part of the expedition which brought back the remains of Napoleon to France. He died at Châteauroux, January 31, 1844.

Bervic, **CHARLES CLÉMENT**, engraver, born at Paris in 1756, in 1790 made himself famous by a full-length engraving of Louis XVI., from the

picture by Callet, one of the finest works of the kind ever produced. He died March 23, 1822.

Bervie, a Scotch burgh and seaport in Kincardineshire, near the mouth of Bervie Water, 13 miles N.E. of Montrose by rail. It has flax and tow mills, and factories of wineey and sacking, and here in 1788 was set up the first machine for spinning yarn in Scotland. Pop. 1094.

Berwick, JAMES FITZ-JAMES, DUKE OF, was the natural son of James II., by Arabella Churchill, sister of the Duke of Marlborough. Born at Moulins in 1670, he was educated in France as a Catholic, and after serving in Hungary under Duke Charles of Lorraine (1687), returned to England shortly before the Revolution of 1688, which he exerted himself to prevent. The title Duke of Berwick was conferred on him in 1687. In 1689 he accompanied his father on his Irish expedition, and, after the death of St Ruth, had the nominal chief command. He next served in Flanders, under Marshal Luxembourg, and afterwards under the Duke of Burgundy and Marshal Villeroi. In 1706 he was created a marshal of France, and sent at the head of an army to Spain, where he established the throne of Philip V. by the decisive victory of Almanza. For this important service he was made a grandee of Spain, under the title of Duke of Liria and Xerica. After several years of comparative inactivity, he received the command in 1733 of an army intended to cross the Rhine. While besieging Philippsburg, he was killed by a cannon-ball, 12th June 1734. Contemporary testimony, confirmed by his military conduct, shows Berwick to have possessed some of the best qualities of a great commander. His defensive campaign in 1709, in Provence and Dauphiné, against the superior force of the Duke of Savoy, has always been regarded as a triumph of strategic skill. He was twice married. His son by the first marriage succeeded to the dukedom of Liria; whilst the dukedom of Fitz-James and the estates in France passed to his children by the second marriage. See his *Mémoires* (Paris, 1778); C. P. Wilson, *James II. and the Duke of Berwick* (1876); and his *Duke of Berwick, Marshal of France* (1883).

Berwick, NORTH. See NORTH BERWICK.

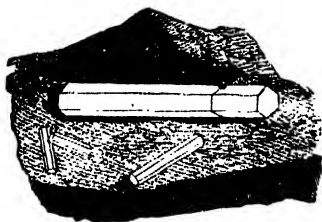
Berwick-on-Tweed, a seaport town at the mouth of the Tweed, on the frontiers of England and Scotland, 58 miles ESE. of Edinburgh, and 67 N. by W. of Newcastle. The liberties of the borough, called 'Berwick Bounds,' have an area of 8 sq. m., and with Spittal and Tweedmouth, form the 'county of the borough of Berwick-on-Tweed.' Though long boasting to be neither in England nor Scotland, and still possessing separate quarter-sessions and commission of the peace, it is to all intents and purposes part of the county of Northumberland (the adjoining parts of which formed till 1844 a detached portion of Durham); especially since by the Redistribution Act of 1885 Berwick-on-Tweed ceased to send two members of its own to parliament, and was for election purposes merged in Northumberland. The town is engirt with ramparts of Elizabeth's time, and has large barracks (1719). Tweedmouth and Spittal (the latter a favourite watering-place), on the south side of the Tweed, have since 1835 both been included within the municipality of Berwick-on-Tweed. They are reached by a narrow stone bridge (1609-34) of fifteen arches; and the river is also spanned by Robert Stephenson's magnificent viaduct (1850) of 28 arches, 136 feet high and 2160 long. The public buildings include the town-hall (1760), with a belfry 150 feet high, the corn exchange (1858), and several churches, Presbyterian outnumbering the Anglican. The harbour has been improved by

the construction of a wet-dock (1873-76), at a cost of £40,000; but its trade is not very great, the tonnage of vessels entering during a twelvemonth ranging between 30,000 and 40,000. Nor is the salmon fishery what it once was. For the manufacture of agricultural implements Berwick-on-Tweed stands high, and in Spittal there are several large artificial-manure works. Pop. (1841) 12,689; (1881) 13,995. The past history of Berwick-on-Tweed is full of interest, especially in regard to Border wars and the struggles of English and Scots to possess the town, the siege of Edward I. in 1296 being especially terrible. Its authentic records begin in the 12th century, when it was one of the principal seaports in the kingdom. It was annexed to England in 1333, after the battle of Halidon Hill, and was finally ceded by Scotland in 1482. See John Scott's *History of Berwick-on-Tweed* (Lond. 1888).

Berwickshire, a maritime and Border county of south-east Scotland, bounded N. by Haddington, N. and NE. by the German Ocean, SE. by Berwick-on-Tweed, Northumberland, and Roxburghshire, and W. by Roxburghshire and Midlothian. It extends from east to west 29 miles, from north to south 21 miles, and has an area of 464 sq. m., or 297,161 acres. Berwickshire is divided into three districts--the Merse, the Lammermoors, and Lauderdale. The largest and most fertile district is the luxuriant valley of the Merse, the richest plain of equal extent in Scotland, being nearly 130,000 acres in area. The Lammermoors, covering 90,000 acres, chiefly pastoral, divide the valley of the Tweed from Midlothian and Haddington. Lauderdale, comprising 67,000 acres, a mixture of hill and dale, runs along the banks of Leader Water. The coast, 19 miles in length, is rocky and bold, rising at St Abb's Head and other points to heights of from 177 to 528 feet above sea-level, and having only two bays, at Eyemouth and Coldingham. Geologically, as well as topographically, Berwickshire possesses numerous interesting features. The Lammermoors (q.v.), whose highest point in Berwickshire, is Seenes Law (1683 feet), besides seventeen other summits exceeding 1240, consist of Silurian strata, stretching to St Abb's Head. In the south, carboniferous rocks are found, while an extensive bed of red sandstone extends easterly from the centre of the county to the sea-coast. On the coast porphyry is found, and some traps and syenite in the interior. Ironstone and thin seams of coal occur, as well as gypsum, clay, and shell-marl. The streams--Blackadder, Whitadder, and Leader Waters--are all tributaries of the Tweed, the Eye alone flowing direct to the sea. Pop. (1801) 30,206; (1841) 34,438; (1861) 36,613; (1881) 35,392. Berwickshire returns one member to parliament. Agriculturally, Berwickshire occupies a prominent position, 65·4 per cent. of the entire area being in cultivation. The county has suffered proportionally from the recent agricultural depression, the valuation having actually decreased from £391,169 in 1875 to £338,146 in 1888. The Earlston ginglehans excepted, there are no manufactures worth naming. The principal towns are Duns, the birthplace of Thomas Boston, Dr M'Crie, and as some contend, of Duns Scotus; Greenlaw, the county town from 1696 till 1853, but now dividing that dignity with Duns; Lauder, a royal burgh; Eyemouth, a prosperous fishing-station; Coldstream, where General Monk first raised the Coldstream Guards; and Earlston, the Ercildoune of Thomas the Rhymer. The county contains some very interesting examples, though on a comparatively small scale, of Norman or Pointed architecture, or both, at Coldingham, Dryburgh, Old Cambus, Edrom, Chirnside, Bunkle, Legerwood, and one or two other places. There are also the

remains or sites of Fast, Hume, and Cranshaws castles, and of British and Roman camps and barrows, besides remains of a curious broch-like structure at Edinshall, near Duns.

Beryl (silicate of alumina and glucina), a mineral which scarcely differs except in colour from Emerald (q.v.), never exhibiting the bright rich green which characterises that gem, but colourless, yellowish, greenish-yellow or blue. The finer varieties, which are transparent and of beautiful colour, are distinguished as Precious Beryl, and are sometimes called Aquamarine.



Beryl, in its primary form.

These occur in crystals similar in form to those of emerald; but the regular hexagonal prism is more frequently modified by truncation on the angles or edges, acinuation, &c. The prisms are often long. Their sides are longitudinally striated, often deeply so; but the truncating or terminating planes are smooth. The coarser varieties of beryl (Common Beryl) are also found crystallised, but often massive. Beryl occurs chiefly in veins that traverse granite or gneiss, or imbedded in granite; sometimes it is found in alluvial soils formed from such rocks. Common beryl is found in a number of places in Europe. The mountains of Aberdeenshire, and those of Mourne in Ireland, yield precious beryl, which is also found in various parts of the United States, Brazil, Ceylon, and Siberia. It is somewhat less valuable than the emerald. For its use as a magic crystal, in which the future becomes visible, see Rossetti's *Rose Mary*.

Beryllium. See GLUCINUM.

Berzelius, JOHAN JAKOB, BARON, one of the greatest of modern chemists, was born at a farm in East Gothland, Sweden, August 29, 1779. While studying for the medical profession at the university of Upsala, he was more attracted by the preparatory studies in science, especially chemistry. After being some time employed in medical practice and lecturing, he was appointed (1806) lecturer on chemistry in the Military Academy of Stockholm, and, in the following year, professor of Medicine and Pharmacy. He was shortly after chosen president of the Stockholm Academy of Sciences; and from 1818 till his death, August 7, 1848, held the office of perpetual secretary. The king raised him to the rank of baron; other honours from learned societies were conferred on him, including the London Royal Society's gold medal. The field of his activity lay in his laboratory, where he acquired a name of which his country, where he ranks in science second only to Linnæus, is justly proud. The science of chemistry, as at present organised, rests in great measure upon the discoveries and views of Berzelius, although in not a few points he has been controverted or found wrong. His multiplied and accurate analyses established the laws of combination on an incontrovertible basis; and to him we owe the system of chemical symbols. He discovered the elements selenium, thorium, and cerium, and first exhibited calcium, barium, strontium, columbium or tantalum, silicium, and zirconium, in the metallic form. The multitude and accuracy of his researches in every branch of chemical inquiry, as well as in physics and physiology, make it difficult

to conceive how one man could have accomplished so much. Of his numerous writings, the most important is his *Lärobok i Kemien* (Text-book of Chemistry, 3 vols. Stock. 1808-18), which afterwards passed through five large editions, on each occasion being almost wholly rewritten, and which was translated into every European language. His essay *On the use of the Blowpipe* exhausts the subject, and in that *On the Division of Salts through Galvanism* he propounds the electro-chemical theory, the title to which is divided between himself and Davy; while his *Annual Reports on the Progress of Physics, Chemistry, and Mineralogy*, undertaken at the request of the Academy of Sciences in 1820, proved very valuable to science.

Besançon, a French city, the capital now of the department of Doubs, and formerly of Franche-Comté, is picturesquely situated on both sides of the winding river Doubs, 57 miles E. of Dijon. It was strongly but irregularly fortified by Vauban, the citadel being perched on an inaccessible rock, 390 feet above the town. Since then, the fortifications have been extended and strengthened, and Besançon is now considered one of the strongest places in France. It was the ancient *Vesontio* or *Besontium*; in 58 B.C. Cæsar expelled the Sequani hence, and in the neighbourhood gained a victory over Ariovistus. It finally came into the possession of France in 1674. Several streets in Besançon still bear old Roman names; and in the neighbourhood are found ruins of a triumphal arch of Aurelian, an aqueduct, an amphitheatre, and a large theatre. Among later structures the 12th-century cathedral, the Madeleine church, the Prefecture, the Palais de Justice (1749), and the half-Gothic, half-Renaissance palace (1534) of Cardinal Granvelle, are most remarkable. Besançon makes a very large percentage of the watches made in France, and some 15,000 of its inhabitants are engaged in this industry, which was introduced from Switzerland about 1818. In 1875-85 Besançon produced between 400,000 and 450,000 watches annually, worth from twenty to thirty millions of francs. Other manufactures are porcelain, carpets, iron-wire, Seltzer-water, and beer. Abel Rémusat and Victor Hugo were natives. Pop. (1840) 36,461; (1886) 45,218.

Besant, WALTER, a well-known novelist, was born at Portsmouth in 1838. He studied at King's College, London, and at Christ's College, Cambridge, and having abandoned his original intention of entering the church, was appointed to a professorship in the Royal College of Mauritius. Ill-health compelling him to resign this post, he returned to England and devoted himself to literature. His first work, *Studies in French Poetry*, appeared in 1868, and in 1871 he entered into a literary partnership with James Rice. *Ready-money Mortiboy*, the first of the novels which were the fruits of this conjoint authorship, was published in 1872. It was followed by *My Little Girl*; *With Harp and Crown*; *This Son of Vulcan*; *The Golden Butterfly* (1876), which greatly increased the popularity of its author; *The Monks of Thelema*; *By Celia's Arbour*; *The Chaplain of the Fleet*; and *The Seamy Side* (1881). Since the death of James Rice in 1882, Mr Besant has written *All Sorts and Conditions of Men*, *The Captain's Room*, *All in a Garden Fair*, *Dorothy Forster*, *Children of Gibbon*, *The World went very well then*, and a number of short stories. He is also the author of *French Humorists* (1873), of short books on Rabelais, Coligny, and Whittington, and of a life of Professor Palmer (1883). In collaboration with Mr W. H. Pollock he produced in 1887 a successful adaptation of Banville's drama, *Gringoire*. As a writer of fiction he shows a first-

hand knowledge of very various phases of life, grasp of character, constructive skill, and humour at once shrewd and genial. The distinguishing feature of his novels is the interplay of ingenious fancy and thorough-going, healthy realism. His plots are sometimes as whimsical and charming as a fairy tale, while the setting of each story is worked out with scrupulous fidelity to local colour. In such a book as *All Sorts and Conditions of Men*, romance and realism are combined with the happiest results. Some of his later novels have been written for the furtherance of social reforms, and one of his schemes, the People's Palace, described in *All Sorts and Conditions of Men*, has been happily carried into effect in the east end of London. As secretary of the Palestine Exploration Fund, he has edited various works on the survey of Palestine; and he was first chairman of the committee of the Incorporated Society of Authors. See the Introduction to the library edition of *Ready-money Mortiboy* (1887).

Besants'. See BEZANTS.

Besika Bay, a bay on the north-west coast of Asia Minor, opposite Tenedos, to the south of the entrance of the Dardanelles. The English fleet was stationed here during crises in the Eastern Question, in 1853-54 and 1877-78.

Bessarabia, a government in the south-west of Russia, on the Roumanian frontier. The area, enlarged by the restoration in 1878 of the portion ceded to Moldavia in 1856, is 17,627 sq. m.; the population in 1882 was 1,419,762, composed of Russians, Poles, Roumanians, Bulgarians, Greeks, Armenians, Jews, Germans, and Tartars, with a sprinkling of Gipsies. The Dniester flows along the whole of its northern and eastern boundaries; the Pruth separates it from Moldavia on the west; and it has the Danube on the south. In the north-west, the country is traversed by well-wooded offshoots of the Carpathian Mountains. Generally, however, Bessarabia is flat and fertile. The land is cultivated to some extent; but the breeding of cattle forms the chief business of the inhabitants. Salt, cattle, wool, and tallow are exported; leather, soap, and candles are manufactured. Bessarabia, which fell under the power of the Turks in 1503, suffered heavily in all wars with Russia, and was ceded to Russia in 1812. By the Treaty of Paris, the portions of Bessarabia lying along the Pruth and the Danube—3578 sq. m., with some 200,000 inhabitants were assigned to Moldavia; at the Berlin Congress of 1878, this region was again transferred to Russia.

Bessarion, JOHANNES (or *Basilus*), born at Trebizond, on the Black Sea, in 1395, was one of the earliest of those scholars who in the 15th century transplanted Greek literature and philosophy into the West, and rescued the mind of Christendom from the trammels of scholasticism. As Bishop of Nicæa, he accompanied the Greek emperor, John Palæologus, to Italy in 1439 in order to effect a union between the Greek and the Roman churches. Soon afterwards joining the Roman Church, he was made cardinal by Pope Eugene IV. Ten years later, Nicholas V. created him Bishop of Frascati. For five years also he discharged the duties of papal legate at Bologna. After the fall of Constantinople, of which he had been titular patriarch, he visited Germany, and endeavoured to promote a crusade against the Turks. In philosophy, he professed to be a follower of Plato, but without depreciation of Aristotle. Twice he was nearly elected pope; but his partiality for the heathen philosophy, or his Greek birth, disqualified him with the sacred college. He died at Ravenna in 1472, leaving his collection of 600 valuable Greek MSS. to the St Mark's Library, Venice.

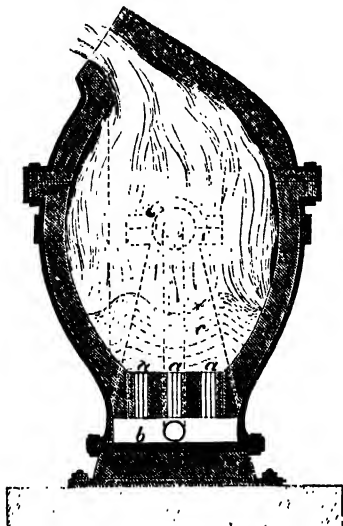
Bessèges, a town in the French department of Gard, 21 miles N. of Alais. It has coal, iron, and glass industries. Pop. (1886) 9109.

Bessel, FRIEDRICH WILHELM, an eminent Prussian astronomer, born at Minden in 1784. Successively a merchant's clerk, a supercargo on board ship, and a practical astronomer, he was in 1810 appointed director of the observatory at Königsberg, and professor of Astronomy there. In 1818 he published his *Fundamenta Astronomiæ*—a work which was of the highest value to astronomers; and in 1830 his *Tabula Regiomontana*. Among the numerous papers may be mentioned his treatise on the precession of the equinoxes. After a series of three years' observations he succeeded in determining the annual parallax of the fixed star β 1 Cygni (see STARS). In the years 1824-33 Bessel made a series of 75,011 observations in 536 sittings, and completed a catalogue of stars (extending to the ninth magnitude) within the zone from 15° N. to 15° S. declination; and published *Astronomische Untersuchungen* (1842) and other works. His *Popular Lectures on Astronomy* were published two years after his death, which took place March 14, 1846. He was a thoroughly practical man of science, was remarkable for the precision of his calculations, introduced many new methods, and greatly forwarded the science of astronomy.

Bessemer, SIR HENRY, inventor, born in 1813, at Charlton, Herts, was the son of an artist, and was to a great extent self-taught. He has been a prolific inventor, as the volumes issued by the Patent Office show. It has been said, indeed, that he has paid in patent stamp duties alone as much as £10,000. The working out of many of his inventions, however, resulted in a loss to himself and to others. His first pecuniary success was obtained by his invention of machinery for the manufacture of Bessemer gold and bronze powders, which was not patented, but whose nature was long kept secret. His process for the manufacture of steel, noticed below, raised the annual production of steel in England from 50,000 tons by the older processes to as many as 1,600,000 tons in some years. Bessemer steel is also largely made abroad. This steel averages £10 per ton, while the price of steel before the introduction of his process averaged not less than £50 per ton; but the latter was of a much finer kind. Bessemer was knighted in 1879, and has received many gold medals from scientific institutions. In addition he has, to use his own words, received in the form of royalties 1,057,748 of the beautiful little gold medals issued by Her Majesty's Mint.

BESSEMER STEEL.—Sir Henry Bessemer's process for making steel, which is now so largely practised in England, on the continent of Europe, and in America, was patented in 1856. It was first applied to the making of malleable iron, but this has never been successfully made by the Bessemer method. For the manufacture of a cheap but highly serviceable steel, however, its success has been so splendid that no other metallurgical process has given its inventor so great a renown. Although the apparatus actually used is somewhat costly and elaborate, yet the principle of the operation is very simple. A large converting vessel (see annexed figure), with openings called tuyères in its bottom, is partially filled up with from 5 to 10 tons of molten pig-iron, and a blast of air, at a pressure of from 18 to 20 lb. per square inch, is forced through this metal by a blowing engine. Pig-iron contains from 3 to 5 per cent. of carbon, and, if it has been smelted with charcoal from a pure ore, as is the case with Swedish iron, the blast is continued till only from .25 to 1 per cent. of the

carbon is left in the metal, that is to say, steel is produced. Sometimes, however, the minimum quantity of carbon is even less than '25 per cent. In England, where a less pure but still expensive cast-iron—viz. hæmatite pig—is used for the production of steel in the ordinary Bessemer converter,



Bessemer Converting Vessel :
a, a, a, tuyères; b, air-space; c, melted metal.

the process differs slightly. In this case the whole of the carbon is oxidised by the blast of air, and the requisite quantity of this element is afterwards restored to the metal by pouring into the converter a small quantity of a peculiar kind of cast-iron, called *spiegeleisen*, which contains a known quantity of carbon. But small quantities of manganese and silicon are also present in Bessemer steel. The 'blow' lasts from 20 to 30 minutes. Steel made from whatever kind of pig-iron, either by this or by the 'basic' process, presently to be described, is not sufficiently dense, at least for most purposes, and it is accordingly manipulated under the steam-hammer and rolled into a variety of forms. Bessemer steel is employed for heavy objects, as rails, tires, boiler plates, ship plates, and for many other purposes for which malleable iron was formerly used.

Basic Steel.—This kind of steel is now largely made from inferior pig-iron, such as the Cleveland, by the Thomas-Gilchrist process patented in 1878. It is, however, only a modification of the Bessemer process to the extent of substituting for the siliceous or 'acid' lining generally used, a lime or 'basic' lining for the converter. Limestone, preferably a magnesian limestone in some form, is commonly employed for the lining. By the use of a basic lining, phosphorus is eliminated towards the end of the 'blow.' Phosphorus is a very deleterious substance in steel, and is present, sometimes to the extent of 2 per cent., in pig-iron smelted from impure ore.

Bessières, JEAN BAPTISTE, Duke of Istria, and Marshal of the French empire, was born of poor parents at Preissac, in the department of Lot, 6th August 1768. Entering the army in 1792 as a private soldier, in less than two years he had attained the rank of captain. After making the Spanish campaign he passed into the army of Italy, and soon attracted the notice of Napoleon, who carried him to Egypt in 1798, where his

conduct at St Jean d'Acre and Aboukir covered him with glory. At the accession of Napoleon (1804) to the throne, he became marshal of France. He showed his usual conspicuous courage at Austerlitz, Jena, Eylau, and Friedland, and raised to the rank of Duke of Istria, commanded in Spain in 1808-9. In the Russian campaign he led the cavalry of the Guard, and did much by his sleepless courage and presence of mind to save the wreck of the army in the disastrous retreat from Moscow. On the morning of the battle of Lützen (May 1, 1813), he fell mortally wounded by a cannon-ball.

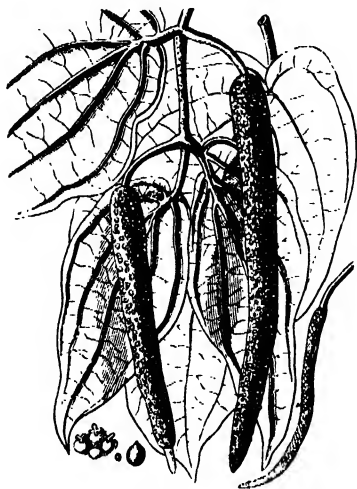
Bestiary (Fr.), the name given to a class of written books of great popularity in the middle ages, describing all the animals of creation, real or fabled, composed partly in prose, partly in verse, and generally illustrated by drawings. But they were valuable for the moral allegories they contained, no less than as handbooks of zoological facts. The symbolism which was then so much in vogue fastened spiritual meanings upon the several animals, until every quality of good or evil in the soul of man had its type in the beast world. It is in this way to the bestiaries that we must look for explanation of the strange, grotesque creatures which are found sculptured on the churches and other buildings of the middle ages. The oldest Latin bestiaries had an early Greek original, the well-known *Physiologus*, under which name about fifty such allegories were grouped. The Greek text of this famous work is found only in MS. There are old Syriac, Armenian, Ethiopic, Arabic, Icelandic, and numerous Latin versions. Editions of the Latin have been issued—Mai, Heider, and Cahier. An Old High German version was made earlier than the 11th century; in the 12th century, versions in French were made by Philippe de Thaun and Guillaume, a priest of Normandy. The *Bestiaire d'Amour* of Richard de Fournival was rather a parody upon the earlier form of such books. The following is a characteristic extract from the *Bestiaire Divin*: 'The unicorn has but one horn in the middle of its forehead. It is the only animal that ventures to attack the elephant; and so sharp is the nail of its foot, that with one blow it rips up the belly of that most terrible of all beasts. The hunters can catch the unicorn only by placing a young virgin in the forest which it haunts. No sooner does this marvellous animal desery the damsel, than it runs towards her, lies down at her feet, and so suffers itself to be taken by the hunters. The unicorn represents our Lord Jesus Christ, who, taking our humanity upon him in the Virgin's womb, was betrayed by the wicked Jews, and delivered into the hands of Pilate. Its one horn signifies the gospel truth, that Christ is one with the Father,' &c.

Bestushev, ALEXANDER, a Russian novelist, born in 1795, was an officer in the guards, and became involved in the military conspiracy of 1825, in consequence of which he was degraded to the ranks, and exiled to Yakutsk. After long entreaty he was permitted to enter the army of the Caucasus as a private in 1830. In June 1837 he fell in a skirmish with the as yet unconquered mountaineers. His novels and sketches bore the impress of his own life and adventures in the Caucasus.

Betanzos (anciently *Brigantium Flavium*), a town of Spain, 10 miles SE. of Corunna. Pop. 8122.

Betel, properly the leaf of the betel-vine, a plant (*Chavica betle*, *C. siraboa*, &c.) of the natural order Piperaceæ, indigenous to the East Indian Archipelago, and cultivated also in continental India, Ceylon, and several of the Indo-Chinese countries (Burmah, Siam, &c.), but more

or less as an exotic according as the necessary conditions of humidity and heat have to be artificially increased. The name betel (a Malayalam and Tamil word for 'leaf') is frequently applied to the bolus of areca-nut and shell-lime (*chunam*) wrapped round with betel-leaf, employed as a masticatory throughout a large part of the farther East, especially by the Malay and Hindu races. As early as Fryer (1673) betel begins to be used erroneously as a synonym for the nut of the Areca (q.v.) palm. Betel-leaf (Hindustani, *pān* or *pān*; Persian, *tambul*; Malay, *sirih*) is described in glowing terms in the *Hitopadesa*, book iii., fable 9. The ancient Hindu writers recommend it to be taken early in the morning after meals, and at bedtime. Pills against phlegm are rubbed into an emulsion with the juice; and the leaves are applied to remove headache, reduce swollen glands, or check the secretion of milk. The use of the masticatory has become a matter of etiquette, and the betel-box plays as important a part as the snuff-box did in England in the 18th century. In India the offering of *pān* by the host intimates the termination of a visit. Among the Malays of the Archipelago to offer *sirih* is accepted as a legal sign of apology for a serious offence. Europeans seldom take kindly to the habit of chewing betel,



Betel-vine.

partly because it blackens the teeth and causes the lips to appear as if covered with blood. Sir James Emerson Tennent (*Ceylon*) considers that it supplies the antacid, the tonic, and the carminative required by a people who usually eat no flesh. In former days the betel-leaf was a monopoly of the East India Company. The cultivation of the plant is in many districts a highly important industry, and requires considerable capital. In Bombay, betel-vines are put down in October, 3600 to 5000 per acre. They are sheltered from drought by plantains grown along with them, and by bamboo stages covered with grass. These are afterwards replaced by stronger and taller trellis-work up which the plants climb luxuriantly. In Tenasserim, again, the Karens train the vines to forest-trees from which all but the topmost boughs have been lopped off. See Marsden's *History of Sumatra*; Curtis's *Botanical Magazine* (vol. vi. new series); Miguel, *Systema Piperacearum*; Hunter's *Gazetteer of India*.

• **Beth'any** ('house of dates'), by the natives of Palestine called 'El' Azariyeh' or 'Lazariyeh'

('town of Lazarus'), is situated on the southern slope of the Mount of Olives, 2208 feet above the sea, 2 miles ESE. of Jerusalem. It was the home of Lazarus and his sisters, often visited by the Saviour, and the scene of his ascension. Ecclesiastical buildings were erected here in the 4th century, but it is now a poor place of some 200 inhabitants. There is nothing remarkable about the village except the reputed houses of Martha and Mary, and the cave or grave of Lazarus shown by the monks. Captain Conder thinks it more likely that the tomb of Lazarus is one of the rock-cut sepulchres beside the Jericho road, east of Bethany.—Bethany is also the name that has been given to three German mission stations in South Africa; one in Great Namaqualand, one in the Orange Free State, and one in the Transvaal.

• **Beth'el** ('house of God'), now called Beitin, about 11 miles N. from Jerusalem, mentioned in Scripture as the scene of Jacob's dream. The old name of the place was Luz. Here Abraham pitched his tent; at a later date it was a resting-place of the ark, a royal residence, and a seat of idolatrous worship. It is a heap of ruins.

• **Bethes'da**, POOL OF ('house of mercy' or 'house of the stream'), the scene of Christ's cure of the impotent man (St John, v. 2-9), the tank that was the resort of the 'impotent, blind, halt, and withered.' Since 1102 it has been identified with the Birket Israil, which is situated within the walls of Jerusalem, near the St Stephen's gate and the Temple of Omar. Captain Conder, however, identifies it with the spring in the Kedron Valley called Gihon and En Rogel, which at first appears to have flowed into the valley, but was diverted at a later date through a rock-cut tunnel to Siloam.

• **Bethesda** is a small town of Carnarvonshire (so named from its Nonconformist chapel), $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles SE. of Bangor. Its 6969 (1881) inhabitants are mostly employed in the neighbouring Penrhyn slate-quarries.

• **Bethlehem** ('house of bread'; modern *Beit-lahm*), the birthplace of Jesus Christ and of King David, and the Ephratah of the history of Jacob, is now a small unwall'd village of white stone houses, in the midst of a most interesting country, 6 miles S. of Jerusalem. The population, about 3000 souls, is wholly Christian—Latin, Greek, and Armenian. The Convent of the Nativity, a large square building, resembling a fortress, was built by the Empress Helena, 327 A.D., but destroyed by the Moslems in 1236, and, it is supposed, restored by the Crusaders. Within it is the Church of the Nativity, which is subdivided among the Latins, Greeks, and Armenians, for devotional purposes. The church is built in the form of a cross; the nave, which is by far the finest part of the building, belongs to the Armenians, and is supported by 48 beautiful Corinthian columns of solid granite, each between 2 and 3 feet in thickness, and about 17 in height. The other portions of the church, forming the arms of the cross, are walled up. At the farther end of that section, which forms the head of the cross, and on the threshold, is a sculptured marble star, which the Bethlehemites say covers the central point of the earth. Here a long intricate passage descends to the crypt below, where the blessed Virgin is said to have been delivered. The walls of the chamber are hung with draperies of the gayest colours; and a silver star, with the words, '*Hic de virgine Maria Jesus Christus natus est*,' marks the spot of the nativity. The manger stands in a low recess cut in the rock. The site appears to have been venerated since the

2d century A.D., and St Jerome, a monk of this convent towards the end of the 4th century, found the grotto in possession of pagans, who celebrated here the birth of Adonis. To the north-west stands



Bethlehem.
(From a Photograph by Frith.)

a square domed building, marking the reputed site of Rachel's tomb. The Bethlehemites chiefly gain their subsistence by the manufacture and sale of crucifixes, beads, boxes, shells, &c. of mother-of-pearl and olive wood.

Bethlehem, a post-borough of Northampton county, Pennsylvania, on the Lehigh River, 55 miles N. of Philadelphia by rail, is the principal settlement in America of the Moravians, by whom it was founded in 1741. It has silk, paint, and flour mills, and is noted for its excellent schools. Two bridges across the Lehigh connect the borough with South Bethlehem, the seat of Lehigh University (1866) and other Episcopal institutions, and possessing iron and steel works. Another borough, West Bethlehem, separated from Bethlehem by Monocacy Creek, contains silk and planing mills, machine-shops, and dye-works. Pop. (1880) 5193; with South Bethlehem, 10,118; present estimated pop. of the three boroughs, 15,000.

Bethlehemites, (1) a monastic order existing in England in the 13th century, who had a monastery at Cambridge, founded in 1257.—(2) A military order established by a bull of Pius II. in 1459, to provide a bulwark against the attacks of the Turks.—(3) A society founded in Guatemala about 1659, and raised to an order by Innocent XI. in 1687.—The followers of John Huss were styled Bethlehemites, from Bethlehem Church in Prague, where their leader preached.

Bethlem. See BEDLAM.

Bethlen-Gabor (i.e. GABRIEL BETHLEN), descended from an ancient and distinguished Protestant family of Hungary, was born in 1580. He rose to prominence during civil troubles in Transylvania, and on the death of Gabriel Bathori succeeded (1613), by the aid of the sultan, in being chosen sovereign prince of Transylvania. In 1619, when the Bohemians rose in defence of their religious and political rights, they looked eagerly for support to Gabor, who was glad of such an opportunity to gratify his ambition at the expense of his enemy, Austria. He accordingly marched into Hungary, took Kaschau, his advance more resembling a triumphal procession

than a hostile invasion, and on arriving under the walls of Presburg, was greeted with acclamations by the citizens. He was subsequently crowned King of Hungary by the assembled diet, August 25, 1621. After various alternations of fortune, in which he was ultimately successful, a peace was in 1621 concluded with Ferdinand II. of Austria, by which Gabor gave up his claims to Hungary and the title of king, but obtained large accessions of territory, and the dignity of prince of the empire. This treaty, however, was soon broken by the emperor; but the prince raised an army of 60,000 men, invaded Moravia, and obtained the solemn renewal of the former treaty. He died in 1629. His reign was a glorious epoch in the history of the principality; for not only did his military successes give a prestige to its arms, but his protection of science and letters did much to aid the progress of learning.

Bethnal Green, an eastern suburb of London, since 1885 a parliamentary borough. It is largely peopled by silk-weavers, an offshoot of the Huguenot settlement in Spitalfields. Its museum, opened by the Queen in 1872, is a branch of the one at South Kensington. Pop. (1881) 126,961.

Bethsaida, a village on the western shore of the lake of Galilee, the birthplace of Peter and Andrew and Philip. Its site has been identified with a heap of grass-grown ruins. At the north-eastern extremity of the lake was another Bethsaida, a village, near which the five thousand were fed. Philip the Tetrarch raised it to the dignity of a town, and renamed it Julius, in honour of the Emperor Augustus' daughter.

Bethune, a town in the French department of Pas-de-Calais, on a rock overlooking the river Brette, 16 miles NNW. of Arras, with old fortifications by Vauban. It has bleaching-works, manufactures of soap, and a trade in beet-sugar. Pop. (1886) 10,917. The town belonged in the middle ages to Flanders, but was ceded to France by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The famous Sully (q.v.) belonged to the family founded here in 970. The Scottish family of Bethune or Beaton (q.v.) is said to have come into England from this district with William the Conqueror.

Bet'ony (*Stachys Betonica*), a common British labiate plant growing in woods, of great repute in ancient and medieval medicine. It may be used to dye wool yellow.

Betterton, THOMAS, actor, was born in London about 1635, and, after serving as a bookseller's apprentice, turned actor some three years before the Restoration, and in 1661 joined Davenant's theatrical company. The best contemporary judges, such as Addison, Cibber, Dryden, &c., bear admiring witness to his dramatic powers, which overcame the natural disadvantages of a low voice, small eyes, and an ungainly figure. Pepys thought him the best actor in the world, and he was patronised by royalty. His private character was highly estimable, cheerful, modest, and generous. In an unfortunate speculation in 1692 Betterton lost all his savings. When in straitened circumstances and able to act less frequently, a public benefit was got up for him on the 6th April 1709,

and he acted several times again before his death on 28th April 1710. He was buried in Westminster Abbey. Mrs Betterton, whom he had married in 1662, took the same rank among contemporary actresses as her husband did among actors. Betterton's own eight dramas were adaptations. See Dr Doran, *Their Majesties' Servants* (2d ed. by R. W. Lowe, 1887).

Bettia, a municipal town in the north-west corner of Behar, India, on the line of the Tirhut state railway. Pop. (1881) 21,263, of whom 13,943 were Hindus. There has been a Roman Catholic mission here since 1746.

Betting may just now be termed a national craze, for more persons bet now than ever, though individual speculations may not be on as large a scale as formerly. For this state of things several reasons may be submitted. Racecourses and race-meetings have multiplied; sporting intelligence is more widely disseminated by means of press agencies, telegrams, and evening papers; while coursing in inclosed grounds has given an impetus to wagering in connection with that branch of sport. There is also an increased number of bookmakers plying their calling, and the growth of betting may be further assumed from the fact that members of the fraternity are constantly localising themselves in provincial towns; while it is not uncommon for a tradesman in a town to do a commission business on a large scale. The betting world consists of two great divisions, bookmakers and backers. In theory, bookmaking is a very simple business. The bookmaker makes a book of a certain amount, a hundred, a thousand, or a ten thousand pound book, and his aim is to lay an equal amount against every horse in a race—a hundred pounds, assuming the book to be a hundred pound one. The rate of odds will of course vary with the market quotations of each horse. If there are five starters for a race, one of which is at level money, the bookmaker will lay £100 level. Against another at 2 to 1 he will lay £100 to £50; against a third at 5 to 1 he will lay £100 to £20, and so on; though the amount laid against each horse may have to be made up of many bets.

In practice, however, bookmaking is a much more complicated business, and calls for great quickness, industry, and a head for figures. It is seldom that the bookmaker succeeds in laying against even a large proportion of starters; and when the majority of races are won by favourites, the day's balance is in favour of backers. Of backers there are two classes, those who bet more or less, because it provides them with amusement and adds to the interest of a race, and 'professional backers,' as they are styled, who endeavour to make a living by attending race-meetings and backing horses. 'Touting' has now been brought to a fine art, and the bookmaker has little if anything the better of the professional backer in obtaining information; consequently, in the race between the two classes there is not a very great margin on the side of the bookmaker, whose riches come from the pockets of the general public. 'Hedging' is an important operation in betting, and consists in laying the odds against a horse which the person desirous of hedging has previously backed at a longer price. For example, suppose a horse backed for £1 by A for a future race at 30 to 1, comes to 10 to 1 say a month before the race is to be decided. A then lays the latter odds against the horse, and thus stands £20 to nothing. If the horse wins, he gets the £30 for which he backed the horse, and loses the £10 he laid against him; should the horse lose he pays the bookmaker £1, and receives £1.

Betting has probably existed ever since there was anything to bet about; but in the early history of

horseracing (with which betting is chiefly connected) there were no professional betting men, and gentlemen had to bet with one another, the result being, that those desirous of backing a horse often experienced great difficulty in finding any one to bet with them. The demand, however, created the supply, and 'bettors round' or 'legs,' as the phrase then ran, sprang into existence; though book-making can hardly be said to have become a science until the time of William Ogden, about 1793. Since that day betting has undergone a great change. Time was when a great amount of wagering took place many months before the more important races were set for decision, whereas now the bulk of the speculation goes on when the numbers of the horses are hoisted just prior to the start. Foal and yearling books, too, are now never heard of.

The manner in which the law regards betting has had a not unimportant influence on the method in which it is carried on. A bet *per se* is not illegal, it is only void at law—that is to say, neither party can bring an action to enforce payment. Where betting is carried out upon a tolerably extensive scale, it has been found convenient to employ a 'commissioner,' who makes bets for his principal, pays or receives, as the case may be, and then renders his statement. Although if A made a bet with C neither party could recover, it has been held that if A were to employ B as a commissioner, A could bring an action against B to recover what had been paid him by C, in the event of A winning, and that B could successfully sue A for the amount of bets lost by A, and paid to C by B. The result of this ruling has been to encourage the business of a 'turf-accountant,' otherwise a commission agent.

Betting houses were forbidden in 1853 by 16 and 17 Viet. chap. 119, commonly known as Cockburn's Act, from the bill having been introduced by the late Lord Chief-justice, Sir Alexander Cockburn. The act, however, did not extend to Scotland, so the bookmakers removed their establishments across the Border, settling chiefly in Glasgow. They carried on their business with immunity from legal proceedings until 1874, when the Act 37 Viet. chap. 15 was passed. This statute, by extending Cockburn's Act to Scotland, again ousted the betting men, who thereupon took refuge in Boulogne, where they now are. The Act of 1874 contained further provisions to suppress betting advertisements; but they do not reach tipsters; the act only makes it illegal to advertise willingness to give information on bets themselves, not to advise how to bet.

At the Ascot meeting of 1887, two welters were given into custody for attempting to run away with money which had been deposited with them by one of the public, who had backed a winning horse with them. The magistrates convicted the prisoners, and the Court for the Consideration of Crown Cases Reserved affirmed the conviction; and so for the first time welshing was pronounced a felony, a decision which gave great satisfaction.

Cockburn's Act put a stop to the exhibiting of 'lists' in public-houses, an invention of Davies, the 'leviathan,' who, after beginning life as a jobbing carpenter, rose to the position of the most influential man in the ring. He had scarcely been a bookmaker for eight years, when he was supposed to have commenced the racing season of 1852 with £140,000 lying to his credit at the London and Westminster Bank. It occasionally happened that he encountered severe losses. In the Flying Dutchman's year (1849) he paid away nearly every pound he possessed; and his list clerks alone paid away more than £40,000 over Voltigeur. In 1853 he is reported to have won more than £50,000 over the Cesarewitch and Cambridgeshire. The famous

Lord George Bentinck won £20,000 by Crucifix's victory in the Oaks in 1840, and all her successes are said to have put £70,000, exclusive of stakes, into the pocket of her owner. In 1843 Lord George stood to win £150,000 over his horse Gaper for the Derby on that year, but he saved upon Cotherstone, and netted £30,000. When John Gully and Ridsdale were partners, their joint winnings are said to have been enormous. St Giles and Margrave brought them in upwards of £100,000 by winning the Derby and St Leger in 1832. Sir Joseph Hawley was one of the heaviest bettors of his day; he pocketed £80,000 over Beadsman's Derby in 1858, and many other large sums at other times. 'He took away as much of the plungers' money as any half-dozen bookmakers put together; yet while his two-year-olds were winning races, and he was winning large bets, he was at the same time advocating the abolition of two-year-old racing, and was declaiming against heavy betting! The unfortunate Marquis of Hastings lost £103,000 over Hermit's Derby, and it was soon after his time that plunging went out of fashion. Two others have tried it since, but failed to win, and it may be safely said that men do not now bet such large sums as formerly; no modern speculator would care to lay £90,000 to £30,000, a bet which is said to have been booked between the old Lord Glasgow and Lord George Bentinck. The morality of betting need not be here discussed; but it is noteworthy that the notorious O'Kelly, the owner of Eclipse, who owed nearly all he possessed to successful betting and gaming, provided, on leaving his Clay Hill estate to his nephew, that the latter should forfeit £500 for every bet he made upon horseracing; and at least two others, who owed their position to betting, adopted a similar course with regard to the recipients of their property.

The use of a betting apparatus called a 'Pari-mutuel,' deserves a word of notice, owing to the action, in 1887, of the French authorities with regard to the bookmakers. The 'Pari-mutuel' is a large frame, with a number of purse-like receptacles on it, each receptacle being devoted to a separate horse. The intending backer places his stake in the purse appropriated to the horse of his fancy, and when the race has been won, the backers of the winner divide among themselves all the money staked upon the different horses, less ten per cent. which goes to the proprietor of the machine. This method of gambling differs from ordinary betting, in so far as there are no regular odds against any of the starters. Suppose, for instance, that four horses are engaged in a race, and that the stake is 5s. Ten persons may back A the favourite, five may fancy B, while C and D may only have one supporter each. The machine will thus contain seventeen contributions, amounting to 85s. in all. Should A win, the ten backers have 85s. to divide between them; so each would get 8s. 6d. in addition to his original stake of 5s.; in other words they would be laying about 6 to 4 on the winner. If, on the other hand, C or D won, the solitary backer of either would take the whole of the 85s., equivalent to having taken 10 to 1 about the winner. The 'Pari-mutuel' was introduced into France about 1865, and found its way to England about 1868 or 1869. Its use gave rise in 1870 to the case of 'Tullet v. Thomas,' in which it was held to be a gaming machine, and therefore illegal. On nearly every racecourse are seen placards stating that 'Illegal betting is strictly prohibited.' This illegal betting consists in the backer depositing his money at the time of making the bet. So long as they bet on credit, the parties are safe from molestation on a racecourse. Of betting the Jockey Club takes no cognisance,

though this was not always the case, as they met and settled a disputed case which arose in connection with the Ascot meeting of 1815. Matters connected with betting are now ruled by the committees of Tattersall's and the Newmarket Rooms, and in February 1886 Tattersall's overhauled the rules of betting, and made some alterations; the most important of them being with regard to defaulters, and a declaration that all races should thenceforth be 'Play or Pay.' See *Tattersall's Rules on Betting*, by Statfield (1888).

Bettws-y-Coed, a village in Carnarvonshire, North Wales, beautifully situated at the point where the Conway receives the Llugwy, 15 miles S. of Llandudno Junction by rail. The rich greenery of the vegetation, the waterfalls and streams, the luxuriantly wooded hills all round, with the background of the mighty Snowdon and her sister-peaks, combine to make Bettws-y-Coed almost unique in the variety of its natural beauty. At the 'Royal Oak' is a former signboard, painted by David Cox, who stayed here every year from 1844 to 1856. Pop. 784.

Betty, WILLIAM HENRY WEST, better known as the Young Roscius, born at Shrewsbury in 1791, first appeared on the stage at the age of eleven in Belfast, and achieved an immediate success. For almost five years he sustained the heaviest parts before crowded and enthusiastic audiences, and earned from 50 to 75 guineas nightly. In 1805 Mr Pitt adjourned the House of Commons to permit members to witness the boy's Hamlet. He quitted the stage as a boy-actor in 1808, but after studying for a while at Cambridge, returned to it in 1812. He retired finally in 1824, and lived for fifty years in the enjoyment of the fortune he had so early amassed. He died in London, August 24, 1874.

Betula. See BIRCH.

Betwa, a river in Bundelkhand, North-west Provinces, India, which, after a north-east course of 360 miles, joins the Jumna.

Beust, FRIEDRICH FERDINAND, COUNT VON, German statesman, one of the most prominent modern politicians, was born at Dresden, January 13, 1809. Having conceived early a liking for politics, he devoted himself to diplomacy, and was employed by his government in various capacities in Berlin, Paris, and London. As minister for foreign affairs for Saxony, he, in 1849, declared against the adoption of the new German constitution, but in 1863 he supported the rights of the smaller German states on the Schleswig-Holstein question. In 1866, however, his friendship for Austria induced him to join that country in the war with Prussia, against the wishes of at least the liberal party in Saxony. He afterwards entered the service of Austria, and rose in 1867 to the head of affairs. The chief result of his policy in the reorganisation of the empire was the reconciliation of Hungary, although he afterwards disclaimed the honour of introducing dualism into the empire, and declared that he did so because only Deák's plan would satisfy Hungary. A zealous Protestant, he was an opponent of the Ultramontanes, and his tenure of office saw the removal of Jewish disabilities, and the establishment of civil marriages. Having failed in 1870 to keep his engagements to France, he resigned the office of chancellor in 1871, and though he was afterwards ambassador at London (1871-78) and Paris (1878-82), he never again took a prominent part in politics. He died October 24, 1886. See his *Memoirs* (Eng. trans., with an introduction by Baron Henry de Wornum, 2 vols. 1887).

Beuthen, a town of Prussian Silesia, 121 miles SE. of Breslau by rail, close to the Polish frontier. It lies in a mining district, and has manufactures

of woollen cloths and earthenware. Pop. (1871) 17,942; (1885) 26,484.

Beveland, NORTH and SOUTH, two Dutch islands in the estuary of the Scheldt. South Beveland is the largest and most fertile of the Zeeland (q.v.) islands, and has a population of 23,000. North Beveland is low and marshy.

Bevelled-gear. See GEARING.

Beveren, a town of Belgium, in East Flanders. The principal industry is the making of point-lace. Pop. (1884) 8023.

Beveridge, WILLIAM, Bishop of St Asaph, was born at Barrow, Leicestershire, in 1637, and entering St John's College, Cambridge, in 1653, as a sizar, devoted himself to the study of the classical and Semitic languages, on which latter he published a treatise at the age of twenty. In 1661, having obtained his degree of M.A., he was ordained both deacon and priest. After holding various preferments, in which he was remarkable for his devotion to his pastoral duties, he was, in 1704, appointed to the bishopric of St Asaph, having previously refused to accept that of Bath and Wells, on the deprivation of Dr Thomas Ken for not taking the oaths to the government of William III. He died 5th March 1708. His sermons and other works were published in 1824 (9 vols.); and there is another edition in the Library of Anglo-Catholic Theology (12 vols. 1842-46); but *Private Thoughts upon Religion* (1709) is his only work now read.

Beverland, ADRIAN, a Dutch scholar, who, by several of his writings, but more especially by his unorthodox interpretation of the Fall, caused great excitement among the theologians of his day. Born at Middelburg, in Zeeland, about the middle of the 17th century, he had studied law, visited Oxford University, and settled as an attorney in Holland, when, in 1678, he published his pamphlet, *Peccatum Originale*, which not only was burned at the Hague, but led to his own imprisonment, and to his expulsion from Utrecht and Leyden. On his return to the Hague, he wrote *De Solata Virginitatis Jure* (1680), which gave still greater offence than his first work. Soon after, he came to England, where he found a supporter in Isaac Vossius. He became insane, and died in England soon after 1712. His works are now mere bibliographical curiosities.

Beverley, the chief town of the East Riding of Yorkshire, 1 mile W. of the river Hull, with which it communicates by canal, and 8 miles NNW. of the city of Hull. Its trade consists in corn and coal, and tanning and the manufacture of agricultural implements are the staple industries. The finest object in Beverley is the superb Gothic minster, or the Collegiate Church of St John, ranking next to York Minster among the ecclesiastical structures of the county, and exhibiting different styles of Gothic architecture, the oldest part being of the 13th century. It is 334 feet long and 167 across the transept; the western towers are 200 feet high. The choir contains the celebrated Percy shrine, of the most exquisite workmanship. The minster has been restored since 1867 by Sir G. G. Scott, by whom, too, was restored the fine cruciform church of St Mary. The 14th-century North Bar is the sole survivor of four old gates. The grammar-school of Beverley is so old that the date of its foundation is unknown. Beverley arose out of a priory founded by St John of Beverley, who was born at the neighbouring village of Cherry Burton, became Bishop of Hexham first, and then of York, and died in 721. The name is a corruption of *Bevertac*, 'lake of beavers.' Pop. (1851) 10,058; (1881) 11,442.

Beverloo, a village of Belgium, in the province of Limbourg, 12 miles NW. of Hasselt. On the heath near is a permanent military camp. Pop. (1884) 1047.

Beverly, a town of Massachusetts, on an arm of the Atlantic, opposite Salem, with which it is connected by a bridge, and 18 miles NE. of Boston by rail. It has a good harbour. Pop. of township (1880) 8456.

Bevis of Hampton, the hero of a popular English medieval romance. The son of Sir Guy, Earl of Hamtoun, who was treacherously murdered by Divoun, emperor of Almayne, he was given by his false mother to some heathen merchants to be sold for a slave among the Paynim. By them he was carried to Ermony, where he soon became dear to King Ermynt, and dearer still to his only daughter, the lovely Josian. His chief exploits were the overthrow of Brademond of Damascus, of a monstrous boar, of the giant Ascapard whom he spared to become his squire, and of a dreadful dragon near Cologne. His famous sword Morglay he won in battle; his horse Arundel was the gift of Josian. Still more romantic episodes in his story are his carrying his own death-warrant in a sealed letter to the vassal Brademond, his escape from his noisome dungeon after seven years' imprisonment, and recovery of his wife who had preserved his love, though nominally the wife of King Ynor of Mombraunt. He next returned to England to avenge his father's death, then sailed for Ermony and defeated Ynor in a desperate battle. His last great fight was in the streets of London, when he slaughtered sixty thousand citizens, and forced King Edgar to grant him terms. Thirty-three years he then spent in love and perfect happiness at Ermony, dying at the same moment as his wife, while his famous steed Arundel had died just before. The romance was edited by Dr E. Kölbing for the Early English Text Society in 1885.

Bewcastle, a village of East Cumberland, 10 miles NE. of Brampton. Pop. (1881) 889. A headless stone cross in the churchyard, 14½ feet high, bears an Anglo-Saxon runic inscription, which, as interpreted by Professor Stephens of Copenhagen, shows the cross to belong to the year 670. See a long article in *Trans. Cumberland Ant. Soc.* (1878).

Bewdley (formerly BEAULIEU, from its pleasant situation), a municipal borough on the right bank of the Severn, Worcestershire, 14 miles NNW. of Worcester, on the Severn Valley Railway. Till 1885 Bewdley returned one member to parliament. It has manufactures of leather, combs, malt, carpets, and iron and brass wares. Near the town is a public park of 400 acres. Bewdley in the 13th century had a right of sanctuary for those who had shed blood. Henry VII. built a palace at Bewdley for his son Arthur, married here by proxy to Catharine of Aragon. Pop. (1881) 3088.

Bewick, THOMAS, to whom the modern revival of the art of wood-engraving is mainly due, was born at Cherryburn, Ovingham, Northumberland, August 12, 1753. His father was a farmer and the lessee of a colliery, and during his early years he enjoyed the ordinary life of a country boy, greatly interested in field-sports, and laying the foundation of that knowledge of the face of nature and of the appearance and habits of her living creatures, which afterwards so strongly influenced his artistic productions. Soon he began to depict the things that he had seen, embellishing the margins of his school-books, and sketching with chalk on floors and on the flat stones of the churchyard. At the age of fourteen he was apprenticed to Ralph Beilby, a Newcastle engraver, who turned out work of the most miscellaneous description, and the first woodcuts that he produced were a

series of diagrams illustrating Dr Hutton's *Mensuration*, published in 1768-70. In 1776, after the expiry of his apprenticeship, Bewick settled as an engraver in London; but the ways of the metropolis were little to his taste, and in less than a year he returned to Newcastle. Soon after, he became the partner of his former master, and taking his brother John Bewick (born 1760, died 1795) as an apprentice, he executed, probably with his assistance, the woodcuts for an edition of *Select Fables*, published in 1784. Towards the close of the following year Bewick began to work upon the blocks of the animals and of the vignettes and tailpieces of his *History of Quadrupeds*, issued in 1790, which fully established his reputation as an engraver. They were mainly drawn and cut in the evenings, after the ordinary routine of the shop was ended; and the accompanying letterpress was compiled by his partner. During the progress of this work he executed in 1789 his 'Chillingham Bull,' a large woodcut, which some have regarded as his masterpiece.

The success of the *Quadrupeds* led to the publication of a similar *History of British Birds*, in which the artist's highest powers were manifested, and which, like his other great works, has appeared in numerous successive editions. The first volume, dealing with land-birds, was issued by the firm in 1797, and the second, on water-birds, in which he was aided by such talented pupils as Johnson and Clennell, was published by Bewick alone in 1804. The figures of the various birds are rendered with the utmost spirit and accuracy, and as examples of powerful and finely decorative arrangements of black and white, nothing could surpass his 'Eagle Owl,' his 'Short-eared Owl,' and his 'Goldfinch.' The tailpieces are vivid renderings of landscape and of rustic life, and are frequently touched with a homely and most vigorous humour. In technical method these illustrations show an immense advance upon all previous examples of wood-engraving. Self-taught, and working from his own designs, Bewick instinctively adopted such methods as were in truest harmony with the especial capabilities of his material, working with white lines into the lights, from the black tint given by the untouched block. Each touch of his graver is laid with intention and definite meaning; and while later engravers have far surpassed him in finesse and manual dexterity, and have produced on wood marvellous imitations of other styles of engraving and surprising transcripts of the tone and texture of brush-work, Bewick's cuts will always maintain their place as classic in their kind, as standard examples of right aims and true direction in wood-engraving. Numerous other works were produced by Bewick, but we need only mention the *Æsop's Fables*, published in 1818, upon which he was engaged for six years. In these illustrations he was assisted by William Temple and William Harvey, and by his son, Robert Elliott Bewick (born 1788, died 1849), who became his partner in 1812, and also took part in the cuts for an unfinished *History of British Fishes*, published in 1862 in his father's charming autobiography. This admirable artist and most estimable man died at Gateshead, November 8, 1828. Interesting collections of his water-colours, drawings, and woodcuts, the gift of his daughters, are in the British Museum and the Newcastle Natural History Library.

See Hugo's *Bewick Collector* (1866), and 'Supplement' (1868); *Life*, by Thomson (1882); *Bewick and his Pupils*, by Dobson (1884); and for an account of his technical method, Jackson and Chatto's *History of Wood-engraving* (1861; the first edition appeared in 1839), Linton's *Hints on Wood-engraving* (1879), and Hamerton's *Graphic Arts* (1882).

Bex, a village in the Swiss canton of Vaud, 26 miles SE. of Lausanne. It is remarkable for its extensive salt-mines, salt-works, and sulphur-baths. One of the mines has a gallery 7½ feet high and 5 feet wide, extending horizontally into the mountain a distance of more than 2000 yards. Pop. (1880) 3958.

Bexar. See SAN ANTONIO.

Bey, a Turkish title. See BEG.

Beyerland, one of the island-districts of South Holland, and lying between the Maas and the Hollandsche Diep. It is 15 miles long.

Beyle, MARIE-HENRI, a French author, better known by his *nom de plume*, 'Stendhal,' born at Grenoble, 1783, was painter, government-clerk, soldier, and merchant by turns, and accompanied the fatal Russian campaign of 1812. After some years' residence in Milan, he returned in 1821 to Paris, where he acquired a high reputation as a *littérateur*. He was consul at Trieste and Civita Vecchia from 1830 to 1841, and died at Paris, March 23, 1842. Stendhal's keen powers of criticism and psychological analysis give greater value to his works on art and music than to his romances, although the same piquant style, brilliant wit, and wide knowledge of the world, appear in all his writings. His defects are a morbid straining after originality, and an ostentatious cynicism and contempt for moral sentiment. His best novels, which all lack consistency of plot, are *Le Rouge et le Noir* (1830) and *La Chartreuse de Parme* (1839). His principal critical works are *Histoire de la Peinture en Italie* (1817); *De l'Amour* (1822); *Racine et Shakespeare* (1823), which greatly aided the cause of romanticism; *Vie de Rossini* (1824); and *Promenades dans Rome* (1829).—See Paton's *Henry Beyle* (Lond. 1874).

Beypur, a seaport of Western India, in Malabar district, Madras, near the mouth of the Beypur River, 6 miles S. of Calicut. Iron-ore and coal are found in the neighbourhood, and iron-works have been established here. Since 1858 Beypur has acquired importance as the terminus of a railway across the peninsula of India from Madras by way of Coimbatore. Pop. (1871) 5858; (1881) 6739.

Beyrout, or BEIRÛT, believed to be the *Berothai* or *Berothah* of the Old Testament (2 Sam. viii. 8 and Ezek. xlvii. 16); and known to the ancients under the name of *Berytus*, as a Phœnician seaport belonging to Sidon. In the 12th century it was for a few years in the hands of the Christians, and has since been subject successively to the Saracen, Seljuk, and Turkish sultans. In 1840-41 it was bombarded by the English fleet under Sir C. Napier, taken from the Egyptians, and delivered over to the Turks. Beyrout is a flourishing commercial town, situated in a most picturesque position on the coast of Syria, and at the foot of Lebanon, 55 miles from Damascus, and 147 from Jerusalem. It is the chief seaport, market-town, and emporium of all the trade with the shores of Syria, Palestine, and Cilicia, with a regular service of Egyptian, French, and British steamers. The latter bring Manchester goods, woollens, Rangoon rice, hides, copper, iron, and coal, and return to England with corn and silk. Since the opening of the Suez Canal, a direct eastern trade in spices, coffee, indigo, and jute has sprung up. The roadstead is full of sand-banks, and large ships cannot approach within half a mile of the shore, but shelter is found during stormy weather in the Beyrout River, about 3 miles from the town. Commerce has of late years very largely increased, the annual value of imports having risen in 1848—88 from £550,000 to about £1,800,000, and the

exports from a little over £200,000 to about £600,000. About half the total imports are from Great Britain. In 1886, 4009 vessels, with a burden of 618,699 tons, entered and cleared the port. Ship-building has received some attention. In 1859 a line of omnibuses, the first ever seen in Syria, was established here, and a French company completed in 1863 a good road to Damascus, of which Beyrout is the port; in 1875 an English company completed an extensive system of water-works, and in 1886 a concession for gas-works was sold to a Paris company. A Scottish school for Jews has been founded at Beyrout, as also the dépôt of the American-Syrian mission, with a school, printing-press, and medical staff. The population numbers some 80,000 (the majority of whom are Christians) against 8000 in 1844, this increase being largely due to the settlement, in 1860, of numbers of the Christian refugees from Damascus.

Beyschlag, WILHELM, a German evangelical theologian, born at Frankfurt in 1823, was appointed professor of Theology at Halle in 1860. His orthodoxy has been questioned; but his works have a high reputation. Of these the most important are: *Die Christologie des Neuen Testaments* (1866); *Die Paulinische Theologie*, Röm. 9-11 (1868); *Die Christliche Gemeindeverfassung im Zeitalter des Neuen Testaments* (1874); and *Zur Johanneischen Frage* (1876). Since 1876 he has edited the *Deutsch-evangelische Blätter*.

Beza, THEODORE (properly De Bèze), next to Calvin the most active and influential of the Genevese reformers, was born of a noble family at Vezelai, in Burgundy, 24th June 1519. He received an admirable education at Orleans and at Bourges in the house of Melchior Volmar, a learned German, who taught him Greek, and also imbued him with the principles of the Reformation. As early as 1539, Beza became known as a writer of witty and elegant but indecent verses, the publication of which (1548) caused him many bitter regrets in after-days. After studying law at Orleans, he obtained his degree as licentiate of civil law in his twentieth year, and went to live in Paris, where he appears to have spent several years in fashionable dissipation. His handsome figure, together with his fine talents and good birth, opened to him the most brilliant prospects. It was the desire of his relatives that he should enter the church, but a private marriage which he had contracted rendered this impossible.

After a severe illness, during which the sinfulness of his career presented itself to his conscience, he went to Geneva along with his wife, October 1548. Shortly after, he was appointed Greek professor at Lausanne, an office which he held for ten years. In 1550 he published with success a drama, entitled *The Sacrifice of Abraham*, and delivered lectures to crowded audiences on the Epistle to the Romans and the Epistles of Peter. Out of these lectures ultimately grew his translation of the New Testament into Latin. In 1559 he went to Geneva, where he became Calvin's ablest coadjutor, and was appointed a theological professor and president of the college. He had already signalled himself by his work *De Hæreticis a Civili Magistratu Puniendis* (1554), in which, like many other honest but mistaken men, he approved of the burning of Servetus.

Beza was as skilful a diplomatist as a theologian. He induced the king of Navarre to exert his influence on behalf of the persecuted French Protestants, and was persuaded by the latter to attend the conference of Catholic and Protestant divines held at Poissy in 1561. Here his courage and dexterity made a very favourable impression on the French court. While in Paris he often preached before the king of Navarre and Condé. On the out-

break of the civil war he accompanied the latter as a kind of military chaplain, and after his capture attached himself to Coligny. In 1563 he once more returned to Geneva. The following year Calvin died, and the care of the Genevese church now fell principally upon Beza's shoulders. He presided over the synods of French reformers held at Rochelle in 1571 and at Nîmes in 1572. In 1574 he was deputed by Condé to transact important business at the court of the Palatinate; and in 1586 measured himself with the Würtemberg divines. After the death of his first wife in 1588, though verging on seventy, he married again. In 1597 his calumniators spread the extremely foolish report that he was dead and at the last hour had returned to the bosom of the church. The witty patriarch replied in a poem full of sparkling vigour. He died 13th October 1605, at the ripe age of 86. The works by which he is best known are his translation of the New Testament into Latin, and his *Histoire Ecclesiastique des Eglises Réformées de France, 1521-1563* (3 vols. Geneva, 1580). There are lives by Schlosser (1809), Baum (1851), and Heppé (1861).

Bezants, or BYZANTINES, are coins of the Byzantine empire. The gold bezant varied in value at different times from a sovereign to half a sovereign; the silver one from a florin to a shilling; are of gold and silver; bear impressions distinct from those of the earlier Roman coins; and were copied in several countries where the Byzantine standard was adopted. The commercial relations of the Eastern empire served to distribute its coinage over almost all the then known world. It was current in India as well as in England till the reign of Edward III. (see NUMISMATICS). Bezants were brought home by the Crusaders, and hence are of frequent occurrence as heraldic charges. Similar figures, when not coloured or (gold), or *argent* (silver), are known in heraldry by the general term of *roundels*. A *bezanty cross* is a cross composed of bezants.

Bezdan, a market-town in the Hungarian province of Baes, and a station for steamships, on the canal joining the Theiss and the Danube, from which latter river it is about 3 miles distant. Pop. (1880) 7715.

Béziers, a town in the French department of Hérault, is pleasantly situated on a hill in the midst of a fertile country, at the junction of the Orb and the Canal du Midi, 49 miles SW. of Montpellier by rail. It contains some interesting architectural buildings, the principal being the cathedral, a noble Gothic edifice, and the ancient episcopal palace; and antiquarian remains dating from before the time of the Romans. Beziers has manufactures of silk stockings, woollens, gloves, parchment, glass, soap, leather, brandy, and much esteemed confectionery. Pop. (1871) 31,468; (1886) 40,162. In 1209 the inhabitants were indiscriminately put to the sword by Simon de Montfort and the pope's legate for having afforded protection to the Albigensian fugitives.

Bélique (also called *Besique*), a game at cards, played with a double pack, in which the objects are principally to promote in the hand certain combinations which, when 'declared,' entitle the holder to score, and to win certain cards of a particular value. There are practically no restrictions in the game; it is not necessary to follow suit; and two, three, or four players may engage in it.

Be'zoar (through Fr. and Span. from Persian *pâd-zahr*, 'counter-poison,' *zahr*, 'poison'), a concretion found in the stomachs of goats or antelopes, and formerly much valued on account of imaginary medicinal virtues, particularly as an antidote to

poisons. Concretions of various kinds are found in the stomachs of herbivorous quadrupeds, very generally having for their nucleus some small indigestible substance which has been taken into the stomach. Sometimes they are of a radiating structure; sometimes formed of concentric layers; sometimes they are principally composed of superphosphate of lime; sometimes of phosphate of ammonia or magnesia. Other concretions found in the intestines, &c. of various animals are sometimes also called bezoar (see CALCULUS). The value of a bezoar being supposed to increase with its size, the larger ones have been sold, particularly in India, for very great prices.

Bhagalpur', or BOGLIPOOR, a town of Bengal, stands on the right bank of the Ganges, here 7 miles wide, and by rail is 265 miles N.W. of Calcutta. Pop. (1881) 68,238.—The long, narrow district of Bhagalpur, lying S. of Nepal, has an area of 4268 sq. m., and is divided into two nearly equal portions by the Ganges. The lowlands are fertile and well cultivated. Indigo is the chief manufacture, and rice and other cereals are the principal articles of export. Pop. (1881) 1,966,158, of whom 90 per cent. are Hindus.—The division of Bhagalpur comprises five districts.

Bhagavad Gītā ('The Song of the Adorable') is the title of a lengthy theosophical poem which has been incorporated in the great Indian epic, the Mahābhārata, although it is clearly of later date than the rest of that work, its composition being usually assigned to the first or second century after Christ. The leading theme of the poem is the exaltation of the god Vishnu in his human form or avatār of Krishna, and throughout it the god speaks in his own person. In this incarnation Vishnu became the charioteer of Arjuna, a chief of the Pāndus, who were then at war with their kinsmen, the Kurus. On the eve of a battle, when Arjuna is appalled at the thought of slaughtering his own kindred, Krishna sets before him the duties demanded of him as a member of the warrior caste, and at the same time propounds an eclectic system of philosophy of an ethical pantheistic type, laying especial emphasis on the doctrine of *bhakti*, or faith in the Supreme Being, whom he declares himself to be. The poem is divided into three sections, each containing six chapters, called *upanishads* ('secret doctrine'), a name which shows the mystical character of the work. In the first section, the duties and observances of caste are directly inculcated, and asserted to be entirely in harmony with the principles of the Yoga philosophy—viz. asceticism and meditation, by which absorption in the Deity, the highest object of humanity, is attained. In the second, the pantheistic doctrines of the Vedānta philosophy are expounded and taught. In the third, the pantheism of the Vedānta is interwoven with the dualism of the Sāṅkhya philosophy. The remarkable similarity existing between many of the ideas and expressions of the poem and those of the New Testament has led some scholars—e.g. Weber, Lorinser, and Nève—to infer an actual borrowing from the latter. This theory has, however, been vigorously combated by Telang, and is still *sub judice*.

The Bhagavad Gītā has been edited by Schlegel (Bonn, 1846), with a Latin translation, and by Thompson (Hertford, 1855). It has been translated into English by Wilkins (1785), Thompson (1855), Davies (1882), Telang (Bombay, 1875), and by the same in 'Sacred Books of the East,' vol. viii., and Chatterji (1887); also into German, French, and modern Greek, as well as into most of the modern Indian languages. The philosophy of the Bhagavad Gītā has been discussed by W. von Humboldt in

a special treatise (1827), and commented on by Chintamon (1874).

Bhagirathi, a branch of the Ganges, regarded as sacred by the Hindus, leaves the Ganges at Chhapghati, divides the Murshidabad district into two portions, forms the boundary line between Nadiya and Bardwan districts, and joins the Jalangi at Nadiya town to form the Hooghly (q.v.).—Also the name of a head-stream of the Ganges, rising in Gangotri Peak, Garhwal, North-west Provinces, which joins the Alaknanda at Deoprayag, and is afterwards known as the Ganges.

Bhamo', a town of Burmah, is at the head of the navigation of the Upper Irawadi, 40 miles to the west of the Chinese frontier, and 300 miles from Mandalay. It has long been a mart of Burmese trade with China; and attention has been directed to it, especially since the annexation of Upper Burmah by Britain, as an important centre for the development of trade between India and China through Western Yunnan, along the trade routes to the eastward. Steamers ply to Rangoon, and a railway has been projected. Estimated pop. 2500, consisting of Shans and Chinese.

Bhandara, a town of India, in the Central Provinces, 40 miles E. of Nagpur. Pop. (1881) 11,150.—Bhandara district has an area of 3922 sq. m., and a pop. of 683,779.

Bhang, the eastern name for Hemp (q.v.).

Bhannagar, a town of Bombay, the capital of a native state, on the Gulf of Cambay, 60 miles N.W. of Surat. It is a seat of cotton trade and manufacture. Pop. (1881) 47,792. Area of state, 2860 sq. m.; pop. 400,323, chiefly Hindus.

Bhanpura, or BHAMPURA, a walled town of Central India, in Indore state, on the Rewa, 60 miles S. of Kotah. It lies 1344 feet above sea-level. Pop. 13,400.

Bhartpur', or BHURTPORE', the capital of the protected state of the same name in India, is a large town, measuring about 8 miles in circuit, 35 miles W. of Agra by rail. It is worthy of notice chiefly on account of its two sieges in 1805 and 1827. The strength of the place lay in a mud wall, which was practically shot-proof, and a surrounding ditch, which baffled four successive assaults by Lord Lake. On the second occasion, however, Lord Combermere carried the fortress by mining. Pop. (1881) 66,163.—The state of Bhartpur has an area of 1974 sq. m. It suffers from want of water, having only one river flowing through it; and yet, in many parts, the soil is rendered highly productive by means of irrigation. The revenue of the state is more than £300,000 a year; and the total military force amounts to 10,000 men of all arms. Pop. (1881) 645,540, mostly Jats.

Bhartrihari is the name of a celebrated Indian writer of apothegms, of whom but little is known. A legendary story makes him the brother of King Vikramāditya, who lived about the middle of the 1st century B.C., and relates of him, that after a wild licentious youth, he betook himself in later years to the ascetic life of a hermit. His name has been given to a collection of 300 apothegms, arranged in three centuries or groups of a hundred (*gataka*), but it is likely that these were the work of various authors, but ascribed, according to the Indian custom, to a well-known name. Cheerful descriptions from nature, and charming pictures of love, alternate in these apothegms, with wise remarks upon the relations of life, and profound thoughts upon the Deity and the immortality of the soul. Bollen published an excellent critical edition (2 vols. Berlin, 1833-50), as well as a successful metrical translation into German (Hamburg,

1835). Bhartrihari has a special interest as the first Indian author known in Europe, 200 of his apothegms having been translated by the missionary, Abraham Roger, in a learned work published at Nuremberg in 1653, under the quaint title, *Offene Thür zum verborgenen Heidentum*.

Bhatgaon, a town of Nepal, 8 miles SE. of Khatmandu. It is the favourite residence of the Brahmans of Nepal. Estimated pop. 30,000.

Bhavabhūti, surnamed 'Sri-kantha,' a great Indian dramatist, who flourished in the first half of the 8th century, and wrote at least three plays: the *Mahāvīracarita* ('life of the great hero') and the *Uttararāmacharita* ('later life of Rama'), forming together, in seven acts each, a dramatised version of the story of the Ramayana; and the *Mālvi-mādhava*, a domestic drama in ten acts, full of life and incident. Bhavabhūti is often compared with Kālidāsa, whom he equalled in vigour and variety, but hardly in genius. All three plays have been translated into English.

Bhel, or BAELE. See ÆGLE.

Bhils, a pre-Aryan race of Central India, inhabiting the states from the Khandesh district of Bombay to the wild hilly tracts of the Vindhya range, north of the Nerulda River. In 1825 James Outram organised a Bhil corps in order to utilise the warlike instincts of the people, and at the same time the first Bhil agency was formed. The Bhils are dark, diminutive men, brave and active, but predatory and superstitious. Their normal habit of life has been nomadic, wandering about with their sheep and goats, and living chiefly on game and fruit. At present some faint progress has been made in civilising them, and a very few have been brought to till the ground. They numbered 724,999 in 1881.

Bhilsa, a town of India, in Gwalior state, on the right bank of the Betwa, 26 miles NE. of Bhopal. Here is the most remarkable group of Topes (q.v.) in India. Pop. (1881) 7070.

Bhiwani, a town of the Punjab, 37 miles SE. of Hissar by rail. Since 1817 the seat of a free market, it is the chief commercial centre of the district, and a brisk trade is done in sugar, salt, spices, and metals. Pop. (1881) 33,762.

Bhopal, the capital of a native state in Central India, 325 miles SW. of Allahabad. The largest of two artificial lakes in the neighbourhood measures $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles by $1\frac{1}{2}$.—The state of Bhopal has an area of 6874 sq. m. Though the vast mass of the people are Hindus, yet the government is Mohammedan, and Bhopal has the reputation of being the best-governed native state in India. The state was founded in 1723 by Dost Mohammed Khan, and a treaty of dependence was concluded between the ruler and the British government in 1818. Shah Jahan, the Begum of Bhopal, in 1872 received the Grand Cross of the Star of India. Pop. of state (1881) 954,901; of Bhopal agency, 1,291,358.

Bhuj, the capital of the Indian native state of Cutch, 180 miles SE. of Hyderabad. Its mosques and pagodas, interspersed with plantations of dates, give to the town an imposing appearance from a distance. In 1819 it suffered severely from an earthquake. Pop. (1881) 22,308.

Bhutan, an independent state in the eastern Himalayas, bounded on the N. by Tibet, S. and E. by Assam, and on the W. by Sikkim. It is divided into East and West Bhutan; and before the British annexation in 1841 and 1865 of the eighteen *Dwars* or passes which lead from the plains to the lofty terraces of Bhutan, the area was estimated at 20,000 sq. m.; since, it has been estimated at 15,000 sq. m. With summits exceeding 24,000 feet, the whole surface may be

described as mountainous, abounding in sublime and romantic scenery, with a gradual slope from north to south. Generally speaking, the middle ranges are the most productive. While the south presents but a scanty vegetation, and the north rises far above the limit of perpetual snow, the central regions, at an elevation of 8000 or 10,000 feet above the sea, are covered with the finest forests of oak and pine, with beech, ash, birch, and maple. Amongst wild animals, elephants are numerous, and leopards, deer, wild hogs, bears, and the rhinoceros are also found. The Manas, a tributary of the Brahmaputra, is the most considerable river. Turnips grow well, and nearly all sorts of grain—wheat, barley, rice, maize, and buckwheat—are here and there cultivated on terraces cut out of the sides of the hills. The foreign trade, which consisted in the exchange of commodities in return for native cloth, rock-salt, rhubarb, Tibet goods, mules, and the famous Tangutian horses or ponies, has declined. The nominal religion is Buddhism, but amongst the common people this goes little further than the recital of a few sacred sentences, and the propitiation of evil spirits. The government, almost purely ecclesiastical, is in the hands of a rapacious oligarchy. The Dharm Rajah, the nominal head, is treated rather as a god than as a sovereign; while the Deb Rajah, the actual head, is elected every three years by the chiefs from amongst themselves. They are controlled by the Lenehen or council of ministers. Polygamy and polyandry are common. The lower orders are dirty in their persons and habits; their food consists mostly of pork, turnips, rice, barley-meal, and brick-tea. They are neat joiners, and their houses of three and four stories have the appearance of Swiss chalets, but are without chimneys. The winter capital is Punakha on the Bugui River, 96 miles NE. of Darjeeling. The summer capital is Tasichozong (Tassindon), on the Gudara River, a centre of Lamasism. The original inhabitants, believed to be from Kuch Behar, were called Tephu; they were subdued by a band of Tibetan soldiers 200 years ago, who settled in Bhutan. The Bhutias speak a dialect of Tibetan. In 1772 the rajah of Kuch Behar received assistance from the British government against their invasions. Later raids led to the treaty of 1865, when the eighteen *Dwars* or passes of Bengal and Assam were ceded to the British government in return for a yearly subvention. The population of the state, formerly estimated at from 20,000, seems to be much larger.

Biafra, BIGHT OF, a large bay on the west coast of Africa, at the head of the Gulf of Guinea, between Capes Formosa and Lopez. The principal rivers flowing into it are the Niger (q.v.), the New and Old Calabar rivers, the Rio del Rey, the Cameroons, and the Gaboon; its islands are Fernando, Po (Spanish), and St Thomas' and Prince's Islands (Portuguese). Opposite Fernando Po are the Cameroons (q.v.).

Bialystok, a town in the Russian government of Grodno, on the Biala, 55 miles W. by S. of Moscow by rail. Its castle is now used as a convent, but formerly belonged to the Counts of Braniski, and was called the 'Versailles of Poland.' More than thirty factories produce cloth and woollen stuffs. Pop. (1883) 39,926.

Biana. See BAYANA.

Blancavilla, a town of Sicily, on the south-west declivity of Mount Etna, 24 miles NW. of Catania. It has a trade in grain, cotton, and silk. Pop. (1881) 13,021.

Blanchini, FRANCESCO, antiquary and astronomer, was born in 1662 at Verona. At Padua he

studied theology, mathematics, and botany; and in 1684 proceeded to Rome, where he became intimate with the most distinguished *savants* of the day, and devoted himself to the study of jurisprudence and foreign languages. Alexander VIII. bestowed upon him a rich benefice, and Clement XI. appointed him secretary to the commission for reforming the calendar. He died in Rome in 1729. He was author of various works, but is chiefly remembered in connection with the Meridian Line (q.v.).

Bian'coni, CHARLES, born in Lombardy in 1786, came at the beginning of the century to Ireland as an itinerant vendor of cheap prints. Having accumulated a small capital, he started the first public conveyance between Clonmel and Cahir in 1815, at a time when the peace and the carriage-tax had filled the market with cheap horses and jaunting-cars. The enterprise succeeded, and, until, 40 years after, Bianconi's cars were working over 4000 miles of road daily. Having realised a large fortune, he retired in 1865, and died in September 1875, at his estate near Cashel. He was a devoted adherent of O'Connell, into whose family both his son and daughter married.

Blard, AUGUSTE FRANÇOIS, a *genre* painter, born at Lyons in 1798, travelled in early life in the Levant, in 1839 visited Greenland and Spitzbergen, in 1858-59 Brazil, and in 1865 travelled round the world. Among his best pictures are the 'Beggars Family,' 'African Slave-market,' 'Fight with Polar Bears,' and 'The Wandering Comedians.' He died in Paris, June 1882. His wife, Léonie d'Aumet (1820-79), separated from him since 1845, was author of some novels, a play, &c.

Blarritz, a favourite watering-place in the French department of Basses-Pyrénées, on the Bay of Biscay, 6 miles SW. of Bayonne. Here, in 1855, Louis Napoleon built the Villa Eugénie for the empress, who already, as Countess de Téba, had been a frequent visitor. The presence of the court combined with the pleasant situation and salubrity of the place to increase greatly the fame of its baths and its caverned cliffs. During the season (July-September) the place is often visited by 6000 guests, for whose accommodation have been built several good hotels, a number of scattered villas, a casino, a large bathing establishment, an English Protestant church, &c. Pop. (1881) 6488. See De Lavigne, *Blarritz* (Paris, 1882); Count Russell, *Blarritz and the Basque Country* (Lond. 1873).

Bias, one of the Seven Wise Men of Greece, a native of Priene in Ionia, flourished about the middle of the 6th century B.C., famous for his eloquence, his nobility of character, and his apothegms. Among these perhaps the best were: 'Know and then act,' 'He is unfortunate who cannot bear misfortune,' 'So order your affairs as if your life were to be both long and short,' and that addressed to the irreligious sailors who during a storm were loudly calling on the gods, 'Be quiet, lest the gods discover that you are here.' Once when his fellow-townsmen in alarm before an enemy were hastily carrying off their valuables, Bias was seen without a burden, and being asked why he was not occupied like others, replied in words which have become a Latin proverb, *Omnia mea mecum porto*, 'I carry all my goods with me.'

Bias. See BEAS.

Bias. See BOWLS.

Bib, also called BRASSY, POUT, or WHITING POUT (*Gadus luscus*), a fish of the same genus as the Cod, Haddock (q.v.), and Whiting, pretty common on many parts of the British coasts, found also on those of Norway, Sweden, Greenland, &c. It is

seldom more than a foot long, but differs from the other British *Gadida* in the great depth of its body, which equals at least one-fourth of the entire length. The back is arched, and the nape exhibits a rather sharp ridge. The head is invested with a loose dilatible membrane. The names Bib and Pout, both originally local English names, were at one time supposed to refer to distinct species (*G. lusca* and *G. barbata*), but these, probably, are really one.

Biberach, a town of Württemberg, delightfully situated on the Reiss, 23 miles SSW. of Ulm. It retains its old ramparts and towers, and in front of the theatre is a monument to Wieland, who was born in the neighbourhood. There are manufactures of machinery, artificial flowers, leather, children's toys, &c. Pop. (1885) 7938. In 1796 Moreau won a great victory over the Austrian general Latour at Biberach, the latter losing 4000 prisoners. Here also, in 1800, Saint Cyr defeated the Austrian general Cray. Biberach fell into the possession of Baden in 1802, but four years afterwards was ceded to Württemberg.

Biberich. See BIEBRICH.

Bib'iri and **Bib'irine**. See GREENHEART.

Bible. The Bible is in Gr. *Ta Biblia*, 'The Books,' *par excellence*. Though a plural in Greek, the word came, on account of its termination, to be used in Low Latin as a feminine singular; and from the Latin it passed in this form into modern languages (*la Bible*, *die Bibel*, and the like). The Bible consists of two great parts—the Old and New Testaments, properly 'Covenants.' The religion of Israel was considered a covenant between Jehovah, their God, and the people. As this covenant had proved ineffectual for its purposes, the prophets promised a *new* covenant (Jer. xxxi. 31); and in the appearance and death of Christ this new covenant was established (1 Cor. xi. 25; Heb. viii. 7 *seq.*, and, according to some readings, in the Gospels—e.g. Matt. xxvi. 28). As early as the 2d century of our era the books of the Old and New Covenants are spoken of, and as the Greek 'covenant' was rendered by the Latin *testamentum* (though some preferred *instrumentum*), the phrase Old and New Testaments passed into most modern languages, as into our own.

THE OLD TESTAMENT.—The literature of Israel is very closely connected with its history. As in all ancient states, the religion was national. The religious unit or subject was not the individual in the state; but the ideal unity formed by the people as a whole. Now this unity came into existence at the exodus from Egypt. From that hour Israel was conscious of being a people, and Jehovah who had delivered them was their God alone—'I am Jehovah thy God, who brought thee out of the land of Egypt' (Ex. xx. 2; Hosea, xiii. 4). The sense of being a people, and the sense of being the people of Jehovah, if not identical feelings, reacted very powerfully on one another; and hence the religious literature of the people reflects from age to age all the changing hues of its history. That history ran very much such a course as we should have expected.

(1) The migration of the ancestors of the people from the East, the descent into Egypt, the oppression there, and the delivery under Moses, are events testified to not only in the formal history of the Pentateuch, but by frequent incidental allusions in other writers. These allusions express the fundamental historical feeling of the people, the very basis of their national and religious consciousness. (Amos, ii. 9 *seq.*; Hosea, xii. 13; Micah, vi. 4).

(2) It was natural that the unity into which the tribes had been welded at the Exodus by the necessity of facing a common danger or sharing a

common enterprise would become relaxed when the danger was over and the enterprise had in great measure succeeded; and, accordingly, after the settlement in Canaan we find the unity in some degree disintegrated, and the various tribes fighting each for its own hand, and only entering into combinations when some danger more serious than usual threatened. Such is the history as reflected in the Book of Judges. Even in this troubled period, although practically the tribes are often seen acting independently and settling with a strong hand their own local differences with the native population, the sense of the ideal unity of all the tribes as one 'Israel' inspires the higher minds in the nation (Judges, v. 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, &c.); and the need of some single head, such as a king, to represent this unity is often felt and expressed by the people (Judges, viii. 22).

(3) When a danger so pressing that it threatened the national existence of Israel arose in the Philistine power, the need of a visible head to bind the tribes together and lead them against the common enemy was universally recognised, and the people demanded that Samuel should give them a king 'to go out before us and fight our battles' (1 Sam. viii. 20). The aged seer, though reluctant to see the ideal sovereignty of Jehovah, the sense of which should have been enough to secure the national unity, brought down and materialised in the form of an earthly representative king, was sagacious and patriotic enough to perceive the necessities of the time, and to take them under his direction. And thus arose the monarchy, a partial attempt in the same direction having already been made by Abimelech (Judges, ix.). The history of this period is recorded in the Books of Samuel and in the early part of the Kings. This period is of intrinsic importance in the literary and religious history of Israel. Three powerful streams of influence issue from it, and run through the whole succeeding history, fertilising and enriching it. These were, first, the prophetic order, a class of men who probably existed from the earliest times along with the Nazirites (Amos, ii. 11), but who acquired an influence in the state at this period, first as counsellors and seers of the early kings (Nathan, Gad, 2 Sam. xii. 1, xxiv. 11), and ultimately as an independent order who took the religious destinies of the nation into their own hand, and in whose writings, the prophetic Scriptures, we have the fullest exposition of that lofty spiritual religion in Israel to which the New Testament directly attaches itself. Secondly, the elevation of the Davidic dynasty to the throne. The brilliant reign of David, whose arms extended the limits of the Jewish state, till for those days it might justly be named an empire, became the ideal of after-ages; and when amidst disaster and religious decline men looked back to it and transfigured it in the light of the religious hopes which filled their minds, it became the type both of a future king and a future universal kingdom of God that would arise upon the earth in the latter days. Thus arose those special predictions of the perfection of the kingdom of the Lord called Messianic prophecies. And thirdly, the choice of Jerusalem as the centre both of the national and religious life of the people. The influence of the temple of Solomon both in purifying and elevating the ritual worship, as well as in leading ultimately to its concentration at one shrine, can hardly be overestimated. But the step gave a colour to all the succeeding literature. Patriotism and religion were once more welded together. Jerusalem was not only the perfection of beauty, the joy of the whole earth (Ps. xlviii. 2), it was also the 'hearth' of Jehovah, who dwelt in Zion at Jerusalem (Is. xxix. 1). National sentiment mingled with re-

ligious emotion in one powerful stream, and the union has given to the religious poetry of Israel which celebrates 'Zion,' or longs to revisit it, or tells that its dust is dear, not only a religious value but a never-dying human charm.

(4) There had always existed a jealousy between the North and South, between the powerful tribe of Ephraim, which always aspired to the leadership of the tribes, and the great tribe of Judah, and very naturally the unity of the tribes under the monarchy, when subjected to a severe strain under Rehoboam, broke asunder, and two kingdoms arose and existed side by side, sometimes hostile to one another but in the main friendly. Though either of the two kingdoms might prove itself sufficiently strong to hold in subjection the petty kingdoms of Edom and Moab, and even to maintain its own against the more powerful state of Syria, when confronted with the imposing empires of Assyria and Babylon they naturally lost their independence, first Israel at the hands of Assyria (721 B.C.), and then Judah at the hands of Babylon (586 B.C.), and became merged in these empires as provinces. The external history of the two kingdoms is told in the Books of Kings; and the internal condition of the people, the relaxation of morals, the struggles of contending parties, and the cruel idolatries to which despair had recourse, are reflected in the pages of the prophets—in the writings of Amos and Hosea during the last years of Samaria; in Isaiah and Micah during the conflict of the South with Assyria; and in Jeremiah during the death-struggle of Judah with Babylon.

(5) As one colossal empire followed another and succeeded to the inheritance of its predecessor—Babylon, Persia, Greece, and Rome—the people of Israel, no longer independent, existed as a community, governed internally in the main in accordance with its own conceptions, but forming externally part of the heathen empire for the time. Only after a successful revolt against the Greco-Syrian rule of the Seleucids did the people again attain to independence and become ruled by native princes for about a century (167-63 B.C.). It then fell under the influence of Rome, which finally destroyed the city and temple (70 A.D.). No external history of the Exile has been written; but the picture of the desolation of the land, the sad silence in the streets and gates of Jerusalem, which used to ring with the joy of the feasts, and the sense of abasement and contempt into which the people had fallen as a nation among the nations, together with the flickerings of a faith in the sure mercies of the Lord that refused to be quenched (Lam. iii.), may be seen in the exquisite collection of elegies called the Lamentations, written not many years after the fall of the city; while the delirium of hope raised somewhat later by the victories of Cyrus and the approaching downfall of Babylon, and the gorgeous anticipations of the destruction of idolatry and the conversion of the nations to the true religion of Jehovah through the ministration of Israel restored, 'the servant of the Lord,' fill the pages of the second half of Isaiah (xl.-xli.). The fortunes of the returning exiles are described in Ezra and Nehemiah, and in the three prophets of the return (Zechariah, Haggai, Malachi), while the aims and faith and hopes of godly Israel during the Maccabean struggles are reflected in the Book of Daniel. Thus, amidst all the vicissitudes of its eventful history, the literary activity of Israel knew no intermission. The great literary period extends from 800 to 400 B.C., but much of the finest historical writing is anterior to this period, and several important books, as Chronicles, Ecclesiastes, and Daniel, fall later.

The threefold division of the Old Testament into

the Law, the Prophets, and the miscellaneous Writings is already known to the translator of Ecclesiasticus (131 B.C.), and is found in the New Testament as the Law and the Prophets (Matt. xxii. 40), or Moses and the Prophets (Luke, xvi. 29), or more fully the Law of Moses, and the Prophets, and the Psalms (Luke, xxiv. 44). The date of the Law has been the subject of great difference of opinion; the period at which most of the prophets lived is well ascertained, and the *Prophetic Writings* may be referred to first.

The prophets Samuel, Elijah, and Elisha have left no writings; the same is true of Jonah, our present Book of Jonah being merely an historical episode in the life of that prophet. The oldest written prophecy is probably that of Amos, after whom the succession is continuous. The prophetic call was scarcely a call to an office; there was no prophetic as there was a priestly office. The prophet was a man who felt called of God and inspired to direct for the time being the religious destinies of the people and the kingdom of God. The prophets express the idea of their inspiration by various symbols: a cherub touches the lips of Isaiah with a live coal from the altar, and his sin is taken away (Is. vi.); the hand of the Lord himself touches the mouth of Jeremiah (Jer. i. 9), while Ezekiel is commanded to eat the roll of a book (Ezek. iii. 1). The essential idea of Hebrew prophecy is that in it God spake directly to the mind and in the mind of the individual. This makes it a thing unique in the religious history of mankind. Other methods of reaching to knowledge of the will of God were divination or augury, not prophecy, and were proscribed. Several definitions of a prophet are given: according to the Pentateuch he is the spokesman of the Lord (Ex. vii. 1). Amos says (iii. 7) 'the Lord doeth nothing without revealing his counsel to his servants the prophets; the Lord God speaks, who can but prophesy?' Such a definition implies that *prediction* of future events was but a small element in the work of the prophet. The prophet was above all things a man of his own present time, raised up to interpret the events of providence, and guide the nation over the coming crisis. No doubt the most effectual guidance that could be given would many times be to open up glimpses of the future. Such glimpses are opened up by all the prophets, every one of whom sketches the history of the kingdom of God to its final perfection. Such an outlook into the future was absolutely necessary, if the people were intelligently to strive after the desired goal. The definition given by Amos suggests that the prophet will arise only when God is about to do some great work. And we find it to be so; it is in great national crises that the prophets appear. Amos and Hosea before the fall of Samaria; Isaiah during the great Assyrian struggle; Jeremiah before the destruction of Jerusalem; and the author of Isaiah xl. *seq.* just before the Restoration. The prophets then interpret the events of providence, and prophecy might almost be called the religious philosophy of history. The spirit of prophecy is not an arbitrary or unaccountable inspiration; it is the spirit of the covenant religion. The prophets are the bearers of the idea of the kingdom of the Lord. This idea is expressed in the two tables of the decalogue.

The history of the Judges shows us that Israel did not exterminate or drive out the native populations, but absorbed them. The consequence was both a corruption of morals and a debasement of the forms of worship, for probably too many in Israel itself stood on a religious level not greatly higher than that of the Canaanites. The higher spirit of the religion thus absorbed a mass of material which it was unable for long to

assimilate. Hence a struggle between the higher religious spirit and the lower elements of life and thought in the nation runs through its whole history. The prophets are the exponents of the higher ideas, which consist in the main of two principles: (1) that Jehovah alone is God of Israel, a practical doctrine which really meant that he was God alone; and (2) that he was a moral and spiritual being, who could be worshipped truly only in spirit. These two principles came into conflict with the tendency to idolatry among the people, and to a union of other deities with Jehovah; and with the sensuousness of their religious conceptions, of which the calf-worship was a result. The prophetic teaching is really little but a teaching regarding the nature of Jehovah, God of Israel; but because he is God of Israel, teaching regarding him reflects immediately back upon the people, who, to be his people, must be like him. Religion with the prophets is the source and the type of morals.

As the prophets are practical teachers for their own time, and have an immediate moral purpose in view, they deal with all the great forces, whether moral or political, of their day. They are statesmen in the Kingdom of God, and the figures that stand in their pages are those that bulked largely in their time, whether at home or abroad. The prophets of the Assyrian age occupy themselves with Assyria, those of the Babylonian age with Babylon. Hence the allusions in any prophecy furnish a criterion for fixing the age to which the author belongs. When, for example, we read in the second half of Isaiah that Cyrus shall let go the captives and rebuild the city of the Lord (xlv. 13), and find exhortations to the people such as this: 'Go ye forth of Babylon, flee ye from the Chaldeans; say ye, The Lord hath redeemed his servant Jacob' (xlvi. 20), the natural inference is, that the author lived during the exile and shortly before the fall of Babylon before Cyrus.

The Jewish division of the Prophets is into the former prophets and the latter prophets. The 'former prophets' are the historical books—Joshua, Judges, Samuel, and Kings. The 'latter prophets' are the prophets properly so called. These again are divided into the greater prophets—Isaiah, Jeremiah, and Ezekiel; and the minor, the twelve smaller books. The historical division is more instructive: (1) prophets of the Assyrian age—Amos, Hosea, Isaiah (740-700), Micah, Nahum, Zephaniah; (2) prophets of the Babylonian age—Habakkuk, Jeremiah (626-580), Ezekiel (593-576); (3) prophets of the Exile and Restoration—Isaiah, xl.-lxvi. (550), Haggai and Zechariah (520), Malachi (420). The age of Joel and Obadiah is uncertain; while Jonah is late.

The Law and Historical Books.—When Moses is spoken of in the Prophets he is called a prophet (Hosea, xii. 13), and similarly in Deuteronomy (xviii. 15; xxxiv. 10). This is in conformity with the larger definition of a prophet as 'one who speaks from God.' The whole development of the religion of Israel implies that the people were not left by their leader without the knowledge of distinct and lofty moral and religious principles. Moses was also of the family which became the priestly caste in Israel, and it is quite improbable that the people were left destitute of instructions regarding the ritual service of their God. At the same time, it is scarcely to be supposed that the mass of minute and highly developed ritual ordinances in the Pentateuch came in their present form from Moses's hand. There has existed for long, and continues, great difference of opinion in regard to the origin of the Pentateuch, or rather Hexateuch, for the Book of Joshua, which contained a history of Israel's fortunes down to their

settlement in Canaan, originally belonged to the work.

Two points deserve notice—first, the analysis of the Pentateuch into its primary elements; and secondly, the relative age of these elements. It was early noticed that there were elements in the Pentateuch posterior to the Mosaic age, as the statement, 'these are the kings that reigned over the land of Edom before there reigned any king over the children of Israel' (Gen. xxxvi. 31). Double narratives also were noticed, as of Creation (Gen. i.-ii. 4, and ii. 5 *seq.*), and of the Flood. Differences of phraseology also characterised the different passages, and upon the whole there appeared one series of passages similar in tone and thought to the prophetic writings, while another betrayed the tone and interests of the priesthood. These general observations had been made when Astruc, a Belgian physician (1753), pointed out that the former class of passages used the name Jehovah, while the latter employed God (Elohim). With this discovery the passage (Ex. vi. 3) seemed to agree, which indicates that the name Jehovah came into special prominence 'at the Exodus. It was therefore assumed that one writer refrained from the use of the name Jehovah till he reached the period of the Exodus, using Elohim, while the other employed Jehovah from the beginning of his history. According to this and other distinctions, Genesis and the Pentateuch fell into two great divisions, called, after the divine names employed, Elohist and Jehovistic sources. It was taken for granted that the division using the name 'God' was primary; it began with Gen. i., and hence was named the fundamental writing. And the next step was the natural assumption that the passages using Jehovah were supplementary, and inserted in the primary document by their author. And thus arose the theory known as the 'Supplement-hypothesis,' which long prevailed. In 1853, however, Hupfeld expressed the opinion that there was a second writing that used 'God,' and that both this writing and that using 'Jehovah' were not supplements to the first writing, but originally independent compositions. This view was generally accepted, but the state of opinion was hardly altered by it. The two smaller documents, though originally independent, had been united together, and in this united condition embodied in the great primary document. This primary document, now called the Priestly Code, consisted roughly of Gen. i.-ii. 4, v. xvii. xxiii. and many other small pieces, Ex. xxv.-xxx. xxxv.-xl., all Leviticus, and great part of Numbers. The rest fell into the other division, and Deuteronomy was an independent work. Thus the analysis gave three great elements in the Pentateuch: the Priestly Code; the element remaining when this is subtracted (usually called JE., i.e. Jeh. + Elo.); and Deuteronomy.

Now arose the question of the relative age of these three great divisions. The assumption hitherto prevailing was that the Priestly Code, beginning at Gen. i., and, along with a brief outline of history, containing the bulk of the ritual legislation, was the most ancient element; the other division was more recent, while the age of Deuteronomy, which was assumed to be in the main identical with the Book of the Law discovered in the temple in the eighteenth year of Josiah (621 B.C.), was approximately determined, being at least somewhat anterior to the time of its discovery. At this stage, however, the criticism of the Pentateuch began to take a new movement. The kind of evidence hitherto relied upon had been in the main linguistic, phraseology and style. Now other matters such as history and comparison of laws with one another were drawn into the question.

The criticism of the Pentateuch rose from being a handling of documents to be a new reading and construction of the religious history of Israel. When the three elements were looked at, it was observed that each contained a legislation set in a bed of history. These legislations were the Priestly Code, the Book of the Covenant (Ex. xx.-xxiii.), and Deuteronomy. The questions were asked, 'How do these legislations stand related to one another? and How do they stand in regard to the known historical practice? in other words, How does the national consciousness, as reflected in history, respond to them and testify to their existence?' The answer was that the presumable progress from simplicity to complexity gave the following order: Book of the Covenant (Ex. xx.-xxiii.), Deuteronomy, Priestly Code; and that to this answer history gave its consenting voice, inasmuch as the historical practice for many centuries reflects the Book of the Covenant, which permitted ritual service of Jehovah at different altars (Ex. xx. 24), while Deuteronomy, enjoining sacrifice at one central altar alone, was immediately elevated into a law of the kingdom and regulated practice henceforth; and the Priestly Code, with the hierarchy as rulers of the people, represents the historical situation after the Restoration, when the people, no more a nation but a social-religious community, was governed by the priestly nobles (Neh. viii.). If the further question be asked, 'What was the moving force in this advance from the Book of the Covenant to Deuteronomy and onwards?' The answer is, 'It was the prophetic teaching.' The prophets indeed were as far as possible from having recourse to law themselves. The only law they knew was the Word of the Lord, which was law because it was his word; and their demand was that men should submit themselves to this law freely, because it was good (Micah, vi. 8). They occupy entirely the Christian standing-point. It was in all probability to them a matter of indifference whether Jehovah was worshipped at one or several altars. The whole matter concerned the kind of worship, and the conception of God which it implied. Amos says, in the name of God, 'Seek me and seek not to Bethel'—the god whom the people worshipped was another than Jehovah. And even when Hosea says that the people 'have multiplied altars to sin,' it is not the many altars that he condemns, but the kind of service, which the more it was practised was the greater sin. The insane revelry at the feasts, and the licentiousness that prevailed, was Baal-worship, not service of Jehovah. Others than the prophets, however, perceived that if the ritual was to be purified and one God served, and the evils which the prophets pronounced removed, the rural altars or high places must be abolished; and thus arose the reforms of Hezekiah and ultimately the more complete enforcement of the Deuteronomic law by Josiah.

Such is a sketch of the prevailing view as to the Pentateuch, and the history of ritual in Israel. The strength of the theory lies in its correspondence with the practice, as we observe it in the historical books, and in the general outline of the religious history which it draws. Its weakness lies in the incapacity which as yet it has shown to deal with many important details, and particularly in the assumption, absolutely necessary to its case, that the ancient historical books have been edited from a Deuteronomic point of view. If the theory be valid, the law as we know it was not the starting-point of Israel's history, but its goal. The prophets did not expound the Law; the Law is a precipitate that formed around the prophetic truths. The prophetic appeals to the people to accept the truths laid before them in the exercise

of their own free will, were in vain; and the truths were embodied in a minute ritual, regulating all the movements of life, and laid as a yoke of bondage on their necks, until the time appointed for their emancipation. The Law reigned from the restoration to the Christian age. Of course, it is an exaggeration of the theory to suppose that the ritual laws were all for the first time written very late; it is reasonable to suppose that they grew up gradually in priestly circles, and were only finally collected and codified at a later period. The great historical work, Judges to Kings, is really one work narrating the fortunes of the people from the settlement in Canaan to the fall of Jerusalem.

The Poetical Books.—Hebrew poetry possesses neither rhyme nor strict measures. Its principle is that of parallelism or sense-rhythm. This balance of two main conceptions gives a corresponding balance to their expression, and makes the lines of Hebrew poetry, though not an exact measure of feet, usually of a similar length. According to the Massoretic view, the Psalms, Job, and Proverbs are the only strictly poetical books in the Bible. The books embraced in the third division, named the Writings, are the expression in the main of two directions of the mind—devotion and religious reflection. To the devotional class belong in general the Psalms; Job, Proverbs, and Ecclesiastes are products of the religious reflecting mind. The Book of Psalms is a collection for purposes of worship of the psalmody of Israel from the earliest times. Our present book is made up of a number of smaller collections, gathered together for the worship in the second temple. Though the collection be late, there is no reason to suppose all or even the greater part of the contents late. It would be as true to say that the Thames rises at London Bridge, as to say that the Psalter dates from post-exile times; but from London Bridge the Thames bears on its bosom the commerce of the world, and from post-exile times the Psalter became the medium for expressing the devotion of the whole community of Israel. How much is implied in this will appear if we call to mind the struggles of the prophets on the one hand, and consider on the other that the Christian church still finds in the Psalter the purest expression of its own praise. The Psalms have many authors, named and anonymous, living at diverse times. It is in general difficult to find certain evidence of authorship for any particular psalm; but there is no reason to doubt that a number, particularly in the first book (Ps. i.-xlii.), and some also in the other books, are from the hand of the Singer of Israel, who gives his name to the collection.

The Book of Proverbs also consists of a number of different collections, and is an anthology of the proverbial wisdom of the people. There are no doubt Solomonic proverbs as there are Davidic psalms, though it may be difficult now to determine with certainty which they are. The 'wise man' had definite conceptions of God already formed, and from God he came down upon the world, seeing God reflecting and realising himself in all that happened in events and human life. The universe and human life as part of it was a moral constitution. It was the embodiment of a divine idea, and all its phenomena the expression of this idea. This divine world plan, from being in the mind of God, seemed to take its place outside of God, and be with God. It was the divine wisdom, architect of the universe, for creation and man's life were but this wisdom realising itself externally. This wisdom, the divine idea in all things, let its voice be heard everywhere, in revelation and the orderly life of mankind alike, calling men to hear it and be wise. And the fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom (Prov. i. viii.).

This high conception of a divine idea and will realising itself in human life and in history was rudely shattered by the misfortunes of the Exile, and the miseries of the righteous servants of the Lord in later times. The discrepancies between the idea of a righteous rule of God, rewarding all according to their works, and actual providence were too glaring. And many mental conflicts were the consequence. The question is asked in Job, 'Why are the righteous afflicted?' The answer is of various kinds. It is, 'Nay, but, O man, who art thou that repliest against God?' On the side of the pious mind it is this: 'Nevertheless I am continually with thee;' or it is that afflictions are a trial of the righteous. And finally it is the rise of a hope of a final blessedness with God beyond death (chap. xix.), although this hope, as yet too feeble to sustain itself and satisfy, is realised even in this life (Epilogue). Ecclesiastes makes an advance in drawing in the evils of life into life itself, making them a discipline and lesson of humility before God.

Canon of the Old Testament.—So long as the living voice of revelation was heard speaking in the prophets and other public servants of their God, the people would less feel the need of any written canon. The priests were the authorised expounders of the ritual, instructing men orally between clean and unclean (Ezek. xlv. 23), and the prophets and wise men were their moral and political guides (Jer. xviii. 18). Writings that existed were greatly read. Prophets not infrequently quote their predecessors (cf. Is. ii. with Micah, iv.; Amos, i. 2 with Joel, iii. 16; Jer. xlviii. with Is. xv., xvi.); prophets of the Exile refer to the former prophets (Zech. vii. 12), and the author of Daniel has the collected prophecies in his hand (Dan. ix. 2). The only authority which such writings had lay in their claim to contain the word of the Lord; they appealed to men's consciences, and, while pious minds would reverence them, others would neglect them. The heads or rulers of the people had not yet made any of them the public law of the nation. The commencement of the formation of an authoritative canon was made when the Book of the Law, found in the temple (621 B.C.), was elevated into a law of the kingdom by Josiah. The whole Law or Pentateuch was raised into canonical authority when, under the editorship of Ezra and the scribes, all its parts were gathered into one collection, and it was publicly read before the people by Ezra (444 B.C.), and received the sanction of the priests and authoritative rulers of the community. It is probable that the prophetic writings were collected together not much later. The prophetic canon must have been closed before the 2d century B.C., otherwise the Book of Daniel would have been received into it. The third division, that of the so-called Writings, must have been kept open longer; it contains writings of the later Persian or even Greek period (Chronicles, Ecclesiastes); and the Book of Daniel, at least in its present shape, belongs to the first half of the 2d century. There are some Psalms too (e.g. xlv. lxxvii. lxxix. lxxxiii.) which seem to reflect the persecutions of the Syro-Greek period, and Calvin was inclined to refer some of them (e.g. Ps. xlv.) to the Maccabean times. The canonicity of certain books, such as Ecclesiastes and the Song of Solomon, continued to be a subject of dispute in the Jewish schools down to the end of the 1st century of our era. The Council of Jamnia (90 A.D.) finally decided that both these books were to be included in the Writings. It is probable from the lists of Josephus that these books stood in the collection, the point in dispute being whether they had been rightly received into it. It is a curious coincidence that neither of

these books is quoted in the New Testament. The Hebrew canon contained none of the books now known as the Apocrypha. A number of such books, originally written in Hebrew, were translated into Greek, and along with others, such as the Wisdom of Solomon, written in that language, were received into the Septuagint or Greek translation of the Bible. From there they passed into the old Latin version, which was a translation from the Septuagint, and became familiar to the West. When Jerome translated the Old Testament into Latin from the Hebrew (390-405 A.D.), he did not include the apocryphal books in his version. He regarded them as a subordinate class of writings which he called ecclesiastical, useful to be read, but not authoritative. They continued to maintain their place, however, in the Latin Vulgate, the Bible of the West, and were ultimately canonised for the Church of Rome, with certain exceptions, by the Council of Trent. Among the Protestant churches some, such as the Church of England, adhere to the view of Jerome, considering the apocryphal books useful for moral instruction, but not of authority to establish or sustain the faith of the Church; while other churches have entirely rejected them and reverted to the pure Hebrew canon. See APOCRYPHA.

Text of the Old Testament.—The Hebrew text was originally purely consonantal. Of course, words of which the consonants only were written could not be read without supplying vowel-sounds to them; but as yet there were no *signs* for the vowel-sounds. The correct reading of the text was a tradition handed down in the schools. Neither Jerome nor the Talmud (middle of 5th century) knows of any signs for the vowels. The consonantal text was fixed, much as it still remains, before the end of the 2d century; the marks for the vowels and other signs date from the 6th century downwards. Those who occupied themselves with the reading and preservation of the text were called Massorites or Traditionists, and the complete vocalised and punctuated Hebrew text as now printed is named the Massoretic text.

The opinion that at all times the utmost scrupulousness was exercised in regard to the text, and that owing to this care our present Massoretic text may be entirely relied upon, is only partially true. It is true from the time that the consonantal text was fixed—viz. the 2d century of our era; but previous to that time the text of the Old Testament books was subject to all the vicissitudes and dangers to which manuscripts are liable. A comparison—e.g. of Ps. xviii. in the Psalter with the same as found in 2 Sam. xxii.—reveals a multitude of divergences, unimportant no doubt, of the one text from the other. The Massoretic text has to be purified by the same means as are used to gain a pure text of the New Testament. These means are of two kinds, manuscripts and versions. When the existing Hebrew manuscripts, however, are examined, it is found that they are all copies of *one* manuscript, which at some early period, under what circumstances is unknown, had been elevated into a standard, and this standard existing, all manuscripts differing from it gradually fell into desuetude and perished. All existing manuscripts are virtually alike, differing from one another in trivial particulars, chiefly in what is called the plenary or defective writing (i.e. as if in English one manuscript spelled 'honour', while another read 'honor'); and in the divine names, one manuscript having 'God' where another has 'the Lord.' A comparison of Hebrew manuscripts, therefore, offers almost no contribution to the criticism of the text. Neither are the versions of such use as might have been expected. These versions are the Septuagint, the Syriac, the Targum or Chaldee, and the Latin Vul-

gate; others are late or secondary, being versions from the Greek or Syriac. When the three last-mentioned versions are examined, they are found to be translations of a text virtually identical with our present Massoretic; no doubt all of them, even the Vulgate, the latest, exhibit occasional deviations not without importance; but on the whole they reproduce the Hebrew known to us. And the same is true of the minor Greek versions—now existing only in fragments—of Aquila, Symmachus, and Theodotian.

All these versions belong to the same family with our present Hebrew text. The Targum is valuable as a purely Jewish version. The Syriac must be used with caution, because at some time or other it has been accommodated to the Septuagint. In the great majority of cases where Jerome differs from the current Hebrew he agrees with the Septuagint, by which he may occasionally have been influenced; in a certain number of cases he agrees with the Syriac against the Septuagint, and in some instances his manuscript exhibited readings otherwise unknown. There remains only the Septuagint. This version was gradually produced from the 3d century B.C. downwards. It was executed by different men at different times, and the complexion of the translation varies greatly. It comes, however, several centuries nearer the autographs of the Old Testament writers than we can be sure that the Hebrew does. The Septuagint is of no use except in so far as it can be retranslated back into Hebrew, so as to give us the presumable Hebrew text that lay before the translators. We should then have another Hebrew manuscript to compare with our present Hebrew. The difficulties of reading such a manuscript are enormous. For, first of all, the present text of the Septuagint is in a state of great confusion, and the true Septuagint text is hard to reach. Then, even if it were ascertained, account must be taken of the capacities and procedure of the translator, his faithfulness or otherwise, his ignorance, his arbitrariness, and much else. Then the work of retranslating back into Hebrew requires much skill and experience. And, finally, the Hebrew manuscript being gained, it ranks at best as a manuscript, and its value over against our present Hebrew has to be estimated according to just critical principles. The value of the Septuagint in the textual criticism of the Old Testament is undoubtedly very great, though few scholars have shown perfect aptitude in using it, and, upon the whole, there is a tendency to exaggerate its importance. Besides a number of occasional emendations of the Hebrew which have been based upon it, several more formal attempts to construct the text of entire Old Testament books, mainly after the Septuagint, have been made—e.g. the Proverbs by Lagarde, the Books of Samuel by Wellhausen, and Ezekiel by Cornill. All these attempts are marked by more or less exaggeration of the worth of the Septuagint.

Printed texts of the Old Testament were first issued by the Jews of Italy; the Psalter in 1475; the first complete Bible at Soncino, 1488; Brescia, 1494. The famous printer, Daniel Bomberg of Antwerp, established a press at Venice, whence issued his first edition (1517), edited by Felix Pratensis. Bomberg's second edition (1525-26), edited by Rabbi Jacob-Ben-Chayim, was the first to contain the Massorah, with a text revised after the Massorah. This edition speedily attained a great reputation, and became the basis of most others. The *Complutensium Polyglot* (Alcala, 1517) was prepared at the expense of Cardinal Ximenes. Van der Hooght's edition is well known (Amsterdam and Utrecht, 1705). Editions with various readings from manuscripts are those of Kennicott (Oxford, 1776), De Rossi (Parma, 1784), J. H. Michaelis (Halle, 1720), Norzi (Mantua, 1742). Editions of a number of Old

Testament books corrected according to the Mas-sorah have been issued by S. Baer—Genesis, Isaiah, Minor Prophets, Ezekiel, Job, Psalms, Proverbs, Ezra, Nehemiah, Daniel, and the five Megilloth (Ruth, Song, Esther, Lamentations, Ecclesiastes), while others are promised.

NEW TESTAMENT.—*Connection of Old and New Testament.*—The Old Testament canon can hardly have been closed before the middle of the 2d century B.C. Many books extant at the time were not included—e.g. Ecclesiasticus. The literary activity of the people continued with no intermission. The apocryphal literature may be divided into four classes, not always very distinctly defined: (1) Historical writings, as 1st Book of Maccabees; (2) hortatory narratives—e.g. Judith, Tobit; (3) poetical compositions—e.g. Wisdom of Sirach (Ecclesiasticus), Psalter of Solomon; and (4) prophetic writings in imitation of the Book of Daniel—e.g. Book of Enoch, Apocalypse of Baruch, 4th Book of Ezra. These pseudopigraphic prophecies (i.e. bearing the names of others than their real authors) owe their origin to the hard conditions of the life of the people, and on the other hand to an undying faith, rendered more intense by persecution and present afflictions, in the future of the nation. The object which their authors have in view is to confirm the people's steadfastness, and quicken their hope and faith in their ultimate triumph over the heathen. It is only this last class of writings that lie in the line of development towards the New Testament; the others, except some parts of the Psalter of Solomon, follow the line of Pharisaic Judaism. The Christology of Enoch is very developed, though some doubt whether the most Christological part (chap. xxxvii.-lxxi.) has not suffered from Christian interpolation. The term 'Son of Man,' used of the Messiah, may be due to the Book of Daniel (chap. vii. 13) rightly or wrongly interpreted, and the fact that this is not a distinctive Jewish name for the Messiah has little weight, inasmuch as writings of this class emanated more from the popular mind, and were repudiated by learned Judaism. The Psalter of Solomon (middle of 1st century B.C.) expresses the confident expectation of a king of the House of David, who shall lead Israel to the promised glory (Ps. xvii. 1, 5, 23-51; xviii. 6-10, and elsewhere).

There can be no doubt that under the teaching of providence, the Messianic hope, particularly in regard to the person of the Messiah, became, before the Christian era, much more definite and full. This appears abundantly from the New Testament. The dimensions of this hope, however, among the Jews at the beginning of our era may very readily be overstated. It is doubtful, for instance, if there was any idea of a suffering Messiah. Again, it is certain that among Jews outside of Christianity, a great Messianic development took place in the 1st century A.D. This may have been due to Christian influence and intercourse before the final schism between Judaism and Christianity. And thirdly, it is certain that the Christology of the New Testament was largely due to the teaching of Christ and reflection on his life, particularly the conception of the exclusively spiritual nature of his aims and his kingdom. These points exclude that construction of the New Testament literature proposed by Strauss (q.v.). Strauss's two presuppositions were: (1) The supernatural element in the Gospels, being impossible, shows that the narratives arose long after the life of Jesus—they are mythical; (2) the *ideas* which have been clothed in history, and have produced the myths, were the popular Messianic ideas of the time. The theory falls with the falsehood of the last assumption. No such developed circle of Messianic ideas can be shown to have existed before Christ.

Another attempt to construct the history of New Testament literature on *a priori* principles, or at least on certain general presuppositions, was made by the Tübingen school. Baur (q.v.) started with the assumption (derived partly from the Epistles to the Corinthians) that the earliest stage of Christianity was characterised by a strong antagonism between Jewish Christianity, represented by the older apostles, which enforced the law on all converts, and a free Christianity represented by Paul. The history of this struggle, the efforts at reconciliation, and the final union in a catholic Christianity, is the history of the Church for two centuries; and the New Testament literature stands like milestones along the road, marking the steps of progress towards catholic union. Baur divided the history into three periods: (1) The period of acute antagonism, represented on the one side by the genuine Pauline epistles (Gal., 1 and 2 Cor., Rom.), and on the other by the Apocalypse (up to 70 A.D.). (2) The middle period, marked by a tendency on both sides to approach one another, the overtures being made first by the Jewish party, who dropped circumcision, and responded to in the later (Pauline) epistles—e.g. Ephesians and Colossians. To this period (70-140 A.D.) belong most of the New Testament literature, the synoptic gospels, Acts, and Hebrews. (3) The period of the consummation of the union (after 140), practically in Rome and the West, and ideally in the Gospel of John, which signalises the victory in thought over the antithesis. The extreme points of Baur's theory have been greatly softened by those who may still in some sense be called his followers.

Rise of a New Testament Literature.—*The Epistles.*—Our Lord left behind him no writing. The tradition of a correspondence with Abgarus, king of Edessa, is fabulous. His gospel was his manifestation on earth, the higher spirit which he breathed into the forms of the old religion, and his life and death. Neither was the gospel propagated by his followers by means of writing; they went everywhere 'preaching' the word. The substance of their preaching was the events of Christ's life and death, his ascension and coming again, with their redemptive meaning—these events with their meaning always supported by the Old Testament Scriptures. When, however, especially through the missionary journeys of Paul, a multitude of believing communities arose scattered over the Roman world, many occasions occurred when apostolic counsel was needed, which could only be given by letter. Hence arose the epistles, which are all of the nature of occasional writings. At the same time advantage was taken of the occasion not only to give advice, but to develop the general principles on which it rested. The epistles of Paul fall in the main between 53 and 63 A.D. Besides other reasons, the Epistles to the Thessalonians were occasioned by a mistaken view of the nearness of the Advent. This idea paralysed human occupations, and agitated men's minds about the state of the dead. The Epistle to the Galatians (55) was written to frustrate an attempt of the Judaisers to impose the law upon this Gentile community. The attempt gave the apostle an opportunity of developing his whole doctrine of grace and justification by faith, the principles of which he had already sketched at Antioch (Gal. ii. 14). The Epistles to the Corinthians owe their origin to the rise of parties in the Church attaching themselves to particular teachers (chap. iii.), to the many practical questions which arose among a community in daily relations with heathen friends outside, and partly also, as was natural on Greek soil, to speculative questions, as about the resurrection (1 Cor. xv.); while the occasion of the Epistle to the Romans was the apostle's projected visit to Italy and the

capital, and to Spain. This epistle has more of the nature of a treatise than any of the others, and is a systematic statement of the apostle's gospel, in view of all the questions which the gospel as he preached it raised, particularly in view of the old economy. Hence as he develops his system he has respect to Judaism at every step. The Jews called all others 'sinners of the Gentiles,' and, when the apostle declares that all alike are concluded under sin, he has to face the question, 'What advantage then hath the Jew?' (chap. iii.) Again, when in the process of his argument he says, 'there is no difference, being freely justified by His grace,' he feels he has to answer the question, 'Whereunto then serveth the law?' (chap. vi.-vii.) And finally the unbelief of the Jew has to be accounted for, which the apostle does by a profound theodicy of the economies, or justification of the ways of God to men; drawing up even this unbelief into the general purpose of God in manifestation of his grace, who 'concluded all in unbelief that he might have mercy upon all' (chap. ix.-xi.).

The type of doctrine in all these epistles is the same. The Christology is a doctrine of atonement by the Son of God, pursued somewhat into the region of Christ's present exalted state. It seems in this state that he is the new man, the head of the new spiritual humanity. The rise of a theosophic heresy at Colosse gave the apostle an opportunity of developing his Christology on another side; the side of Christ's relation before incarnation to the universe and the higher spiritual world, which the Colossians were tempted to worship—'In him all things consist; ye are complete in him, the head of all principality and power.' The Ephesians can scarcely be independent of Colossians; while Philippians, which has most of an epistolary character, belongs to the Roman imprisonment. The pastoral epistles (1 and 2 Tim., Titus) contain, as the name suggests, instructions regarding the offices of the Church, and the character of those who should fill them. These, with the small personal note to Philemon, exhaust the Pauline writings, for Hebrews bears every mark of a different authorship. That epistle was probably written (before 70 A.D.) from Italy (xiii. 24), to some community of Greek Jewish believers, by one himself a Hellenist, who, though he reaches the same conclusion as Paul that the law and the customs have been abolished in Christ, reaches it by a different road, and in a way less liable to wound the susceptibilities of Judaism. Tertullian names Barnabas as the author; Luther suggested Apollos, a view to which many adhere; while others have thought of Luke or Silvanus.

The so-called catholic epistles (1 and 2 Peter, James, Jude) form, along with Hebrews, the contribution which Jewish Christianity made to New Testament epistolary literature. First Peter is addressed to the small Jewish communities of believers scattered throughout Asia Minor, and is designed to sustain them under their sufferings 'as Christians' (iv. 16). James addresses the same class of persons over even a wider area, while Jude has in view some more particular community, whom he warns against a class of persons who do not seem to have been heretics, but libertines not only in practice but in theory, men who turned the grace of God into licentiousness. Second Peter contemplates a similar class of persons, and undoubtedly depends upon Jude. Both James and Jude were brothers of the Lord and not apostles, having become disciples probably only after his death.

Rise of an Historical Literature.—The Gospels.—Acts.—The problem of the origin of the gospels and their relation to one another is very complicated, and many solutions have been offered. (1) It is natural to suppose that by the continuous

intercourse of the disciples with one another, and by conversation on the life and teaching of the Lord, the recollection of one supplementing that of another, as well as by their everyday preaching, the tradition of Christ's life and sayings would gradually assume a certain fixed form with definite outlines. (2) It is equally natural to suppose that in the lapse of years, when changes began to arise, this tradition would be reduced to writing. This supposition is confirmed by the statement of Papias that Matthew wrote down the 'sayings' of the Lord in Hebrew—i.e. in the vernacular Aramean, and every one translated them as he could. The 'sayings' would mainly be the parables and discourses, not chronologically arranged, but grouped together, though probably not without such brief historical hints as to time and locality as were needful to make them intelligible. (3) Considering the increasing relations of the Church at Jerusalem with the outside world, the translation of this collection of sayings into Greek would speedily follow. Such a primitive gospel in Greek, the language in which our gospels are written, is absolutely necessary to explain the coincidences in phraseology with one another which the gospels exhibit. This primitive Greek work lies at the basis of the three synoptic gospels. It has been used by the three with an eclecticism due partly to the idiosyncrasies and partly to the aims of the writers. In each case, however, the 'sayings' have been supplemented from other sources. In the case of Mark, this additional source may have been the personal reminiscences of Peter, according to the ancient tradition of the Church. In the case of Luke, whose gospel professes to repose on formal investigations (i. 3), it is possible that besides the 'sayings' some one of the other two gospels may have been used, while his history of the Nativity, with the accompanying hymns, seems drawn from some written source. It is probable that Matthew preserves the book of sayings with most exactness. The date of Mark is before the fall of Jerusalem (70 A.D.), that of the others perhaps somewhat later. The Gospel of John, dating from near the end of the century, is entirely independent and personal, and possesses more of a subjective character than the others. It is a free reproduction of the life and teaching of Christ, as these had been taken up by a highly ideal and profoundly ethical mind, and combined with its own modes of thought. Hence the sayings and works of Christ are not presented historically and from the outside, but set forth as embodiments and manifestations of certain ideal conceptions, as the 'word,' the 'life,' the 'light,' and others. The gospel contains a good deal omitted by the others, and everywhere bears marks of having been written by an eye-witness. (For the question of the authenticity of this gospel, see JOHN.) The first epistle of John is undoubtedly by the writer of the gospel. The Acts of the Apostles is from the pen of Luke, the author of the third gospel (chap. i. 1). It is probable, from the use of 'we,' that he was an eye-witness of the events narrated in the latter part of the book; for the earlier part of the history he drew on other sources, oral or written. The general purpose of the Acts is to trace the progress of the Kingdom of God from Jerusalem till it overtook the world—from Jerusalem to Antioch; from Antioch to Asia Minor and Eastern Europe; and from there to Rome, the capital, and the world. The book breaks off abruptly with the statement that Paul continued two years in his own hired house, preaching and receiving all that came to him. His subsequent history is left in obscurity. There seems no point in the narrative at which the pastoral epistles can be placed, and hence the hypothesis

of a liberation and 'second imprisonment' of the apostle.

New Testament Prophecy.—The class of 'prophe-
phets' are frequently referred to in the New Testa-
ment. There are elements of prophecy in Christ's
eschatological discourse (Matt. xxiv.), and also in
Paul's Epistles to the Thessalonians, and even in
Romans, xi. The only formal book of prophecy is
the Revelation of John. It consists of two parts,
the epistles to the Seven Churches (chap. i.-iii.),
and the Book of Prophecy (chap. iv.-xxii.). The
Book of Prophecy (i. 3; xxii. 10) is identical with the
book seen on the Father's right hand, the seals of
which were opened by the Lamb (chap. v.); this it
is which is sent to all the churches. The epistles
are accompanying notes to the several churches,
containing appropriate exhortations to each in view
of the things revealed in the prophecy. Antiquity
is nearly unanimous in ascribing the Revelation to
the Apostle John. Dionysius of Alexandria, on
account of the style, suggested that it might be by
another John, the presbyter, mentioned by Papias,
a view which has many modern adherents. The
style is much more Hebraistic than that of the
gospel. It is not, however, the mere language that
distinguishes it from the gospel, but the whole type
of thought. Like the Hebrew prophecies, the
Revelation is external and theurgical, the gospel
inward and ethical. In the one the perfect King-
dom of God is introduced, and the destruction of
evil accomplished by a direct interposition of God
amidst terrible material convulsions; in the other
the Kingdom of God is translated into the mind of
man, of which it is an ethical condition. If both
writings be by the same author, the Revelation
must not only be prior, but have preceded the other
by a long period of years. The date of composition
(if the book be a unity) seems fixed by internal
evidence. Chapter xi. must have been written
before the fall of Jerusalem; and more precisely
the author wrote under the sixth head or emper-
or (xvii. 10)—i.e. either Galba or Vespasian.
When Irenæus says that the Revelation was
written under Domitian, he is probably confound-
ing a tradition that the Beast was interpreted of
this emperor, with the composition in his reign.
(For questions of date and authorship, see REVELA-
TION.)

The Canon of the New Testament.—*The Gospel
Canon.*—In point of origin, the epistles preceded the
gospels; the canon arose in the inverse order. The
preaching of the apostles had strictly no independ-
ence of its own; they merely carried the glad
tidings regarding Christ to men, and were witnesses
of his resurrection. And their writings (the
epistles) were merely the supplement of their oral
preaching as circumstances arose; the two, in the
minds of their converts, stood on the same level.
They naturally desired their epistles to be read
before all the brethren of the church to which they
were sent (1 Thess. v. 27), or sometimes to be ex-
changed with others sent to a neighbouring church
(Col. iv. 16); but these epistles as yet remained
the peculiar possession of the church for which they
were destined. The canon of New Testament
believers was as yet, (1) the Old Testament,
which was read in the churches on the Lord's Day,
and to which the apostles themselves made con-
tinual appeal as the 'Scripture'; and (2) the words
or commands of Christ, which are placed on a level
with the Old Testament prophets (2 Peter, iii. 2;
Rev. i. 2). And this continued to be the mode of
thought and expression till the middle of the 2d cen-
tury, as writers of that time express themselves, 'the
Law, the Prophets, and the Lord.' The source from
which the Lord's words were known was either oral
tradition and testimony, which Papias confesses he
prefers to writings, or the written gospels, naturally

chiefly the synoptics, and among these prominently
Matthew. All the gospels, however, including
John, are already known to the Apostolic Fathers
(70-130). The writings of this time are scanty,
and their authors had little reason to make direct
appeal to the New Testament writings; they
betray their acquaintance with them by employing
their phraseology, and by allusion, and as there
was still a living tradition, their quotations are
free. As time wore on, however, and the living
memory of the Lord's words died out, the practice
arose of reading the gospels along with the Old
Testament on the Lord's Day. Justin (died 146)
already testifies to this practice, although he him-
self seems still to distinguish between the gospels
as writings, and the Lord's words contained in them.
This reading of the gospels naturally led to their
being placed on a level with the 'Scripture,' and
the formation of a gospel canon. This was really
no new step; circumstances and the losses through
time merely brought home to the consciousness of
the Church what it possessed in the evangelical
writings. The four-fold gospel canon is so firmly
fixed by the last quarter of the century, that
Irenæus is found carrying on an argument to show
how there should be just *four* gospels and no more;
and in the East, about the same time, there is
evidence of a similar collection of the four.

The Epistolar Canon.—The Apostolic Fathers,
by allusions and quotations, betray acquaintance
with most of the epistles. The allusions to 1 and
2 Thessalonians, Colossians, and Philemon are
less distinct, though Ignatius and Polycarp seem
to show acquaintance with Thessalonians. The
pastoral epistles are well known. No knowledge
appears of Jude, 2 Peter, or 2 and 3 John. The
epistles, however, are not quoted as authoritative.
Clement (96) refers the Corinthians to 1 Corin-
thians, an epistle directed to themselves; and
Ignatius and Polycarp, writing to the Ephesians,
refer to their epistle. Clement quotes largely from
the Hebrews, and Papias knows the Apocalypse,
which Justin ascribes to John. The epistles had
been directed to various churches, each of which
cherished and used its own; perhaps few, if any,
of the churches possessed a complete collection, for
no necessity had yet arisen for making such a
collection. The Church was in possession of the
faith as a living belief; against those without, this
belief did not need support, and no contradiction of
it of magnitude had yet arisen within. It required
the rise of an internal antithesis, a conflict within
the Church, to direct her attention formally to the
treasure which she possessed in the apostolic
writings, and to bring to her own consciousness what
all along had been implied in her acceptance of the
apostolic preaching and writings, and her faith in
them. This needful conflict was found in the rise
of dangerous error, especially the Gnostic heresy.
This heresy came into collision with the living
faith of the Church, and the faith had not only to
protest that it was being violated, but to show that
it was. This could only be done by showing that
the present living faith continued truly to reflect
the apostolic preaching; and no means of showing
this existed except to show that it continued in
harmony with the apostolic writings. This very
appeal to the apostolic writings was a canonising
of them; and their formal collection and recog-
nition naturally followed. This was again no
new step; circumstances merely brought home to
the mind of the Church what had always been
implied in acceptance of the apostolic preaching
and letters. Her latent faith now became formal
and conscious; and thus arose a *principle* of
canonicity. The Church could not but ask why
she had accepted the teaching of the apostles;
and the answer was, 'Because they were apostles

commissioned and endowed to teach.' This single principle, however, was difficult to carry through, inasmuch as several of the New Testament writings were not by apostles, as the Acts, Hebrews, and others. And in modern times the Church has felt the same difficulty in finding a single principle to guide it in forming its canon.

Two important witnesses exist for the canon toward the close of the 2d century—the list edited by Muratori (q.v.) for the West, and the Syriac translation of the New Testament for the East. The Muratorian fragment (170 A.D.) counts four Gospels, Acts, thirteen Pauline epistles (excluding Hebrews), 1 John, then Jude; 2 and 3 John are reckoned among catholic epistles. The Apocalypse is included, and it is possible that 1 Peter was referred to in connection with Mark, though the passage is lost. The Syriac translation includes four Gospels, Acts, fourteen Pauline epistles (Hebrews being of the number), 1 John, 1 Peter, James; while Jude, 2 Peter, 2 and 3 John, and Apocalypse are omitted. Both canons fail to include 2 Peter, and the West rejects Hebrews, while the East does not admit the Apocalypse. The writings of Eusebius show that this continued to be the state of matters in the 4th century. He mentions the books which, though known, were disputed i.e. James, Jude, 2 Peter, 2 and 3 John. He himself does not favour the Apocalypse, but it is to be admitted by those who believe it to be by an apostle. Intercourse between East and West tended to form a canon common to the two; in particular, the scruples of the West as to Hebrews were overcome, as Augustine confesses, by the practice of the East. Finally, the Council of Carthage (397) sanctioned for the West our present collection. It need hardly be said that modern doubts have been extended over a much wider area, including particularly the writings of John, the Acts, and the pastoral epistles.

The Text of the New Testament.—The history of the New Testament text is really a history of the printed editions. The first printed text was that in the *Complutensian Polyglot*, published under the auspices of Cardinal Ximenes. The New Testament was printed in 1514, but not published till 1522. The delay in publication enabled the printer, Frober of Basel, to forestall the issue with an edition hastily prepared by Erasmus from recent manuscripts (1516). Erasmus superintended four editions; the second (1519) was used by Luther in his translation. Frequent editions followed, especially from the press of Stephens at Paris (1546, 1549, 1550), and afterwards at Geneva (1551). In this last edition first appeared our present system of division into verses; that into chapters was already applied in the 15th century to the copies of the Greek New Testament. The text of the Old Testament was early divided into verses by the Rabbins; the division into chapters was first printed in Bomberg's 1525 edition. Beza issued a number of editions, that of 1598 being the basis of the English authorised version of 1611. The brothers Elzevir of Leyden issued their first edition in 1624, and another in 1633. In the preface to the last the words occur: *Textum ergo habes nunc ab omnibus receptum*, which suggested the designation *textus receptus*. These editions had made but scanty use of critical materials. Such materials are mainly of three kinds: (1) Manuscripts, especially the more ancient; (2) ancient translations; and (3) citations in ancient ecclesiastical writers. The principal editions based on these witnesses are those of the following scholars. John Mill (Oxford, 1707) is said to have shown 30,000 variations of reading in the sources used. Wetstein comes next (Amsterdam, 1751). Bengel (Tübingen, 1734) made the important step of attempting to classify the manuscripts into 'families,'

influenced possibly by suggestions made by Bentley. Griesbach (Halle, 1774 *et seq.*; 2d edition, 1796) carried the classification of manuscripts much further than Bengel had done. Lachmann started with the principle of giving, not the original text, but the oldest attainable, that of the 4th century, the age of Jerome (1st ed. 1831; new ed. with testimonies, 1842). Tischendorf gave us a much approved text (1st ed. 1841; 8th ed. 1872); prolegomena by Gregory (1884). Tregelles completed his edition in 1872. The work of Westcott and Hort (London, 1881), the fruit of twenty years' study of the witnesses, their relationships and genealogies, presents the following classification of the materials: (1) A neutral text: i.e. a text still free from the characteristics of the Western and Alexandrian. This text is most perfectly exhibited in the Vatican manuscript (B), less perfectly in the Sinaitic, and is to be held nearest the original form, and probably is the purer Alexandrian text. (2) Western text, early brought to Rome from North-west Syria, and from there widely diffused, especially in the West. This is the prevailing ante-Nicene text. Its characteristics are—a love of paraphrase, a disposition to enrich the text with additions from traditional sources, and a fondness for assimilation and harmonising. It is represented in the Old Latin and Old Syrian versions, and in Fathers over a wide area (exclusive of Alexandria), as Justin, Irenaeus, Hippolytus, Methodius, and Eusebius. (3) A non-Western pre-Syrian text, which may be called Alexandrian. In this text, the neutral text (1), not later than 200, had been subjected to changes which had more to do with language than matter, and are marked by an effort after correctness of phrase. It is represented in Alexandrian Fathers, Origen, Cyril, and in the version of Lower Egypt. (4) Syrian text: the peculiarities of the other texts arose gradually, and, as it were, unconsciously in course of transcription; the Syrian text is strictly a recension or edition made consciously by scholars. It is probably the result of two efforts between 250 and 350 at Antioch to form a lucid inoffensive text. It is 'conflate,' being constructed out of the other texts mentioned above. Critically, therefore, it is without value, as its sources are otherwise known. As Antioch was the mother of Constantinople, this text prevailed at Constantinople from the time of Chrysostom. From there it spread westwards, and from various causes became the predominant text. It lies at the basis of most later versions, of the early printed editions, and of a vast number of manuscripts, particularly of the Cursives.

Versions.—The ancient versions of the Old Testament from the original text are: the Septuagint, Syriac, Targum or Chaldee, and the Latin (Vulgate). Other ancient versions, such as Ethiopic and Arabic, are mainly daughter versions of the Septuagint or Syriac. The ancient versions from the Greek of the New Testament are more numerous:

1. *Syriac.*—(a) The authorised Syriac is the Peshito (simple), supposed to be of the end of the 2d or of the 3d century. This version has undergone revision, and must be used with caution in criticism of the text. The books 2 Peter, 2 and 3 John, Jude, and Revelation were not contained in it. First ed. (Vienna, 1555) by Widmanstadt; later editions—Schaaf (1717), with valuable lexicon; Lee (1823); and a beautiful print in Nestorian type and vocalisation by the American mission at Urmiah. (b) Fragments of a version of the Gospels were edited by Cureton (Lond. 1858), from MSS. brought from Egypt. This version is considered by most scholars earlier than the Peshito. (c) Philoxenus, Monophysite bishop of Hierapolis, had a very literal

version made from the Greek in the interests of his party about 508. This version survives only in a later recension by a monk, Thomas of Haraclaea, hence called the *Harechian* (616), edited by J. White (Oxford, 1778 1803). In addition to these a lectionary of the Gospels was published, text, translation, and glossary, by Count Miniscalchi Erizzo (Verona, 1861). The language of this Jerusalem Evangelary is debased, approaching that of the Jerusalem Talmud.

2. *Latin Versions*.—(a) The old Latin, in the Old Testament, from the Septuagint. It is usually held that this version originated in North Africa, while others contend for Italy. The date is the 2d century. (b) The Vulgate: the text of the old Latin had become so confused in the 4th century that Augustine complained that the recensions were as numerous as the copies. At the solicitation of Pope Damasus, Jerome undertook, when in Rome, a revision of the New Testament. The Gospels were completed about 383, and the whole New Testament soon after. This revision of the old Latin is the present text of the Vulgate. About the same time Jerome revised the Psalter. This 'Roman Psalter' is still used in St Peter's. After going to Palestine (385) he revised the Psalter anew, comparing the Hebrew. This so-called 'Gallican Psalter' is the present Psalter in the Vulgate, and that from which the Prayer-book version was made. Jerome's translation of the Psalter directly from the Hebrew was never received into the Vulgate; it has been recently edited by Lagarde. His translation of the Old Testament from the Hebrew occupied him fifteen years (390-405).

3. *Egyptian Versions*.—(a) The Sahidic, Upper Egyptian, existing only in fragments. (b) The Memphitic, Lower Egyptian or Coptic. Editions: Wilkins (Oxford, 1716); Tattam (1852); Acts and Epistles—Lagarde (1851). Fragments of other versions have been discovered. The date of the Egyptian versions is probably 3d to 4th century.

4. *The Ethiopic* (the Ge'ez, or ancient language of Abyssinia) of the Old Testament is from the Septuagint, that of the New from the Greek. The translation is probably of the 4th century, edited by T. Pell Platt (Camb. 1826 30); the Hexateuch, Dillmann.

5. In addition to these may be mentioned the Gothic by Ulphilas (died 383), the Armenian (440), various Arabic versions, and the Slavonic, 9th century.

English Translations.—In modern times versions have appeared in all spoken languages. Partial translations and paraphrases into Anglo-Saxon are still extant. The first complete version in English was that of Wyclif about 1382, from the Vulgate (Forshall and Madden, *Wyclif's Bible*). Of this, however, the gospels alone can be certainly identified as the work of Wyclif himself, and this portion was done as early as 1360. The Old Testament and apocryphal books were translated principally by Nicolas de Hereford. A later complete version of it was finished by Wyclif's friend, John Purvey, about 1388. Printing was introduced into England by Caxton in 1477, and translations and summaries of parts of Scripture appeared in various works from his press. The New Testament of William Tyndale was issued at Worms (1525); later editions (1534-35). Tyndale also translated the Pentateuch, and some other parts of the Bible. The first complete English Bible was that of Miles Coverdale (1535). Coverdale's Bible is based upon the Swiss-German version (Zurich, 1524-29), with the use of Luther, the Vulgate, and Tyndale. Matthew's Bible (1537) is composite: the New Testament is Tyndale's 1535, the Pentateuch is also Tyndale, while of the rest,

part is Coverdale, and part probably from Tyndale's MSS. The so-called Great Bible, a revision of Matthew's, was undertaken under the auspices of Cromwell, Earl of Essex; the printing, being interrupted in Paris, was completed in London (1539). In 1557 the English exiles who had found refuge in Geneva during the reign of Mary, produced a version of the New Testament, with preface by Calvin, and in 1560 the whole Bible. This is known as the Geneva Bible, sometimes popularly as the 'Breeches Bible,' from the rendering, Gen. iii. 7. The version was provided with many notes, which made it a favourite with the common people (1st Eng. ed. 1576). Meantime a new version had been in preparation under the influence of Archbishop Parker. Separate portions were allotted to different scholars, chiefly of the Episcopal Church, and the whole was then revised by Parker and other learned divines. This version (1568) goes by the name of the Bishops' Bible, vulgarly the 'Treacle Bible,' from the rendering, Jer. viii. 22, 'Is there no tryacle in Giliad?' In 1582 a New Testament was issued by the English Catholic College at Rheims, and the Old Testament in 1609 at Douai. In 1604 James appointed a conference at Hampton Court for determining of things said to be 'amiss in the church.' The suggestion of a new translation, made by Rainolds, was taken up by the king, and six committees were appointed to execute the work. Two of these sat at Westminster, two at Cambridge, and two at Oxford, their work being revised by a general committee. The version appeared in 1611. Finally, the latest revision was due to the suggestion of the convocation of Canterbury. Two companies of translators were appointed, one for the Old Testament, and the other for the New. They began to sit at Westminster in 1870; the New Testament was issued in 1881, and the Old in 1885. After the work had begun, a number of American scholars were added to the Revision Company, and all points of ultimate difference of opinion between the English and American revisers were appended to the versions issued. The monopoly of printing the authorised version of the Bible belongs to the crown, by whom it is granted to certain patentees. See BOOK-TRADE. See H. Stevens, *The Bibles in the Carlton Exhibition, 1450-1877* (1878). The Welsh, Irish, and Gaelic translations will be noted in the articles on the Welsh, Irish, and Gaelic languages.

German and other Translations.—Early in the middle ages translations of portions of the Bible were rendered into many of the western languages, but these were mostly explanatory paraphrases or versions of the Bible narratives in metre rather than translations proper. The Anglo-Saxon paraphrase of Cedmon was a century earlier than Otfrid's *Krist*, a rhymed harmony of the gospels in High German, and the *Heliand* in Low Saxon alliterative verse. The Abbot of St Gall's version of the Psalms (980) and the gospel harmony of 'Tatian,' from the Latin of Victor of Capua, follow next; and to these succeed numerous German versions of the histories and other books. Complete German versions from the Vulgate existed as early as the first half of the 14th century. It is claimed that there were no fewer than seventeen such versions prior to Luther's, and of these five were previous to 1477. Already in the end of the 12th century Provençal translations were in the hands of the Albigenses, and the demand for the Bible in the vulgar tongue spread widely in spite of the prohibition of the Church. In Spain, Alfonso X. of Castile is said to have caused the Old Testament to be translated. Another version was certainly made during the 15th century. The history of the earliest versions in Polish, Italian, and Hungarian is hopelessly obscure. The discovery of printing gave an enormous impetus to the translation and

production of the Scriptures. A Spanish version by Borrell was published at Valencia in 1478; an Italian by the Benedictine Malherbi at Venice in 1471; a French at Paris in 1487; a Bohemian at Prague in 1488; and a Dutch as early as 1477. Luther's translation of the whole Bible was finished in 1534, but the New Testament had been issued as early as 1522. It was by no means, as has been seen, the earliest translation into a German tongue, but it was the first that reached the whole people, and it marked an epoch in the history of High German corresponding to that made in English by the authorised version of 1611. It was quickly translated into Platt-Deutsch, Danish, Swedish, Dutch, and even Icelandic. A revision was commenced in 1863, and not completed till 1882. The Bible of Holland is that authorised by the Synod of Dort in 1637; of Sweden, the official version, prepared by a company of scholars since 1774. The Danish is the work of Resenius (1607), revised by Svaning (1647); the Swiss, an entirely new version prepared in 1772 by Hottinger and others, on the basis of the 1665 version. French versions were made by Lefèvre d'Étaples (Faber Stapulensis) in 1523-28, and Olivetan, a cousin of Calvin's (1535-45). The latter as revised by Calvin in 1551, and later by Beza, became the official text of the French Reformed Church. The translations of Osterwald of 1714 and 1744 are also popular in spite of their conspicuous errors. Another edition still is in use, that prepared in 1588 by the *Vénérable Compagnie* under the direction of Bertram, on the basis of Calvin's, which was subjected to some revision in 1805 and again in 1835. There are many versions of the Old and New Testaments by individual scholars, such as the Latin Testament of Beza, but these belong rather to the history of exegesis. Translations of the Bible have now been made into almost all the languages of the world. See further under the article **BIBLE SOCIETY**.

The question whether the use of the Scriptures in the vulgar tongue shall be unconditionally permitted to the laity, is one of the main points of opposition between the Roman Catholic and the Protestant Church. In the earliest times, we find no evidence of any prohibition of Bible-reading by the laity. On the contrary, the reading of the Bible formed an essential part of the instruction communicated by pastors to their congregations; and the greatest orators of the Church—especially Chrysostom and Augustine—continually reminded their hearers that private reading and study of the Scriptures should follow attendance on public services. In the middle ages, the distinction, or rather the separation, between the clergy and the laity was gradually widened; but, apart from any question of policy, the widespread ignorance would naturally lead to a dependence on such passages of the Bible as might be read in the public services of the church, even while there was no direct prohibition of its common use. In 1080 Gregory VII. ordained that Latin only should be used in the church services of the West, and thereby indirectly excluded all vernacular readings of Scripture in public worship. Again, with regard to the Waldenses, Innocent III. in 1199 prohibited the private possession and reading of Scripture in the vernacular without the permission of a bishop. Similar prohibitions were repeated at Toulouse (1229), at Béziers (1233), and with regard to Wyclif's translation, which was extensively read, at the synod of Oxford (1383). Indeed, as early as 1234 the synod of Tarragona denounced as a heretic any one who, having a translation of the Bible, refused to surrender it to be burned within the space of eight days. This stringent measure, however, was not generally

adopted. The Council of Trent, being required to pronounce on the question of rival Latin editions of Scripture, declared the Vulgate the only 'authentic' version of the Church. Translations of the Bible—i.e. of the authentic Vulgate, could be possessed only with the leave of the bishops, who were required by Pius IV. to refuse lay persons leave to read these versions unless their confessors or parish priests judged that such reading was likely to prove beneficial. The publication of the New Testament with practical annotations by Paschasius Quesnel (1687) gave occasion to the Roman Catholic Church to speak more definitely on the subject in the bull *Unigenitus Dei Filius* (1713). A later ordinance issued by the ecclesiastical censor in 1757 permitted and even encouraged the use of versions published under papal sanction, and with explanatory notes, extracted from the Fathers, such as Martini's Italian version, approved by Pius VI. Within the present century the translations of the Bible Societies have been condemned by Leo XII., Pius VIII., and Pius IX., partly on the ground of their alleged corruptness. The principles, upon which these restrictions of the Roman Church were based, are—that the reading of Scripture is not necessary, that it is unsuitable to the very young and ignorant, and that it is specially dangerous in the hands of evil-disposed persons who have not the key to its interpretation—i.e. the traditional teaching of the Church. But in practice the stringency of the prohibitive discipline has been largely relaxed according to circumstances. For English use, the colleges of Rheims and Douai published an English translation of the Vulgate (New Testament, Rheims, 1582; Old Testament, Douai, 1609), which has gone through a number of editions and revisions (see Cotton's *Rheims and Douay*, 1855). The current editions, provided with the briefest notes to satisfy the rules of the Index of prohibited books (see **INDEX**), are now practically within the reach of all who care to possess them, with no perceptible restriction beyond that self-imposed restriction which is necessarily felt by every conscientious Roman Catholic instructed in the principles of his faith.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.—Works on the English Bible are: Anderson, *Annals of the Bible*; Eadie, *English Bible*; Westcott, *History of the English Bible*; and Stoughton, *Our English Bible*. Full information on all Biblical subjects will be found in the Biblical Antiquities of Ewald and Keil; Schenkel's *Bibel-Lexikon* (5 vols.), and Riehm's *Handwörterbuch der Bibl. Altertümer*; the Bible Dictionaries of Smith, Fairbairn, and Schaaf; Thomson, *Land and the Book*. Good commentaries on the whole Bible are Lange's in 24 vols.; the *Kurzgefasstes Exegetisches Handbuch* (Old Testament by various scholars, 17 vols.; New Testament, originally by De Wette alone, 3 vols. in 11 sect.), many of the volumes of which are masterpieces of exegesis, and which has been brought up to the latest knowledge in successive editions by some of the greatest German theologians; and the Speaker's Commentary in 10 vols. Meyer's Commentary (16 vols.) deals with the New Testament alone; Keil and Delitzsch's (27 vols.) with the Old Testament. To the individual books there are countless commentaries both English and German. Books of great value are the 'Variorum Teacher's Bible,' edited by Cheyne, Driver, Clarke, Goodwin, and Sanday; also the Oxford 'Helps to the study of the Bible.'

General works on the Old Testament are the Introductions of De Wette (Schrader's edition); Samuel Davidson, Keil, and Bleek (revised by Wellhausen); Ewald's *History of the People of Israel*; Milman's *History of the Jews*; Grätz, *Geschichte der Juden*; Kuenen's *Religion of Israel*; Stade, *Geschichte des Volkes Israel*; Renan, *Histoire du Peuple d'Israël*; Schultz, *Alt-testamentliche Theologie*; Oehler's *Old Testament Theology*; W. R. Smith, *Prophets of the Old Testament*; and Duhm, *Theologie der Propheten*.

Works on the critical question of the Pentateuch: (1) The so-called supplement-hypothesis, Bleek's Introduction. (2) Hupfeld, *Quellen der Genesis* (1853)—the Jeho-

vistic writing not supplementary but independent; thus, there were three elements in the Pentateuch: Priestly Code, J.E., Deuteronomy. (3) On the question of respective age of these elements: Graf, *Die Geschichtlichen Bücher des Alten Testaments* (1866)—the legislation of Priestly Code post-exile; narratives the oldest part of the Pentateuch. (4) Untenableness of this separation shown in essays by Riehm and Kuenen. Graf in an essay (1869) allowed both to be post-exile. Thus the order of elements came to be: J.E., Deuteronomy, Priestly Code. (5) Noeldeke, *Untersuchungen zur Kritik des Alten Testaments* (1869)—narratives in Priestly Code not strict history, but merely a clothing of historical ideas. (6) Wellhausen, *Geschichte Israels* (1878), completed Graf's theory. Reuss, *La Bible* (historical books), claims to have taught the theory as early as 1833. Works on the one side are: W. R. Smith, *The Old Testament in the Jewish Church* (1881); Wellhausen, *Prolegomena to the History of Israel* (traps. Edin. 1885); Kuenen, *An Historico-critical Inquiry into the Origin and Composition of the Hexateuch* (trans. Lond. 1886). In defence of the traditional view: W. H. Green (of Princeton), *Moses and the Prophets*, also *The Hebrew Feasts* (New York); E. C. Bissell, *The Pentateuch* (Lond. 1885). Dillmann, in his essay at the end of the last volume (1886) of his complete exposition of the Hexateuch, forming part of the new issue of *Kurzgefasstes exegetisches Handbuch*, occupies an intermediate position. Delitzsch in his *Neuer Commentar über die Genesis* (1887) puts the Book of the Covenant alone as directly Mosaic—the oldest code. The Priestly Code is the most recent—not Mosaic, though its source goes as far back as the Mosaic age. It gradually received successive additions in priestly circles, and was finally rounded off in post-exile times. The narratives in it, however, are ancient and historical. Deuteronomy again is not immediately Mosaic, but a free reproduction of a Mosaic source.

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The reader is also referred to the separate articles on each of the books of the Bible in this work; to those on critics, such as BAUR, BLEEK, DELITZSCH, DE WETTE, EWALD, RENAN, REUS-S, STRAUSS, &c.; and to those on:

Apocrypha.	Gospels.	Peshito.
Apologetics.	Hagiographa.	Prophecy.
Aramaic.	Hebrew Language.	Semitic Languages.
Book.	Inspiration.	Septuagint.
Codex.	Massorah.	Targum.
Exegesis.	Pentateuch.	Vulgate.

Bible Christians, or BRYANITES, are a body of Methodists (q.v.).

Bible Communists. See PERFECTIONISTS.

Bible Society, an association having exclusively for its object the diffusion of the sacred Scriptures. Perhaps the first association ever formed for the sole and specific purpose of providing copies of the Scriptures for those who were destitute of them, was that founded in 1710 by Baron Hildebrand von Canstein, an intimate friend of Spener, in conjunction with Francke, at Halle, and which, down to 1834, when other Bible Societies had begun to be established in Germany, had distributed 2,754,350 copies of the Bible, and about 2,000,000 copies of the New Testament. The impulse, however, to the formation of the Bible Societies now existing in all parts of Protestant Christendom proceeded from England, where in 1780 an association was formed for the distribution of Bibles among soldiers and sailors. It was at first simply called *The Bible Society*; it exists to the present day, is now known as the *Naval and Military Bible Society*, and confining itself to its original specific object, has accomplished much good.—In the beginning of 1792, a similar association was formed in London, under the name of the *French Bible Society*, with a similar limited and specific object of distributing Bibles in the French tongue. It was probably the attitude assumed by infidelity in France which gave occasion to the formation of this Society, but the greater part of its funds having been remitted to Paris for printing the Bible there, were lost, and everything belonging to the Society was destroyed in the tumult of the Revolution.—It was not till 1802 that the first steps were taken towards the formation of the BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY, the parent of a multitude of similar institutions, and the establishment of which must be regarded as the great epoch in the history of this branch of Christian beneficence; nor was the Society fully organised and established till March 7, 1804. Its formation took place in consequence of the deep impression made upon the mind of the Rev. Thomas Charles of Bala, in Wales, by the scarcity of the sacred Scriptures in the sphere of his labours, and particularly by a striking illustration of that scarcity. A little girl who had been saving up her small earnings for some years in order to buy a Bible, after walking 25 miles to procure one, found that they had all been sold. She wept so bitterly that Mr Charles not only contrived to get her a copy, but on his next visit to London, brought the subject of the want of Bibles in Wales under the notice of the committee of the *Religious Tract Society* (q.v.), when it was suggested by Mr Hughes, a member of the committee, that a Society might be formed for the purpose of supplying Bibles not only in Wales, but wherever destitution existed throughout the world. The Society was constituted on the widest possible basis, churchmen and dissenters being alike included in it. It was able to expend only £691 in the first year of its existence, but its annual income gradually increased, and in 1886 amounted to £116,865, from subscriptions, donations, legacies, &c., and £104,889, from sales of Bibles, Testaments, &c., in all £221,754. Auxiliary and branch societies and dependent associations rapidly sprung up in all parts of Britain and in the colonies, the number of which at present amounts to between 5000 and 6000. Much more than one-half of the expenditure of the British and Foreign Bible Society has been devoted to the diffusion of the authorised English version of the Bible, the only English version with which its fundamental rules permit it to have anything to do; it has also spent large sums in printing and circulating the Scriptures in the different Celtic languages spoken in Great Britain and Ireland, and a very important branch of its operations has been the printing of translations of the Bible prepared by missionaries. The number of transla-

tions of the Scripture—in many cases complete, in others extending only to the New Testament, in some only to particular books—which have been printed or distributed by the Society, is 279 (some being indirectly distributed). Very many are translations never before printed, and many in languages possessing no previous literature. The British and Foreign Bible Society now issues annually above four million copies of the Bible, the New Testament, and such portions of sacred Scripture as have been printed in languages not possessing complete translations. The whole number issued from the formation of the Society to 31st March 1887 was 112,253,547. This Society also employs 26 agents of high education and Christian character, resident in various countries of Europe, Asia, North Africa, and South America, also in Australia and New Zealand. The names of Dr Henderson, Dr Pinkerton, and other agents, must be familiar to many readers. Upwards of 600 colporteurs are employed, chiefly in Europe and Asia. A controversy concerning the circulation of the books of the Apocrypha along with the canonical Scriptures by the British and Foreign Bible Society (see APOCRYPHA), led to a resolution in 1826, that its funds should be devoted, according to its original design, to the diffusion of the canonical books alone.—The EDINBURGH BIBLE SOCIETY became from that time forward an entirely separate Society, till 1861, when the leading Scottish societies amalgamated to form the NATIONAL BIBLE SOCIETY OF SCOTLAND. In 1886 its income was £33,707; its issue for the year, 707,580 Bibles, New Testaments, &c., and total issue nearly ten millions.

The AMERICAN BIBLE SOCIETY is, in the magnitude and importance of its operations, next to the British and Foreign Bible Society. It was founded at New York in 1816, and still has its headquarters in that city, in the 'Bible House,' a very large and magnificent building erected by special subscription. It reckons fully 7000 auxiliary societies in all parts of the United States. Its income amounts to about 524,000 dollars a year, rather more than one-half being derived from sales of Bibles and Testaments, and the rest from donations, collections, &c. The American Bible Society issues annually about 1,500,000 Bibles, New Testaments, and other portions of Scripture, and has in all distributed about 49,000,000 copies. The funds of the Society have been chiefly expended in supplying the wants of the inhabitants of the United States, amongst whom the Indian tribes have not been neglected. 'The Bible Association of Friends in America,' founded at Philadelphia in 1820, has also distributed the Bible extensively.

Of the numerous Bible Societies of Germany, the most important and extensively ramified is the Prussian Central Bible Society (*Hauptbibelgesellschaft*) in Berlin. It was founded in 1814, has branches in all parts of the Prussian dominions, and distributes annually about 80,000 Bibles and New Testaments. There are besides numerous independent Bible societies in other parts of the German empire. A large number of Bibles are still, however, annually supplied to the people of Germany by the agents of the British and Foreign Bible Society. They amounted in 1886 (including Switzerland) to 363,094 copies.—Bible societies were prohibited by the Austrian government in 1817, and some which had already been established in Hungary were dissolved.—The RUSSIAN BIBLE SOCIETY, founded in St Petersburg in 1813, through the exertions of Dr Paterson, and under the patronage of the Emperor Alexander I., entered upon a career of great activity and usefulness, co-operating with the British and Foreign Bible Society for the printing of the Scriptures in the numerous

languages spoken within the Russian dominions; but its operations were suspended in 1826, on the accession of the Emperor Nicholas, its stock of Bibles and the whole concern being transferred to the Holy Synod, under the pretence that the sacred work of supplying the people with the Holy Scriptures belonged to the church, and not to a secular society. The Bibles and Testaments in stock were indeed sold, and very large editions were thus disposed of, but the activity of a society which had no equal in continental Europe was at an end. A Protestant Bible Society was then formed for the purpose of providing editions of the Scriptures, and circulating them among the Protestants of all parts of the empire, which now reckons about 300 auxiliary societies. But the action of this Society 'does not touch the members of the Greek Church, or, if at all, only slightly and incidentally, and it makes no provision of the Scriptures in the language spoken by the great mass of the people. It is merely designed to meet the wants of colonists and others who do not use the Russian language.' Of the translations of the Scriptures published by the original Russian Bible Society, the greater number have never been reprinted since its suppression. The British and Foreign Bible Society still carries on an important work in Russia. The issues in 1886 were 450,115 copies.

Biblia Pauperum ('Bible of the Poor') was a sort of picture-book of the middle ages, giving, on from thirty-four to fifty leaves, the leading events of the Old and New Testaments, each picture being accompanied by an illustrative text or sentence in Latin. A similar and contemporaneous work on a more extended scale, and with the legend or text in rhyme, was called *Speculum Humane Salvationis*—'the Mirror of Human Salvation.' Before the Reformation, these two books took the place of the Bible with the laity, and were the chief text-books used by the preachers of the mendicant orders. According to one derivation, as these monks took the title of *Pauperes Christi*, 'Christ's Poor,' hence the name; but others explain it as referring to the spiritually poor, the unlearned. Heineken, however, is said to have first employed the title in his *Idée générale d'une Collection d'Estampes* (1771). Many manuscripts of the *Biblia Pauperum*, and of the *Mirror of Salvation*, several as old as the 13th century, are preserved in different languages. The pictures of this series were copied in sculptures, in wall and glass painting, altar-pieces, &c., and thus became of importance in the art of the middle ages. After the invention of printing, each picture and text was at first cut on one block, and the pages were pasted back to back, and made into a book. The use of separate types only increased the popularity of the work; but as improved methods enabled printers to issue the whole Bible, it gradually lost ground, and ceased to be used about the beginning of the 16th century. There have been English fac-simile reprints in 1859, 1877, and 1884 (the last with preface by Dean Stanley).—This book must not be confused with a work of the same title by Bonaventura (q.v.). See BOOK, PRINTING; and for illustration, WOOD-ENGRAVING.

Bibliography, a word which, meaning in Greek merely the copying or transcription of books, was for a long time employed in France for skill in reading ancient manuscripts, and has since the 18th century (as witness De Bure's *Bibliographie Instructive*, 1763) been generally adopted throughout Europe as the technical designation of that department of knowledge which deals with books as books, and takes account of their literary, scientific, or artistic contents only so far as these serve for the orderly arrangement of books or descriptions of

them. The bibliographer distinguishes between a book on art and a book on botany, as the china-merchant or the collector between a tea-cup and a coffee-cup. With the art or the botany as such he has nothing to do. But the material of the book, its size and bulk, pagination, component parts, printing and peculiarities of type, date, authorship, language, place and press of issue (real or pretended), editions (legal or pirated), illustrations, price, abundance or rarity—all these are within his domain. A misprint may be of interest to him, not as affecting the sense of the passage, but as affording (like the mole on a child's cheek) the means of distinguishing two books otherwise apt to be confounded. The ideal accomplishment of the bibliographer's task would be the registration and history of every book (however unimportant in itself) that has ever been published in the world. But though Conrad von Gesner might still compile a *Bibliotheca Universalis* (4 vols. Zurich, 1545-55) without too absurdly misapplying the adjective 'universal,' even he would probably have shrunk from using it had he realised how much he left unchronicled. It is now sometimes the work of a lifetime to trace the vicissitudes of a single book or series of books (for example, the Earl of Crawford on the *De Bry Voyages*), and even then something still remains undone. Many writers have devoted themselves to the classification of books according to some all-embracing scientific scheme; but this inquiry is not strictly bibliographical. The classifier of books must practically adopt those views of the classification of human knowledge most accepted in his own time, and the most perfect scheme will leave on his hands a large residuum of books which refuse to recognise his scientific frontiers.

Of general bibliographies, the most important are Brunet's *Manuel* (6 vols. 8vo, 5th ed. Paris, 1860-65; supplement, 3 vols. 1870-80); Graesse, *Trésor* (7 vols. 4to, Dresden, 1859-69); Ebert, *Allgem. bibliograph. Lexikon* (2 vols. Leip. 1821-30; Eng. trans. by A. Brown, 4 vols. Oxford, 1837); Georgi, *Allgem. Europ. Bücherlexikon* (5 parts and 3 supplements, Leip. 1742-58); and Watt, *Bibliotheca Britannica, a General Index to British and Foreign Literature, Authors and Subjects* (4 vols. 4to, Edin. 1824). This last work labours under all the disadvantages of a posthumous publication, but still remains an indispensable *vade mecum* in every English library.

The tendency to specialise has caused even the more comprehensive schemes to be directed mainly along one of three lines—the registration either of all the works of a single national literature, or of those of a single great department of knowledge, or of those marked off by some intrinsic or adventitious peculiarity.

I. NATIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHIES.—For Great Britain, besides Watt's *Bibliotheca*, the standard works of reference are Ames and Herbert, *Typographical Antiquities* (3 vols. 4to, Lond. 1785-90; new ed. by Dibdin, 1810-19, not completed); Lowndes, *Manual* (4 vols. Lond. 1834; new ed. by Bohn, 6 vols. sm. 8vo, Lond. 1857-64); Allibone, *Dict. of British and American Authors* (3 vols. 8vo, Phil. 1859-71), which must be used with caution; and Sampson Low's *English Catalogue of Books* (4 vols. 1835-90; also a yearly vol. since 1862, and continuing to the present time). These works are arranged according to the names of authors; but the *English Catalogue* is accompanied with *Subject Catalogues*. It unfortunately omits many of the works published in the provinces, and the important class of privately printed books. The *Publishers' Circular* (since 1838), the *Bookseller* (since 1858), the *Bibliographer* (since 1881), and such literary journals as the *Athenæum* and the *Academy*, may be consulted for current

literature. *Notes and Queries*, too, often contains good special bibliographies. In regard to English publications previous to the 18th century, much information is accumulated in Collin's *Rarest Books* (1865); Hazlitt's *Handbook* (1867); and *Collections and Notes* (1876, 1882, 1886); Maitland's *Lambeth Index* (1845); the British Museum *Catalogue of Books printed in England, Scotland, and Ireland up to 1640* (1884); and the *Registers of the Stationers' Company, 1554-1640* (1875 76 77).

For books published in Scotland, reference may be made to Howie, Dalrymple, Dempster, Mackenzie, Nicolson, Irving, Chambers, and Edmond (*Aberdeen Printers, &c.*), though the works are in most cases only partially bibliographical. Books printed in or relating to Ireland are treated of in Shirley's *Catalogue* (1872), and O'Reilly's *Chronol. Account* (Trans. of Hiberno-Celtic Society, 1820). Of books dealing with the literature of a district, a good example is Courtney and Bouse's *Bib. Cornubiensis* (3 vols. 1876-81); of local topographical books, Mayo's *Bibliotheca Dorsetiensis* (1885).

For English books printed in America see the catalogues of Leypoldt (1876), Bowker & Appleton (1876-84), the *Annual American Catalogue*; and the works of Sabín (1869, &c.), Stevens (1856, &c.), Thomas (mainly previous to 1776), and Roerbach. Good bibliographical lists are issued by Mr Winsor, librarian to Harvard University.

The standard French catalogue is that published by Lorenz. It begins with 1840, and has corresponding Subject Catalogues or *Tableaux des Matières* of great value. Quérard's *La France Littéraire* embraces, with its continuation by Quérard, Louandre, and Bouquetot, the 18th and 19th centuries down to 1849 (6 vols. Paris, 1846-57). France has all along been rich in periodicals and serials dealing with bibliography, as *Le Livre*.

Among the authorities for German publications are the series of Frankfurt and Leipzig fair catalogues (*Messkataloge*) (1564-1860) now represented by Hinrichs's *Verzeichnis*; Heinsius, *Bücherlexikon, 1700-89* (Leip. 1812-82); Kayser, *Vollständiges Bücherlexikon, 1750-1832* (Leip. 1833 83), and the *Gesamt Verlags Katalog des deutschen Buchhandels bis ende 1880*. Every five years since 1851 Hinrichs has published a catalogue of all the German works of the quinquennium, registered in his half-yearly and quarterly catalogues.

Dutch literature is best represented by Brinkmann's catalogues, for which Van der Meulen has compiled a *Repertorium* (1850-82). As in Germany, the several sections have often elaborate monographs devoted to their bibliography.

Belgium is well equipped with the *Bibliographie Nationale* (since 1830), and the official periodical *Bibliographie de Belgique* (since 1875). See also Sehnée's bibliography (1861) of works issued between 1830 and 1860.

The chief names associated with Scandinavian publications are for Denmark, Bartholinus (1666), Nierup (1820), Fabricius (1841-58), Brunn; for Sweden, Lüdke (1781-96), and Klemming (1879); for Norway, Nissen (1814-47), Amesen, and Botten-Hansen (1848-65), Boeck (1866-72), Cammermeyer (1867-83), and for Old Norse and Icelandic the *Catalogus Librorum* by Möbius (1856; 1880), and Nierup's *Litteratur-lexicon* (1820). Sweden has an anonymous *Bok Katalog*, and for a time published a monthly *Bibliographi*. The University Library at Christiania issues a *Norsk Bogfortegnelse*.

II. DEPARTMENTAL BIBLIOGRAPHIES.—*Agriculture*.—Weston (1773); André (1847-59); Henning (1860-61); Baldamus (1856-75).

Alchemy.—Barret (1815); Ladrage (1870).

Astronomy.—La Lande (1803); Weidler (1755); Struve, *Pulkova Observ. Cat.*; Holden, *United*

States Naval Observ. Cat.; Houzeau and Lancaster (1880).

Botany.—Pritzel, *Thesaurus* (4to, Leip. 1872-77) and *Iconum Index* (Berlin, 1855-66); Bemmelen, *Repert.* (since 1873); the *Botan. Jahresbericht*; Daydon Jackson, *Index Society* (1882); Trimen, *Bot. Bib. of the British Counties* (1874).

Chemistry.—Zuehold, *Bib. Chemica* (1859, &c.); Ruprecht (1872); Frank, *Führer* (1850-82); Bolton, *Cat. of Chem. Periodicals* (1885).

Classics.—Harwood's *View* (1790); Dibdin (1827); Moss, *Manual* (1825); Engelmann (1858); Loscher (1858-69); Mayor, *Guide* (2d ed. 1879; supplement, 1885); and Bursian, *Jahresbericht Class. Alterthumswissenschaft* (since 1873).

Electricity.—Sir Francis Ronald (1880); Salle (1860-83); Hartleben (1883).

Entomology.—Hagen (Leip. 1862-63); Sharswood (Leip. 1858-61); *Wiener entom. Zeitung* (since 1882).

Fine Arts.—*The South Kensington Catalogue and Supplement* (1870-77); Vinet (1874-77).

Geography.—Engelmann (1858); Vivien de Saint-Martin, *Année Géogr.* (1862-82); the Berlin Admiralty *Registramte* (since 1870); Petermann's *Mitteilungen*; Roy, *Geogr. Soc. Lib. Catalogue* (1870); Silver, *Catalogue* (1886); Jackson, *Liste des Bibliogr. Géogr.* (1881); Anderson, *British Topography* (1881); *Diet. de Géogr. à l'usage du Libraire* (1870).

Geology.—Agassiz (1848-54); E. von Berg (1862); *Cat. Museum of Pract. Geology* (Lond. 1878); *Kat. Bibl. der Kon. Geol. Landes Anstalt* (Berlin); *Geological Record* (since 1874); *Bibliogr. of Fossil Insects* (Harvard Un. Bull.).

History.—(1) *Medieval and General*: Franklin, *Diet. des Noms . . . de Moyen Age* (1875); Chevalier, *Répertoire* (1878); Oettinger, *Hist. Archiv. Karlsruhe* (1811); Adams, *Manual* (1882); Griswold, *Q. P. Indexes, No. IX.* (1882); Koner, *Repertorium* (1852-56); Müldener, *Bibliotheca Hist.* (1870-1882; resumed by Masslow, 1887); *Hist. Zeitschrift und Hist. Review*. (2) *Great Britain and Ireland*: Nicholson (1776); Macray (down to 1600; 1845); Hardy (down to Henry VIII., 1862-71); Gardiner and Mullinger (1881). (3) *France*: Lelong (1768-78); Ruelle, *Bibl. gén. des Gaules* (since 1880); Franklin, *Sources . . .* (1877); *Répertoire des Travaux historiques* (since 1882). (4) *Germany*: Weber (1800); Dahlmann (1875); Klette (for Prussia; 1858-61). (5) *Holland*: De Wind (1835); Nijhoff (1871); Fruin, *Repertorium* (1863). (6) *Italy*: Sir R. C. Hoare's *Catalogue* (1825); Reumont (1863); Lozzi (1886); *Bibliotheca Storica di Deputazione di Storia Patria* (1884); *Archivio Storico* (in progress). (7) *Scandinavia*: Warmholtz (1782-1817) for Sweden; Baden (1815) for Denmark; Horn and Spilberg (1884), general. (8) *Switzerland*: Von Haller (1785-87); Von Sinner (1851); Von Muelinen (1874). (9) *India*: Elliot (1849), and the *India Office Lib. Cat.* (1888); for China, Möllendorff (1876) and Cordier (since 1878); for Japan, Pagès (1859) and De Rosny (1883); for Persia, Schwab (1875) and Fraehn (1845); for the Jews, Fürst (1849-63); for the East generally, Zenker (1846-61) and Friederici (1875, &c.).

Law.—Mollat, *Verzeichnis, 1820-82* (1886), and *Catalogues* by H. G. Sweet (1883), and Stevens and Haynes.

Mathematics.—Von Bueghem (1688); Murhard (1797-1805); Rogg (1830); Sohneke (1854); Erleecke (1873); Terquem, *Bulletin* (1855-61); Boncompagni, *Bullettino* (1868-82).

Medicine.—*The Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-general's Office* (Washington, 1880, and still—1888—in progress) is worth consulting on many matters not strictly medical. It registers not only books and pamphlets but the individual articles of periodicals. Dr Billings, the editor of

this enormous enterprise, founded the *Index Medicus* (1879, &c.). See also Neale's *Medical Digest* (1877; new ed. 1882); Waring, *Bib. Therap.* (1878-79); Clark, *Bibliotheca* (1878); and Schmidt's *Jahrbücher d. ges. Medicin* (since 1834).

Political Economy.—MacCulloch (1845); Mohl (1855-58); Blanqui (1838; 4th ed. 1860); Mühlbrecht (1868 and onwards).

Theology.—Of the vast number of guides to the enormous literature classed as 'theological' we can only mention Kempius (1677); Lipenius (1685); Walchius (1757); Le Long, *Bibliotheca Sacra* (various editions); Dorn (1721-23); Döderlein (1780-92); Thiessen (1795-97); Keil (1792); Baldamus (Roman Catholic and Protestant theology apart); Führmann (1813-21); Darling (1854-59); Zuehold (1868); Malcolm (1868); M'Clintock and Strong (1867-79); Pettingill (1878); and Hagenbach (1833; 10th ed. Leip. 1880). In 1881 a *Theologischer Jahresbericht* was started by Pünjer.

Zoology.—Agassiz, *Bibliogr. Zoologie* (1848-54); Engelmann, *Bibliotheca Hist. Naturalis, 1700-1846* (Leip. 1846); supplement by Carus and Engelmann, containing articles in periodicals (1846-60); and continuation by Taschenberg; the *Zoological Record* (since 1864); Giebel, *Thesaurus Ornithologiae* (1872); Bosgoed, *Bibliotheca Ichthyologica*; the bibliographies in the report of the *Challenger*.

III. SPECIAL AND MONOGRAPHIC BIBLIOGRAPHIES.—*Early Printing*.—The name Incunabula or Incunables (i.e. 'cradle books') is conventionally applied to all specimens of European typography that issued from the press up to the end of the year 1500. Except that it marks the close of the century which saw the rise of the printer's art, the date has no relation to any bibliographical characteristics: the book of 1501 or 1502 is the same as the book of 1499 or 1498. Didot estimated that 13,000 separate works had appeared in the 15th century, with an average issue of 300 copies, making the wealth of nations in this department amount to about 4,000,000 in 1501; but more recent investigators (Hain, Van der Linde, &c.) have gradually raised the calculation to 30,000 independent publications (including pamphlets) still known to exist, and show that 500 at least may be accepted as the average edition. Works to be consulted in this department are: Sambertus, *Historia* (Norisbergae, 1643); Panzer, *Annales Typographici. . . ad Annum MD* (continued to 1536; 11 vols. 4to, Norimb. 1793-1803); La Serna Santander, *Diet. bibliogr. choisi du XV^e et XVI^e Siècle* (3 vols. 8vo, Brussels, 1805-7); Laire, *Index Librorum* (2 vols. 8vo, Senonis, 1791); Marchand, *Histoire . . . Imprimerie* (1740 and 1775); Schaab, *Gesch. . . Buchdruckerkunst* (3 vols. 8vo, Mainz, 1830-31); Sotheby, *Principia Typographica* (3 vols. Lond. 1858); Hawkins, *Titles of the First Books*; Legrand, *Bibliogr. hellénique, . . . Ouvrages publiés en Grèce par des Grecs aux XV^e et XVI^e Siècles* (2 vols. 8vo, 1885). Special studies on the incunabula of individual countries and localities are: Claudin (1880) for Albi; Mezger (1840) for Augsburg; Arétin (1801) for Bavaria; Lambinet (1810) for Belgium; Hanky (1853) for Bohemia; Lechi (1854) for Brescia; Baruffaldi (1777) and Antonelli (1830) for Ferrara; Brunet (1865) for France; De Rossi (1795) for Hebrew works; Zapf (1778) and Wurdwein (1787) for Mainz; Saxius (1745) for Milan; Péricaud (1840-51) for Lyons; Götze (1872) for Magdeburg; Volta (1786) for Mantua; Panzer (1778) and Roeder (1742) for Nuremberg; Vermiglioli (1823) for Perugia; Lelewel (1823-26) for Poland; Canensius (1740) and Laire (1778) for Rome; Frère (1843) for Rouen; Baur (1764) for Spire; Desbarreaux-Bernard (1878) for Toulouse.

Famous Presses.—Some bibliographers confine

themselves to the history of one famous press or publishing house. Thus Butters (1877) chronicles the Bipontine (i.e. Deux Ponts) editions of the classics; Renouard writes the annals of the Aldi (3d ed. 8vo, 1834) and the Stephenses (8vo, 1837-38); Bandini those of the Junta family (2 vols. 8vo, Lucca, 1791); Blades (1861-63) those of Caxton; Duncan (1831) those of the Foulis press.

Individual Authors.—Serviceable monographs have been produced on the works of many important authors and the illustrative literature that gathers round them. For Shakespeare, we have among others, Wilson (1827); Bolin (1863); Mullens (1872-76); Halliwell-Phillips; Winsor. Shepherd has compiled handy bibliographies of Dickens, Thackeray, and Carlyle; and Axon a *Bibliographical Biography* of Ruskin. An elaborate bibliography of Balzac forms one volume of the best edition of his works.

Anonymous and Pseudonyms. The special difficulty and curious interest of the subject has attracted a large amount of effort to the task of discovering the real authorship of those books which make no sign, or which intentionally mislead or mystify the reader on this point. Besides the old works of Vincent Placcius (Hamburg, 1708) and Mylius (1740), we have for French, Barbier (2d ed. 4 tom. 8vo, Paris, 1822-27), Toimot (1867), De Manne (1862; 2d ed. 1868), and Quérard (1869, &c.); for German, Ersch (1788, &c.); for Scandinavian, Collin (1869); for Dutch, Van Doornick (1866); for Belgian, Delecourt (1863); for Italian, Melzi (1848-59); for Russian, Ghennady (1874); for South American, Barros Arana (1882); and for Hebrew, Groddeck (1708). For English, the more serviceable books are Ralph Thomas (pseudonym Olphar Hamst), *Handbook of Fictitious Names* (1868), and *Aggravating Ladies* (1880); Haynes, *Pseudonyms* (1882); Cushing, *Initials and Pseudonyms* (1886); and the *Dict. of the Anon. and Pseud. Literature of Great Britain* (1881, &c.) begun by Mr Halkett, keeper of the Advocates' Library, continued by the Rev. John Laing. Weller's *Mas-kirte Literatur* gives a general view of the subject.

Privately Printed Works have been curiously neglected. J. Martin's *Catalogue* has not been reprinted since 1834.

Periodicals. This form of literature has become one of the most perplexing problems of the bibliographer: its value is so various, its ramifications so endless. A mere catalogue of the names of periodicals, such as have been long published annually in England, France, Germany, &c., is of little use; and even histories of periodical literature leave the practical question how to find what one wishes barely unsolved. Towards this the 'general indexes' of many of the leading journals (the *Times*, *Blackwood*, the *Edinburgh Review*, &c.) contribute; and for English periodicals the great *Index*, first published by W. F. Poole in 1853 (new ed. Boston, 1882, brought down to end of 1881), is of immense value. A serviceable continuation to the last is the *Co-operative Index to Periodicals*, edited by W. J. Fletcher, with the aid of the members of the American Library Association, published quarterly at New York, from 1885 onwards. The Royal Society of London's *Catalogue of Scientific Papers* (1800-63 and 1864-74) includes most scientific periodicals; but as it is arranged by authors' names, stands in need of a subject index. Similar works are Reuss, *Repertorium* (16 vols. Göttingen, 1801-21); Schubarth, *Repertorium der techn. Lit.* 1823-53 (Berlin, 1856), and Karl's continuation; and Schotte's *Repertorium der techn. mathem. und naturwiss. Journal-Lit.* (1869, &c.).

General.—Petzholdt's *Bibliotheca Bibliographica* (1864) is an admirable guide to the bibliographies available in his time. It is supplemented rather

than superseded by Léon Vallée's *Bibliogr. des Bibliographies* (Paris, 1883), and its *Supplément* (1887). The British Museum *Hand-list of Bibliographies* (1881), and the bibliographic chapter in Wheatley, *How to form a Library* (Lond. 1886), will also be found useful. See also Boulard, *Traité élém. de Bibliographie* (1806); Peignot, *Manuel Bibliogr.* (1800), and *Dict. raisonné de Bibliologie* (1802); Namur, *Manuel du Bibliothécaire* (1834); Brunet, *Connaissances nécessaires à un Bibliophile* (Paris, 1878), and *Kat. der Bibl. des Börsenvereins der Deutschen Buchhändler* (Leip. 1886). Sonnenschein's *Twenty-five Thousand Best Books* (1887) and Fortescue's *Subject Catalogue of the Additions made to the British Museum* (1886) are of great service to the general reader. Le Petit, *Principaux Éditions orig. d'écrivains français* (1888), and Kömmecke, *Bilder Atlas zur Gesch. der Deutsch. Litt.* (1887), are good examples of art in the service of bibliography. An Index Society was founded in London in December 1877 for the purpose of forming indexes to rare and important books.

Compare articles BIBLIOMANIA, BOOK, BOOK-CLUB, BOOK-TRADE, CHAP-BOOK, HORN-BOOK, LIBRARY, PRINTING; and the lives of Brunet, Caxton, Dibdin, Elzevir, Foulis, Quérard, &c.

Bibliomaney (Gr. *ta biblia*, 'the Bible,' and *mantheia*, 'divination'), a mode of divination by opening the Bible haphazard, and observing the first passage which occurred, or by entering a place of worship and taking notice of the first words of the Bible heard after entering it. The application was often very fanciful, and depended rather upon the mere sound of the words than upon their proper signification or the scope of the passage. Prayer and fasting were sometimes used as a preparation for a mode of consulting the divine oracles. Bibliomaney was prohibited, under pain of excommunication, by the Council of Vannes, 465 A.D., and by the Councils of Agde and Orleans in the succeeding century. It continued, however, to prevail for many centuries thereafter, and is said to have been introduced into England at the Norman Conquest. Tennyson introduces it into *Enoch Arden*. It was essentially the same as the famous *Sortes Virgilianæ*, the only difference being in the book employed.

Bibliomania, the passion of the book-miser, which impels to the gathering and hoarding of books without regard to their literary value or practical utility: or, in its nobler aspect, in Andrew Lang's phrase, the 'love of books for their own sake, for their paper, print, binding, and for their associations, as distinct from the love of literature.' The word in English is modern, having been introduced from France about 1750; but the thing must be in some form as ancient as the existence of printed or written documents. In this, as in other passions of the like kind, the freaks of individual fancy are endless: while one man disdains everything save the 'tallest' copy of a rare work in the finest condition, another takes pity on the dingiest waif of the back-street bookstall. Fashion, too, exercises a great influence on the form in which bibliomania displays itself: it is no longer the prevailing hobby to collect Elzevir and Foulis editions, but he is a special favourite of the gods who possesses a set of the parts of *Pickwick* in the original green paper covers, or of early Thackerays in their original yellow. Competition between collectors leads to the most extravagant prices being paid in the book auction. At the present time Bernard Quaritch, bookseller and bibliophile, has the credit of having paid the largest sum yet recorded as the price of a single volume—£4950 for No. 1650 at the Syson Park sale, December 1884—*Psalmorum Codex*, (folio, Mogunt. Fust and Schöffer, 1459). This quite throws into the shade

the £2260 for the first dated *Decameron* (published at Venice by Valdarfer in 1471), which astonished the buyers at the Roxburghe sale in 1812. At the Syston sale also the so-called Mazarin Bible (one of the twenty-five copies known to have belonged to Cardinal Mazarin), which is the first printed Bible, printed by Gutenberg and Fust about 1450, fetched £3900. In 1827 a copy sold for £504. At the sale of the Earl of Jersey's Oesterley Park library in 1885, the only perfect copy of Malory's *King Arthur*, printed by Caxton, was sold to a Chicago merchant for £1950; Caxton's *Historyes of Troye* brought £1820; and Caxton's *Eneydos* brought £2350.

See Dibdin, *Bibliomania* (1811); Hill Burton, *The Book Hunter* (new ed. 1882); Percy Fitzgerald, *The Book Fancier* (1886); Andrew Lang, *Books and Bookmen* (1887); Philomnester, Junior (i.e. Gustave Brunet), *La Bibliomanie en 1883*. See also BIBLIOGRAPHY; and for famous bindings, BOOKBINDING.

Bibra, BARON ERNST VON, a German chemist, explorer, and man of letters, born in Franconia in 1806, and died in Nürnberg, June 5, 1878. His works on chemistry are valuable, and his tales are always marked by fine descriptive power. The result of his travels in Brazil, Peru, and Chili will be found in his *Reisen in Südamerika* (1854), and two later works.

Bicarbonates differ from carbonates in containing twice as much carbonic acid. Bicarburets, bisulphurets, and bitartrates are words formed on the same plan; but in recent chemical nomenclature, the prefix *bi-* has been superseded by *di-*. See CHEMISTRY.

Bice (Ger. *Beis*, Ital. *Biadetto*), the name of two pigments of a blue and green colour respectively, known to artists from the earliest times—blue bice as *mountain blue*, *ongaro*, *azzurro di terra*, &c.; and green bice as *chrysocola*, *Hungarian green*, *verde de Minière*, *verde de Spagna*, *verdello*, &c. These pigments consist of a natural clay mixed with yellow ochre, the blue and green colours being due to native carbonate of copper. Bice has not much body, but dries well with oil. There are several artificial varieties, which, however, are not so durable as the natural. Although a favourite with artists in the beginning of the 19th century, its use is dying out, so that it no longer appears in colour catalogues, its place being taken by 'Hooper's Green.'

Biceps ('double-headed'), an anatomical term applied to two muscles, the one belonging to the arm, the other to the leg, and distinguished from each other as the *biceps flexor cubiti* and the *biceps flexor cruris*. The former is the muscle which gives a full appearance to the front of the upper arm; the latter is situated on the back of the thigh, and is one of a group of three muscles known as the 'hamstrings.' See ARM.

Bicester, a market-town of Oxfordshire, 12 miles NNE. of Oxford, and seat of the county court-house. There are manufactures of rope, clothing, sackings, and pale ale, and several important fairs are annually held. The ruins of *Alia Castra*, or Alcester, lie $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the south-west, on the ancient Roman Akeman Street. Pop. (1881) 3306.

Bicêtre, a celebrated hospital, situated on a little eminence in the southern neighbourhood of Paris, and commanding one of the finest views of the city, the Seine, and the environs. Founded by Louis IX. as a Carthusian monastery, it was acquired in 1290 by John, Bishop of Winchester (hence the name Bicêtre), and in 1632 it was destroyed, because it had become a hiding-place of thieves. Afterwards, it was rebuilt by Louis XIII., and made a hospital for old soldiers. It was

for a long time used as a prison for criminals, but is now a hospital for indigent old men and for incurable lunatics.—Bicêtre is also the name of one of the sixteen detached forts that defend the approaches to the walls of Paris.

Bichat, MARIE FRANÇOIS XAVIER, an epoch-making anatomist and physiologist, was born in 1771 at Thoirette, in the department of Jura. He studied chiefly in Paris under Desault, who adopted him as his son, and whose surgical works he edited. In 1797 he began giving lectures on anatomy, along with experimental physiology and surgery, and in 1800 was appointed physician to the Hôpital-Dieu. Worn out by his unremitting labours, he died of fever in his thirty-first year, July 22, 1802. He was the first to simplify anatomy and physiology by reducing the complex structures of the organs to the simple or elementary Tissues (q.v.) that enter into them in common. This he has done in his *Anatomie Générale* (2 vols. 1801). In his *Recherches Physiologiques sur la Vie et la Mort* (1800), he discusses all the functions of organic and animal life, and their mutual relations.

Bickerstaffe, ISAAC, popular play-writer, was born in Ireland about the year 1735, and at the age of eleven became page to Lord Chesterfield, the lord-lieutenant. He was afterwards an officer of marines, but was dismissed the service for some discreditable offence, and in 1772 had to flee the country on a capital charge. Nothing is certainly known regarding his after-life, but he is supposed to have died on the Continent in or soon after 1812. Of his numerous pieces, produced between 1766 and 1771, the best-known are: *The Maid of the Mill*, *The Padlock*, *He Would if He Could*, *Love in a Village*, *The Hypocrite*, and *The Captive*.—Under the nom de guerre of 'Isaac Bickerstaff,' Swift wrote works in 1708-9; and the same name was used by Steele in the *Tatler*.

Bickersteth, EDWARD, evangelical clergyman, was born at Kirkby Lonsdale, Westmoreland, in 1786, and after fifteen years in the General Post-office and in a solicitor's office, was in 1815 admitted to orders, and sent the next year by the Church Missionary Society to reorganise their mission stations in Africa. Having accomplished his mission, he was in 1816 appointed secretary to the Society, a post he filled with great success until 1830, when he became rector of Watton, Hertfordshire. Here, until his death on February 24, 1850, he took an active part in promoting, both by tongue and pen, almost every work having for its object the spread of religious truth whether at home or abroad. He was one of the founders of the Evangelical Alliance. Of his religious writings, which were collected in 16 vols. (1853), the most popular are: *A Help to the Study of the Scriptures*, *The Christian Student*, and *A Treatise on the Lord's Supper*. He also edited *The Christian's Family Library*, a work consisting of 40 vols. His *Christian Psalmody* went through 59 editions in seven years. It formed the basis of the well-known *Hymnal Companion*, now in use in more than 2000 churches, prepared by his son, EDWARD HENRY BICKERSTETH (born 1825), who, vicar of Christ Church, Hampstead, from 1855, was in 1885 appointed Bishop of Exeter, and who is author of *Yesterday, To-day, and For Ever*, and other poems. — HENRY BICKERSTETH (1783-1851) in 1836 became Master of the Rolls, and was raised to the peerage as Baron Langdale; and ROBERT BICKERSTETH (1816-84) was Bishop of Ripon from 1857.

Bicycle. See CYCLING.

Bidar, a town in the Nizam's Dominions, near the right bank of the Manjera, a tributary of the Godavery, 75 miles NW. of Hyderabad. Formerly a place of importance, it is now remarkable chiefly

for its manufactures in a compound metal made of tin, copper, lead, and zinc, and called Biddery ware. This industry has been of late declining.—The district of Bidar has an area of 4884 sq. m., and a pop. (1881) of 793,309.

Bidasso'a, a river which, rising in Spain, forms the boundary between that country and France, and, after a course of 33 miles, falls into the Bay of Biscay at Fuenterrabia. During the Peninsular war its banks were the scene of several conflicts.

Biddeford, a town of Maine, U.S., on the right bank of the Saco River, 6 miles from its mouth in the Atlantic Ocean, and 93 miles NNE. of Boston by rail. It has manufactures of cotton and woollen goods and machinery, and there is a large trade in timber. Pop. (1880) 12,651.

Bidding-prayer, a form of exhortation, always concluding with the Lord's Prayer, enjoined by the 55th canon of the Anglican Church, in 1603, to be used before all sermons and homilies. Except in cathedrals and the university churches, it is now seldom used. The term is from the Anglo-Saxon *biddan*, 'to pray,' so that 'bidding-prayer' is really pleonastic. The form is of extreme antiquity, and we have a similar one in the Apostolical Constitutions. It was anciently used for the communicants or believers after the dismissal of the catechumens, and was pronounced by the deacon, each petition beginning with the words, 'Let us pray for,' &c., and the people responding at the end of each with 'Kyrie Eleison,' or some such words. There is another very ancient example in the Ambrosian Liturgy; and St Chrysostom alludes to such a form in one of his sermons. It must have been, and even now in its abridged shape still is, very impressive, allowing each individual to supply from his own thoughts special cases of necessity under the different heads. These Bidding-prayers have some resemblance to the Litany and the Prayer for the Church Militant, now used in the Anglican Church.

Biddle, JOHN, sometimes called the founder of English Unitarianism, was born in 1615, at Wotton-under-Edge, in Gloucestershire, and in 1634 entered Magdalen Hall, Oxford, where he took his degree of M.A. In 1641 he was elected master of the free school in the town of Gloucester; but having embraced certain opinions in regard to the personality of the Holy Spirit, at variance with those held by the majority of Christians, he was thrown into gaol, December 1645. He was summoned before the parliament at Westminster, tried, and thrown into prison. The famous Westminster Assembly of Divines undertook to 'settle' Biddle's case, but their arguments had only the effect of strengthening his previous convictions. His work on the Holy Spirit, issued in 1647, was burnt by the hangman as blasphemous. In 1648 he published a *Confession of Faith concerning the Holy Trinity*, which was followed by another tract containing the opinions of the Fathers on the same question. Parliament had passed an act declaring the denial of the Trinity a crime punishable by death, and the Westminster Assembly besought parliament to have Biddle executed. Parliament did not respond to this appeal, he never was brought to trial, and personal friends secured his liberation by becoming surety for his appearance when wanted. Cromwell's Act of Oblivion gave him full liberty. He now commenced to gather a congregation of those whom he had converted to his opinions. Twice during the Commonwealth Biddle suffered severely for his creed, and in 1655 was banished to one of the Scilly Isles. In 1658 he was released, and continued to preach in London till the death of Cromwell, and also after the Restoration, until June 1662, when he was again apprehended and fined in £100.

He could not pay it, so was committed to gaol, where he died 22d September of the same year. See UNITARIANS.

Biddle, NICHOLAS, an American financier, born at Philadelphia, January 8, 1786, graduated at Princeton College, and became an energetic member of the legislature of Pennsylvania. In 1823 he was appointed president of the United States Bank, and held that post till 1836. He was next chosen president of the United States Bank of Pennsylvania, but resigned in 1839; two years later the bank became insolvent. He had conducted its affairs with great skill, integrity, and prudence, and he published a series of letters in vindication of his administration. A presentment was made against him for fraud, which was never followed up. Biddle had considerable literary taste, and for some time edited *The Philadelphia Portfolio*, contributing many articles to its pages. By request of the president of the United States, he compiled from the original papers a *History of Lewis and Clarke's Expedition to the Pacific Ocean*; also *The Commercial Digest*, a volume put forth by Congress. He died February 27, 1844.

Bid'eford, a 'little white seaport town' of North Devon, on both sides of the Torridge, 3½ miles above its confluence with the estuary of the Taw, and 9 miles SW. of Barnstaple. The name signifies 'by-the-ford,' and is pronounced *Bid-de-ford*, like that of its American daughter. The old bridge of 24 arches and 226 yards long, which unites the two divisions of Biddeford, was widened in 1864. The church was rebuilt, all but the tower, in 1864. There are manufactures of ropes, sails, earthenware, and leather; and these are exported, together with oak-bark, corn, flour, linens, woollens, iron, &c. Vessels of 500 tons can get up to the quay. Pop. (1881) 6512. A place of Viking sepulture, Biddeford was the port whence Sir Richard Grenville sailed on his last voyage, and it figures much in Kingsley's *Westward Ho!*

Bidpai, also **PILPAY**, the reputed author of a collection of fables and stories widely circulated both in the East and West, of which the earliest extant form exists in an Arabic version of about 750 A.D. The original was an Indian collection of tales which are not now in existence, but of which the *Panchatantra* (q.v.), and to a lesser degree the *Mahābhārata* (q.v.) and the *Hitopadesa* (q.v.), contain each a part, though in a modernised and artificially elaborated form. Of this Indian original, the classical and elegant Arabic version, *Kalilah wa Dimnah*, already spoken of, is a substantially faithful reproduction. It was not made, however, direct from the Sanskrit, but from a lost Pehlevi version, the parent also of an incomplete old Syriac version, dating from about 570, which was discovered in the episcopal library at Mardin at the time of the Vatican Council, and published in 1876 by Bickell with an introduction by Benfey. Save this, every known version of the book descended directly or indirectly from the Arabic version of Abdullah-ibn-Almokaffa of 750. This work as it exists is made up of three elements: Indian, Persian, and Arabic, three chapters being Persian, and six appearing first in the Arabic version, while twelve chapters are of Indian and Buddhist origin. Of these last, five correspond to the five chapters composing the *Panchatantra*, two appear in the first book thereof, three are found in the *Mahābhārata*, and two seem to have fallen out of the Indian literature altogether. However, if Buddhism originated the book, it was Islam which transmitted it to Europe, for no fewer than five different translations were made from the Arabic version—into Syriac (10th or 11th century); Greek (about 1080 by Symeon Seth); Persian (about 1120,

a somewhat free translation, known as that of Nasrullah); Hebrew (13th century by Jacob ben Eleazar); and Old Spanish (1251, from which Raimund's Latin version was made in 1313). A somewhat earlier Hebrew version formed the basis of the *Directorium* (about 1270) of John of Capua, a converted Jew; which in turn gave rise to German by Graf Eberhard (about 1480); Spanish, the *Exemplario* (1493); Italian, (Doni's *Moral Filosofia* (1552), and Firenzuola's *Discorsi degli Animali* (1548); French; English (1570); Danish (1618); and Dutch (1623) versions. The English edition was a rendering by Sir Thomas North (1570) of the Italian *Moral Filosofia* of Doni. The Persian of Nasrullah gave birth to the *Anwār-i-Suhaili*, or 'Nights of Canopus the Star' (late in 15th century), of Husain Wā'iz, which in turn gave rise to the Turkish *Humayūn Nāmah*, or 'Imperial Book' (early in 16th century).

As to the original transmission of the book from India, the story is told that the Persian king Khosrū Nushirvan (531-79), hearing of its existence in India, despatched his physician Barzōye to India to procure and translate a copy of it into Pehlevi, the literary dialect of Persia. Its translator into the older Syriac version was an ecclesiastic named Bād (or Bōd); into Arabic, the elegant and accomplished but ill-fated scholar, 'Abdullah Ibn al-Mokaffā. Of this work each chapter forms a story which is supposed to have been related to a king of India by his philosopher, Baidaba or Bidpai, to point some moral. The story itself is simple in form, but usually branches out into a number of parenthetical stories, conversations, and sayings. In many of the stories animals play parts, and act as if men and women. With the chapter on the lion and the ox, or how two friends may be set at variance by a crafty interloper—the fifth in De Sacy's text—we enter on the original Indian book. The name given to the book, in Arabic *Kalīlah and Dimnah*, in Syriac *Kalīlag and Dammag*, is derived from the Indian names of the two jackals who take a principal part in this story. Perhaps the most pleasing story in the book is that of the ringdove, or the love of sincere friends. The 14th chapter in De Sacy, the story of the king and his dreams, is unmistakably Buddhist, the Brahmins in it being presented in the most odious light. In this story none of the parts are taken by animals. The account of the mission of Barzōye to India, and his biography, are given in all the versions except the later Syriac just before the story of the lion and the ox, and after the table of contents. The prominent part which asceticism plays in this biography Benfey connects with Buddhism, then in full vigour in India.

An eclectic text of the Arabic version was edited by Silvestre de Sacy (Paris, 1816), and has been translated into English by Knatchbull (Oxford, 1819), and into German by Phillip Wolff (2 vols. Stutt. 1839). The later Syriac version was edited by Professor Wright (1884), and was translated into English, with an excellent introduction, by the late I. G. N. Keith-Falconer (1885).—See also Loiseleur Deslongchamps, *Essai sur les Fables Indiennes* (Paris, 1838); Max Müller, 'On the Migration of Fables,' in vol. iii. (1880) of *Chips from a German Workshop*; and Rhys Davids, *Buddhist Birth Stories* (1880).

Biebrich, a town on the right bank of the Rhine, 2½ miles S. of Wiesbaden. It has the castle of the dukes of Nassau, several factories, and (1885) 9667 inhabitants.

Biel. See BIENNE.

Bielefeld, a busy town in the Prussian province of Westphalia, picturesquely situated on the little Lutter, at the foot of the Teutoburger-Wald,

28 miles SW. of Minden. The old walls which withstood the last siege in 1673, have been converted into promenades. Bielefeld is the centre of the Westphalian linen-trade, its yearly output having a value of about £50,000. It has extensive bleaching-grounds, manufactures of woollen thread, soap, leather, and its meerschaum pipes are celebrated. Pop. (1871) 24,521; (1885) 34,924.

Bieleff, an ancient town of Russia, in the government of Tula, on the Oka, 160 miles SSW. of Moscow. Pop. 9171.

Bielitz, a town of Austrian Silesia, on the left bank of the Biala, 60 miles SW. of Cracow by rail. It has dye-works, and carries on a trade in woollen cloths, wine, and salt. Pop. (1880) 13,060.

Biella, a town of North Italy, in the province of Novara, 56 miles NE. of Turin by rail. It has some manufactures, and is the seat of a bishop. Pop. 11,662.

Biélo-oz'ero, ('White Lake'), a lake in the government of Novgorod, Russia, covering an area of 432 sq. m., its length being about 25 miles, and its breadth 20. Its surplus waters are conveyed by the Sheksna River into the Volga, and canals unite it with the Onega, Sukonn, and Dwina.—**BIÉLO-ZERSK** is an old wooden town on the south shore of the lake. Pop. (1881) 4286.

Biélo-pol, a town of Russia, 106 miles NW. of the city of Kharkov, with extensive brandy distilleries. Pop. 12,178.

Bielshöhle, a stalactite cavern in the Harz Mountains, on the right bank of the Bode. It was discovered about 1672, but first made accessible in 1788. Its entrance is 108 feet above the bed of the stream; and its total length is 230 yards.

Bielsk', a town of Russia, in the government of Grodno, 112 miles NE. of Warsaw. Pop. 9763.

Bienne, in German **BIEL**, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, 56 miles SW. of Basel by rail, beautifully situated at the base of the vine-clad Jura, and at the foot of the Lake of Bienne. Pop. (1880) 11,623, engaged in the manufacture of watches, leather, cotton, &c. Bienne is mentioned as early as 814. From 1262 it belonged to the bishops of Basel; but in 1352 it entered into an alliance with Bern, and after the Reformation was essentially a free and independent city until 1798, when it was annexed to France. In 1815 it was united to Bern.—The LAKE OF BIENNE, lying 1424 feet above sea-level, extends 9 miles northward along the base of the Jura Mountains, its greatest breadth being 3 miles. It receives the surplus waters of Lake Neuchâtel by the Thiel, by which river it again discharges its own. Its maximum depth is 252 feet. Towards its head is the Ile St Pierre, to which Rousseau retired for two months in 1765.

Biennials, or BIENNIAL PLANTS, are plants which do not flower in the first season of their growth, but flower and bear fruit in the second season, and then die. The most familiar example is perhaps that of the common foxglove (*Digitalis*). Many of our cultivated plants are biennials, as the carrot, turnip, parsnip, parsley, celery, &c., and many of the most esteemed flowers of our gardens, as stock, wallflower, honesty, &c. But plants which in ordinary circumstances are biennials, often become Annuals (q.v.), when early sowing, warm weather, or other causes promote the earlier development of a flowering stem, as is continually exemplified in all the kinds already named. If, on the other hand, the flowering of the plant is prevented—or, in many cases, if it is merely prevented from ripening its seed—it will continue to live for a much longer period; the same bed of parsley, if regularly cut over, will remain productive

for a number of years, while a normally annual plant like *mignonette* may be kept growing for two years or more if its flowering be carefully prevented.

Bierstadt, ALBERT, an American artist, born at Disseldorf in 1830, was brought next year to the United States, but studied in Europe, 1853-57. In 1859 he visited the Rocky Mountains, and the first result of his sketches was 'Lander's Peak' (1863), which created some impression at the Paris Exposition. Since then, mountain scenes have been his favourite subjects, and these he treats with considerable vigour of drawing and brilliancy of colouring. He has received decorations from several continental countries, and is a member of the St Petersburg Academy.

Bies-Bosch, a marshy sheet of water of the Netherlands, extending over an area of 77 sq. m., between the provinces North Brabant and South Holland.

Blestings. See BEESTINGS.

Biffin. See APPLE.

Bigamy, according to the canonists, consisted in marrying two virgins successively, one after the death of the other, or in once marrying a widow; and persons so offending were held to be afterwards disqualified for holy orders. But according to the ordinary English use of the word since the 13th century, bigamy is the entering into a second marriage while the first subsists; and this is condemned by the civil law and the church law of all modern civilised states. The severe English statute of 1604 was modified in 1829, punishment of penal servitude (for not more than seven years) and imprisonment being substituted for that of death. The Scottish statute of 1551 was directed against the perjury involved in the violation of the solemn marriage oath taken in church; but even in cases of the most irregular marriage by the mere exchange of consent, bigamy is recognised by the common law of Scotland as an offence, and in spite of the protests of Baron Hume, has frequently been punished by imprisonment, and penal servitude is, in the discretion of the judge, also sometimes inflicted. An account of some foreign laws will be found in the Report of the Royal Commission on the Marriage Laws, 1868.

The English Act of 1829 excepts from its provisions the following four cases: (1) That of a second marriage contracted out of England by one who is not a subject of the realm. (2) That of any person marrying a second time, whose husband or wife shall have been continually absent from such person for the space of seven years, and shall not have been known by such person to be living within that time. (3) That of a person who, at the time of such second marriage, shall have been delivered from the bond of the first marriage on grounds recognised by English law. (4) That of a person whose former marriage shall have been declared void from the beginning by any court of competent jurisdiction. These exceptions bring out some points of difference between the English and Scottish laws. (1) The Scottish law would treat the foreign marriage as an offence against the law protecting the first marriage at home, and would therefore punish in this case also. (2) Reasonable ground for believing in the death of the first spouse would be a defence to a prosecution for bigamy in Scotland, although seven years had not elapsed. (3) The English law does not recognise divorce from the first marriage as a defence, unless it has been given in such circumstances as justify divorce on the comparatively limited grounds recognised by the English Divorce Act. Hence, in the famous case of *Lolley*, an Englishman was convicted of bigamy in England, although he had obtained in Scotland a

divorce from the first marriage on the ground of adultery. There is a tendency in the English courts now to treat divorce as an incident of the law of the domicile of the spouses, but the matter remains in an unsatisfactory position. (4) It will be understood that bigamy is committed whatever may be the legal impediment otherwise (e.g. relationship) to the attempted second marriage. The unmarried person who knowingly enters into a bigamous marriage is treated as a principal in the second degree in England, and as art and part in Scotland.

In the United States, bigamy is everywhere treated as a crime, punishable by fine and imprisonment. It is punished in the several states by state laws giving the courts discretionary power to fix the punishment. The law gives the minimum and maximum punishment, usually from one to three years' imprisonment and \$500 and \$1000 fine.

Bigelow, the name of several notable Americans, of whom the most important are—(1) ERASTUS BRIGHAM, born in Massachusetts, 1814; invented, while yet a lad, looms for weaving suspender webbing and piping cord, and afterwards constructed a machine for making knotted counterpanes, and a valuable loom for weaving carpets. He died in 1879.—(2) JACOB, physician, born in Massachusetts, 1787; graduated at Harvard University in 1806, and early became known as a skilful botanist. He practised for over forty years in Boston, and filled several chairs at Harvard. His professional publications are numerous, and the single-word nomenclature of the *American Pharmacopœia* of 1820, afterwards adopted in England, is largely due to him. He died 10th January 1879.—(3) JOHN, born at Malden, New York, 1817, was managing editor of the *New York Evening Post* from 1850 to 1861, when he went as consul to Paris. From 1865 to 1866 he was United States Minister in France; and in 1875 he was elected secretary of state of New York, but since 1877 he has taken no part in politics. He has, among other works, written *Lives of Fremont* (1856) and *William Cullen Bryant* (1886), besides editing Franklin's *Autobiography* from the original MSS. which he found in France (1868; new ed. 3 vols. 1875); Franklin's *Complete Works* (1886), and Tilden's *Writings and Speeches* (2 vols. 1886).

Bigg, or BIG BARLEY, a local name for the common bere, or four-rowed barley (*Hordeum vulgare*). See BARLEY.

Biggar, a town of Lanarkshire, 28 miles SW. of Edinburgh, with which it has connection by rail. The Collegiate Church of St Mary was founded in 1545; of Bognall Castle, the seat of the great Fleming family, hardly a vestige remains. Dr John Brown, author of *Rob and his Friends*, was born in the United Presbyterian manse; and John Gladstones (1693-1756), great-grandfather of W. E. Gladstone, is buried in the churchyard. Pop. (1881) 1556. See Hunter's *Biggar and the House of Fleming* (2d ed. 1867).

Biggleswade, a market-town of Bedfordshire, 41 miles NW. of London by rail, with a great corn-market. Pop. (1881) 4947.

Big Horn, a navigable river of the United States, and the largest affluent of the Yellowstone, rises near Fremont's Peak in the Rocky Mountains, in the NW. of Wyoming territory. It has a north-east course of about 350 miles, and falls into the Yellowstone.

Bignoniaceæ, a tropical order of corollifloral dicotyledons, closely allied to the Scrophulariaceæ (q.v.), from which they may be distinguished by the longitudinal dehiscence of the capsule, and by their winged exalbuminous seeds (see TRUMPET-

FLOWER). They are in many cases noble trees, and some of them afford valuable timber, among which may be named *Bignonia leucoxydon*, a tree of Jamaica, which is sometimes imported for cabinetmakers, &c. under the name of green or



Bignonia radicans.

yellow ebony; some Brazilian species (*Jacaranda brasiliana*) furnish exceedingly hard and beautiful timber. Not a few of them are climbing shrubs (lianas), and the tough shoots of *Bignonia kerere* are used for wicker-work in Guinea. *Bignonia alliacea*, a native of the West Indies, is remarkable for its strong alliaceous smell; the leaves of *Bignonia Chica* afford the red colouring matter called Chica (q.v.). Some are herbaceous; of these the most important is Sesamum (q.v.).

Bigod, the name of a family founded by a poor Norman knight, which acquired the earldom of Norfolk in the reign of Stephen. The second earl, Roger, took a prominent part in securing Magna Charta; in 1306 the earldom became extinct.

Bigorre, a mountainous district of South-west France, formerly belonging to Gascony, but now for the most part embraced in the department of Hautes-Pyrénées. Tarbes (q.v.) has been the chief town since the days of the Romans. See BAGNÈRES.

Big Sandy River, also called *Chatterawah*, a navigable affluent of the Ohio, formed by the junction of two branches which rise in Virginia. The west fork traverses several counties of Kentucky, and the east fork is, during the later part of its course, the boundary between the two states.

Bihacz (*Bihatch*), a strong fortress-town of North-west Bosnia, on the Una, near the Croatian frontier. It has been the scene of frequent contests during the Turkish wars, and there is a fine monument to the Austrians who fell in the campaign of 1878. Pop. 3097, mostly Mohammedans.

Bihé, a fruitful district of South Africa, E. of Benguela, and under Portuguese influence. The eastern part rises to a lofty plateau, where the climate is delightful. Bihé is an important caravan centre, as the only route across the continent south of the Congo passes through it. The trade is chiefly in slaves and ivory. Area, 2500 sq. m.; pop. 95,000. Kagnouba, the king's capital, is more than 3 miles in circumference. See Major S. Pinto's *How I Crossed Africa* (1881).

Bijanaghur. See VIJAYANAGAR.

Bijapur, a decayed city in the Bombay Presidency, 160 miles SE. of Poona. It was for centuries the flourishing capital of a powerful kingdom, but fell therewith under various dynasties in succession, Hindu and Mussulman, till in 1686 it was captured by Aurungzebe. It passed during the

early part of the 18th century into the hands of the Mahrattas, and became British in 1848. Now that a gradual decay has done its worst, Bijapur presents a contrast perhaps unequalled in the world. Lofty walls of hewn stone, still entire, inclose the silent and desolate fragments of a once vast and populous city. With the exception of an ancient temple, the sole relic of aboriginal domination, the ruins are Mohammedan, and consist of beautiful mosques, colossal tombs, a fort, with an inner citadel, a mile in circuit. The British government has done everything to prevent further decay. Pop. (1881) 11,424. See Fergusson's *Indian Architecture* (1876).

Bijawar, a petty native state in the Bundelkhand Agency, with an area of 974 sq. m. Diamonds and ironstone are found, but the country is poor and hilly. Pop. (1881) 113,285.

Bijharu, or BIJBAHAR, a town in Kashmir state, India, on the Jhelum, 25 miles SE. of Srinagar. It is the second city in the state.

Bijnaur, a town of the North-west Provinces, 3 miles E. of the Ganges. Sugar, Brahmanical threads, and cotton cloth are manufactured. It is a seat of the American Methodist Mission and headquarters of the Jâts. Pop. (1881) 15,147.—The district of Bijnaur, in the N. of the Rohilkhand division, contains more than a dozen towns with a population of over 5000. It has an area of 1868 sq. m. Pop. (1881) 721,450.

Bikaner, the capital of a Rajput state, lies in a desolate tract, 250 miles WSW. of Delhi. It is surrounded by a battlemented wall of 3½ miles in circuit, and from a distance presents a magnificent appearance; but many of the carved buildings for which it is notable are situated in narrow and dirty lanes, and the people are extremely dirty. There are seven Jain monasteries. Pottery, stone-cutting and carving, the making of a white candy and of blankets, are amongst the industries of the place. Pop. (1881) 43,283.—The state contains 22,340 sq. m. The Rajputs are the dominant race; but Jâts form the great body of the inhabitants. The greater part of the state is a dreary, undulating plain interspersed with shifting sandhills, grass, and jungle bushes. The horses, cattle, and buffaloes of Bikaner are famous. The climate is remarkable for extreme changes of temperature. Pop. (1881) 215,371.

Bikh is an Indian poison. See ACONITE.

Bilbao, a town of Northern Spain, the capital of the Basque province of Vizcaya (Biscay), is situated in a mountain gorge on the Nervion, 8 miles SE. of its mouth at Portugalete, and 63 miles N. by E. of Miranda by rail. Bilbao is well built; the principal streets are straight and the houses substantial; but there are no public buildings of any note. Four bridges span the river, which divides the old town from the new. The city is purely commercial. There are docks for building merchant-vessels, and in the vicinity are iron and copper mines. The old fame of Bilbao's iron and steel manufactures is attested by the terms *bilbo*, 'a rapier,' and *bilboes*, 'irons'—both common in Elizabethan writers. The canalisation of the river in 1886 has since enabled steamers of 700 to 800 tons register to come up to the town; but the narrow channel and the heavy sea on the bar still render the port equally difficult to enter or leave. Nevertheless, the annual amount of British tonnage entering Bilbao largely exceeds that of any other foreign port in Europe, with the exception of Antwerp. In 1886, 3958 vessels of 2,637,226 tons entered the port; of these, 1709, with a tonnage of 1,882,430, were British. The chief imports are coal, coke, codfish, timber, petroleum, tin, sugar,

coffee, and colonial goods, amounting in 1886 to £2,173,226, of which £1,032,140 were British. The exports, which include pig-iron, red wines, and wool, are numerous and unimportant, with the exception of iron-ore, on which the prosperity of the port depends. In 1886, in a total for all exports of £3,250,000, the iron-ore amounted to 3,160,047 tons, valued at £1,817,027, of which over two-thirds were sent to Britain. Pop. (1884) 33,513. Bilbao was founded in the year 1300 by Diego Lopez de Haro under the name of Belvao—i.e. 'the fine fort'—and soon attained great prosperity. In the 15th century it was the seat of the most authoritative commercial tribunal in Spain. It suffered severely in the wars with France, first in 1795, and again in 1808, when 1200 of its inhabitants were slaughtered in cold blood. During the Carlist struggles Bilbao has stood two great sieges, Zumalacarregruy here receiving his death-wound in 1835, whilst in 1874 the place was vainly besieged and heavily bombarded by the forces of Don Carlos for four whole months.

Bilberry. See WHORTLEBERRY.

Bil'bilis, an old Iberian city of Spain, 2 miles E. of the modern town of Calatayud (q.v.), in the province of Saragossa, chiefly celebrated as the birthplace of the poet Martial, but also famed for its highly tempered steel blades.

Bilcock. See RAIL.

Bilderdiijk, WILLEM, a Dutch poet and philologist, was born at Amsterdam, 7th September 1756. While studying law at Leyden, and afterwards, when practising at the Hague, he devoted himself assiduously to literature and poetry. On the invasion of Holland by the French he repaired to Brunswick, and afterwards visited London, where he supported himself by lecturing and teaching. In 1806 he returned to Holland, where he was received as one who had done his country honour; and the newly-elected king of Holland (Louis Bonaparte) appointed him president of the new Institute at Amsterdam, and also made him his own instructor in the Dutch language. Bilderdiijk afterwards resided at Leyden and then at Haarlem, where he died 18th December 1831. His contributions to poetic literature were very numerous; but though his lyrics especially contain many beauties, yet, with one or two exceptions, none of his poems display any remarkable originality, or any great wealth of imagination. He also made valuable contributions to the exposition of the older monuments of Dutch literature, and wrote a history of the Netherlands. He was strongly conservative in his tendencies, theological and other. His collected poems have been edited by Da Costa (Amsterdam, 1856-59).

Bile is a fluid secreted from the blood by the liver. One part of it is destined to serve in the process of digestion; the other to be eliminated from the system. It is coloured yellow in man, and in carnivorous and omnivorous animals; it is green in vegetable feeders. The primary cells of the liver (the hepatic cells) separate the bile from the blood of the portal vein, and discharge it into small ducts, which unite to form larger ones, and eventually the right and left hepatic ducts. The latter unite to form the common hepatic duct, which is soon joined by that of the gall-bladder (the cystic duct). This junction forms the common bile duct, which pierces the second part of the duodenum, and running obliquely in its wall for a short distance, opens on its mucous surface.

Bile is constantly being secreted, more copiously after food; while the duodenum is empty, most of it passes up the cystic duct into the gall-bladder where it is stored. But when the contents of the

stomach are carried past the opening of the common bile duct, a copious flow of bile takes place into the duodenum, where it is mixed with the food, in order to aid the further processes of digestion.

The composition of human bile is on the average of

Water.....	about 86 per cent.
Bile-salts.....	" 8 "
Mucin.....	" 2 "
Other organic substances.....	" 3 "
Inorganic substances (ash).....	" 0.6 "

The *bile-salts* (glycocholate and taurocholate of soda) are the most important constituents. If an animal membrane be wetted with a solution of these salts, it allows fatty substances to filter through it much more readily than if pure water or a solution of an inorganic salt be used; and this property aids in the absorption of fatty foods by the intestine. The bile-salts also assist in the emulsification, and to a certain extent, in the solution of fats. The *mucin* gives bile its viscid consistence. The other organic constituents include *fats and soaps*; *cholesterin*, chemically an alcohol, a crystallisable substance which is usually the chief constituent of biliary calculi or gall-stones (see CALCULUS); and the *bile-pigments*. The ash contains a considerable proportion of iron, derived, like the bile-pigments, from disintegrated red blood corpuscles (see BLOOD).

Human bile has the specific gravity of about 1026 (water = 1000), is of aropy consistence, with usually a yellowish-brown colour; does not readily mix with water, but sinks therein, and only after repeated agitation becomes diffused through the water, which then assumes a frothy appearance resembling soap-suds. Bile has a bitter taste and a faint musky odour. Besides aiding in the digestion of fats, bile stimulates the various muscular fibres of the intestine, and thus aids both the absorption and the propulsion of its contents; while the mucus it contains acts as a lubricant. It has also an antiseptic action, diminishing the putrefactive changes of the intestinal contents. Should, from any cause, the elements of the bile be in excess in the blood, or should the liver suspend the function of secreting it, not only is digestion imperfectly performed, but the general health suffers from the impure condition of the blood, and the patient is said to be *bilious*. On the other hand, the bile may be secreted, but its escape interfered with, and then its reabsorption will produce Jaundice (q.v.). See also the articles LIVER and DIGESTION.

BILIOUS ATTACK.—When the functions of the liver are temporarily interfered with, and particularly the secretion of bile diminished, most often in consequence of imprudence in eating or drinking, a *bilious attack* results. The liver, however, is rarely if ever affected alone, the stomach and intestines being also disordered; in most cases the stomach is probably the first to suffer. There are pain and discomfort in the abdomen, usually headache, and a yellowish discoloration of the skin and whites of the eyes; the tongue is furred and the appetite impaired, and the temper often becomes very irritable. Vomiting and diarrhoea often occur, and are in such a case salutary processes. The administration of a purgative is beneficial; and the food taken, if any, must be small in amount, simple, and readily digestible—e.g. milk with potash water, toast, biscuits, &c. See LIVER.

Bilge (sometimes spelled BULGE) is the part of the bottom of a ship nearest to the keel, and always more nearly horizontal than vertical. A ship usually rests on the keel and one side of the bilge when aground. The name of *bilge-water* is given to water which finds its way into the bilge or lowest part of a ship, and which, when not drawn off by the pump, becomes dirty and offensive.

Bilharzia (*Distomum* or *Gyrocophorus haematobius*), a parasitic flat worm in the fluke or Trematode order, and belonging either to the same genus as the common liver-fluke (*D. hepaticum*), or to one very closely related. The most remarkable fact



Bilharzia:
a, male; b, female.

about this worm is the separation and relation of the sexes. In all other Trematodes the sexes are united, the animals are hermaphrodite, but here a grooved canal, formed from two folds of skin on the ventral surface of the larger male, contains the female. Pairs thus united are found in the portal and other vessels in the abdominal region, both in men and monkeys. They are especially abundant in boys, and cause hæmaturia and other troubles. These are mainly due to the inflammation caused by the deposition of the ova in the vessels of the mucous membrane of ureter, bladder, intestine, &c. They occur from Egypt southwards to the Cape. It is said that about half of the Fellah and Copt population of Egypt suffer from this parasite. The embryos are ciliated, but the life-history is not known. See FLUKE.

Biliary Calculi. See CALCULUS.

Bilibl. See CARAMBOLA.

Bilin', a town of Bohemia, on the Bila, 5 miles SW. of Teplitz, and famous for its mineral springs, which, from their richness in native carbonate of soda, rank first among the German establishments. The waters and their various mineral constituents are exported in great quantities, and the springs are largely sought by sufferers from gastric, catarrhal, or serofulous complaints. The town, since 1464 the seat of the princes of Lobkowitz, whose castle rises near by, is surrounded with basalt crags, and in its vicinity is a remarkable isolated clinkstone rock, 1754 feet high, Borzenberg or Biliner Stein. Pop. 5604.

Bill, in Natural History, the horny, toothless, and lipless jaws of birds. (a) *Structure*.—The foremost bones of the skull (mainly, the premaxillæ, but also the maxillæ and nasals) are elongated in variable degree and form, and are covered with a horny sheath. The same is true of the lower jaw or mandible, and the result is a bill. The upper and lower portions are generally equal, but the upper is longer in birds of prey. The edges, usually more or less sharp, sometimes (e.g. in goosander) exhibit saw-like notches not unlike teeth. In the majority of cases the bill is not sensitive, the distribution of nerves being restricted to a wax-like patch (the *cere*) at the base of the upper part of the beak. In aquatic birds, such as ducks and snipes, which feel for their food in the mud, this sensitive skin is carried forward almost to the point; and the bill of the woodpecker is also very richly supplied with nerves. The nostrils are usually far back near the cere, but often lie farther forward, most markedly perhaps in puffins.

(b) *History*.—No living birds have teeth. With the evolution of the class these structures have been lost. The fossil birds of America (*Odontornithes*) exhibit teeth, within sockets in *Ichthyornis*, simply in grooves in *Hesperornis*. But even in these forms the characteristic bones of the upper part of the bill—the premaxillæ—were toothless, and probably insheathed in a horny beak. The primitive bird *Archæopteryx* was also provided with numerous uniform teeth. From the beginning of the Tertiary Period onwards no toothed birds are found. Traces of teeth, however, still persist. Geoffroy St Hilaire (died 1844) observed small tooth-papillæ in the embryos of certain parrots, and this observation

has been repeatedly confirmed. The presence of the characteristic tooth-substance dentine has even been asserted. The tortoise tribe have also lost their teeth, and here again the presence of rudimentary teeth in embryos (*Trionyx*) proves that the toothless state is secondary. That birds get on well without teeth is evident enough, but it is difficult to give a physiological explanation of their absence. The very spongy character of bird bone, obviously inconsistent with teeth, the sharp antithesis between the skin structures of birds and those of reptiles, the disuse resulting from the developed parental care which supplies the young with food, the general nature of the nutrition, and the freedom from fighting which birds must at first have enjoyed, ought probably to be taken into account, but some deeper physiological reason is still required. This is peculiarly difficult when we recall the very varied nature and habit of toothless vertebrate animals—e.g. pipe-fish, toads, turtles and tortoises, birds, duckmole, echidna, ant-eaters, and some whales.

(c) *Relation to Function*.—The bill is chiefly used in seizing and dividing the food, but also for fighting, preening, nest-building, &c. It varies most with the nature of the food. It is hardest in birds which live on fruits, seeds, and flesh; sharpest in the birds of prey; more delicate in insectivorous forms; and softest in those which pick their food out of the mud. It is shortest in the granivorous, and longest in the marsh-birds. In birds of prey the beak is hooked, and often notched; in fishing-birds it is usually very large; in those which catch flying insects the gape is particularly wide. Water birds often exhibit cross plates at the margins, between which the water taken in with the food is allowed to escape. Wallace has noted an interesting correspondence between the length of a humming-bird's bill and the depth of the flower-tube which it visits. Finally, it is worth noting that beaks sometimes exhibit (e.g. in fowls and sparrows) pathological variations, which closely resemble what in other birds are the normal forms. See BIRDS.

Bill, in its general acceptation, means a formal written paper or statement of any kind; originally, it was applied to any sealed document, being derived from Lat. *bullā*, 'a seal' (Middle English, *bille*; English Law Latin, *billā*). It has a number of technical applications, for which see the articles that immediately follow, as also PARLIAMENT; RIGHTS, BILL OF; INDEMNITY; EXCHEQUER BILLS; ATTAINDER; PAINS AND PENALTIES.

Bill, in the criminal law of England, is the formal name of a written accusation of serious crime preferred before a grand jury. If that body by a majority finds 'a true bill,' the prisoner or party accused is thereupon tried upon an indictment before a petty jury, whose verdict determines his guilt or his innocence; but if the grand jury find 'no true bill,' the accused is at once set at liberty. In the latter event, however, other bills may be sent up against him. This whole procedure is more quickly and cheaply managed in Scotland by the system of public prosecutors, who take the responsibility of proceeding to trial without a preliminary public investigation. See GRAND JURY, INDICTMENT, PROSECUTION, TRIAL.

BILL, or **BILL OF COMPLAINT**, was the name given in the English Court of Chancery, prior to the Judicature Act of 1873, to the formal statement of the facts and prayer for relief submitted by a plaintiff to the court. This is now in every case a Writ of Summons (q.v.) and Statement of Claim (q.v.), and is not greatly different from a well-drawn summons and condescendence in the Scottish courts. In the United States, the bill consists of the statement, the charges, the interrogatories, the prayer of relief, and the prayer of process.

Bill-brokers are persons who, being skilled in the money-market, the state of mercantile and personal credit, and the rates of exchange, engage, either on their own account, or that of their employers, in the purchase and sale of foreign and inland bills of exchange, and promissory-notes. They are to be distinguished from discount-brokers, or bill-discounters, whose business consists in discounting or advancing the amount of bills of exchange and notes which have some time to run before they come due, on the faith of the credit of the parties to the bill. Thus a bill-broker might purchase a doubtful bill and discount it by means of his own credit. The distinction between them is not, however, in practice a very broad one. See **BILL OF EXCHANGE, BROKER, PROMISSORY-NOTE.**

Bill-chamber is a department of the Court of Session in Scotland which deals with summary business—so called because formerly both summonses and diligence or execution were for the most part commenced by a writ called a bill. These bills went to the whole court, but the necessity for them has been in most cases abolished by the reforming legislation of the 19th century. Since 1813 the bill-chamber is presided over by a single judge called the Lord Ordinary on the bills, and during the sittings of the Court of Session, the duty is taken by the junior or last appointed judge of the court; but in vacation-time, the business of the Bill-chamber is performed by a rotation of judges.

The business of the Bill-chamber consists of all matters of a summary nature; and generally all cases requiring the immediate interposition of judicial authority for arrestment of funds or inhibition of heritable property, for stay or suspension of diligence or execution. Applications for interdict or injunction, and for certain warrants necessary for the execution of process, are there at once made. Appeals from the inferior courts are now carried straight to the Court of Session; and the ordinary execution of decrees works automatically. The decision of the judge in the Bill-chamber may, with some exceptions, be brought under review of the Court of Session, and the judgment of the court itself may be appealed to the House of Lords. The proper jurisdiction of the Bill-chamber has been largely supplemented by statute. Thus, under all the bankruptcy statutes, sequestration may be obtained either in the Bill-chamber or in the local sheriff court; and on several important points in sequestration there is an appeal from the sheriff to the Bill-chamber. Again in vacation, the Bill-chamber exercises many of the powers of the Court of Session—e.g. in petitions for interim appointment of public officers, petitions under the Entail, Lands, Houses, and Pupil Protection Acts, &c. The Bill-chamber is open every lawful day from 10 to 4, and the papers lodged are twice in the day laid before the judge. See **COURT OF SESSION, INTERDICT, CAVEAT.**

Bill of Adventure is a writing by a merchant, stating that goods shipped by him, and in his name, are the property of another, whose *adventure* or chance the transaction is—the shipping merchant, on the other hand, undertaking to account to the adventurer for the produce. Generally, in commercial law, an adventure may be said to be a speculation in goods shipped under the care of a *supercargo*, to be disposed of by him to the best advantage, for the benefit of his employers.

Bill of Costs is an account stating in detail the charges and disbursements of an attorney or solicitor in the conduct of his client's business. It corresponds to the Account of Expenses in judicial proceedings, and the Business and Cash Accounts in Scotland. In both countries the solicitor may be

ordered to make out his bill if he claims any security on the client's property or papers. See **COSTS.**

Bill of Exceptions is a statement of objections, by way of appeal, against the decision of a judge who is trying a case with a jury in the Court of Session. The objection may be that the judge has misdirected the jury in point of law, or has improperly rejected or admitted evidence. The bill is argued before four judges, and if it is sustained, a new trial is ordered. The phrase was prior to the Judicature Act also used in England in the same sense, but is now merged in the 'motion for a new trial' (see **TRIAL**). In the United States, the phrase is used for a statement of the objections of either party to the ruling of the judge during the trial. Exceptions must be taken at the time, and should not be mixed up with supposed conclusions in matters of fact.

Bill of Exchange, a document purporting to be an instrument of pecuniary obligation for value received, and which is employed for the purpose of settling a debt in a manner convenient to the parties concerned. The original and simple purpose of a bill is to obviate the necessity of cash payments in the settlement of accounts between parties at a distance from one another. Thus, A and B are two merchants in London; and C is a merchant in Cadiz. A owes C £1000; and C owes B a like sum. Instead of A sending cash to C, and C to B, C draws a bill for £1000 upon his debtor A, and sends it on to B, who receives the amount from A; so that the transaction throughout is settled, without a farthing in money being sent from Cadiz to London, or from London to Cadiz. It is easy to see that a bill may, in a similar manner, pass through several other hands before it finally comes back to A, and is paid by him. Another simple idea of a bill is this: One person owes another £100 for goods, for which he is to have credit for three months. The creditor, however, not being able conveniently to be without the money for that length of time, gets from the debtor an obligation or bill bearing that the £100 is to be paid in three months. This bill, being a negotiable instrument, will be discounted by a banker, or other capitalist, who now stands in the position of the creditor, and receives payment when the bill is due. Thus, a bill of exchange performs two kinds of offices in commerce—it saves the transmission of coined money, and it enables creditors not only to fix down debtors to a day of payment, but to get the use of a sum equivalent to the debt (less a small discount) before it is properly due.

The origin of this important mercantile instrument is usually attributed to the Jews and Lombards, when banished from France and England in the 13th century. It is certain that hitherto no trace of such bills has been discovered either in the Roman code, or in any other system of ancient jurisprudence. The first notice of them in modern times occurs about the middle of the 12th century, and by the end of the 14th they had got into general use in all the commercial states of Europe. In England, from about the middle of the 14th century down to the time of James I., and for many years after, bills of exchange were restricted to the purposes of foreign commerce. What are called inland bills—i.e. bills drawn by and upon persons resident in this country—were not employed much earlier than the reign of Charles II., and even then they were regarded with distrust and jealousy by the English judges. Another restriction upon bills of exchange was, that the privilege of their use was confined to merchants. But all restraints on such instruments gradually yielded to the wants and conveniences of society, and now any one capable of making a contract can

be a party to a bill transaction, without regard to position, calling, or occupation. In Scotland, inland bills were put on the same footing with foreign bills, by an act of the Scottish parliament passed in 1696. Numerous enactments were passed from time to time, until in 1882 a measure became law, known as the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 and 46 Vict. chap. 61), which was intended to codify the existing law relating to bills of exchange, cheques, and promissory-notes. Besides doing this, the act introduces certain changes into the existing law, and in particular it assimilates in nearly every respect the laws of the three kingdoms in regard to bills or notes. Differences still exist in the following points: A bill does not in England, as it does in Scotland, operate as an assignation in favour of the holder of a debt due by the drawee to the drawer; the act does not alter the former rules as to bankruptcy in Scotland, nor in regard to the sexennial prescription or limitation, and the summary methods of enforcing payment, which continue to differ to some extent in each country; and in Scotland consideration is not required to support a bill as it is for simple contracts in England. The laws relating to bills in the United States, and in the various British colonies, are similar to the English law.

A bill of exchange is defined to be a written and unconditional order, addressed by a person who is called the drawer, to another person called the drawee, desiring him to pay a certain sum of money to a specified person, or his order, or to bearer, within a certain time after its date, or after it is presented for payment, or on demand. If the drawee signs the bill in token of his agreeing to this request, he is called the acceptor. A *Promissory-note* (q.v.), though differing in form, is in all essentials equivalent to a bill. It is, in fact, simply a bill in which the drawer and the acceptor are identical. A bank-note is a promissory-note issued by a banker, payable to bearer on demand, and a bank *cheque* is a bill of exchange drawn on a banker. Subject to certain special provisions they are regulated by the same rules as other bills. For the constitution of the bill itself, no particular form of words is necessary, provided its characteristic qualities clearly appear on the face of it, as a pecuniary instrument and an unqualified order. A bill of exchange is only good for a certain sum in money; such an instrument for the delivery of goods or property other than money would not be a bill. But although no particular words are required in a bill or note, it is always advisable to adhere, as much as possible, to their customary form. The only restrictions in regard to amount are that no bills or notes can be issued or negotiated in Scotland for less than 20s. (8 and 9 Vict. chap. 38), and that notes for less than £5, payable to bearer on demand, cannot be issued in England, nor, except by bankers, in Scotland or Ireland.

Besides the other requisites mentioned, bills of exchange must be duly *stamped*. The regulations on this subject are contained in the Stamp Act, 1870, and are to be found in almanacs and other publications in common use. The omission of the stamp, or using a stamp of insufficient amount, cannot be subsequently rectified; the bill is altogether void, and the parties to it are liable to a penalty of £10. A bill payable on demand, however, which is only liable to a stamp-duty of one penny, may be stamped with an adhesive stamp subsequent to its issue, but the above penalties are still enforceable. The duties on bills drawn out of the United Kingdom are denoted by adhesive stamps, to be affixed by the holder of the bill before negotiating it.

The following is the usual form of an inland bill of exchange (for foreign bills, see below):

£100.

(Stamp.) Two months after date [or 'at sight,' or 'on demand,' or 'at — days after sight'], pay to Mr E. F., or order [or 'to me, or order,' or 'to bearer'], One Hundred Pounds, for value received. A. B.

To Mr C. D., Merchant, Bristol.

From this form it will be seen that there are usually three parties to a bill of exchange, these three being: (1) The *drawer* (A. B.); (2) the *acceptor* or *drawee* (C. D.), to whom the order is addressed; and (3) the *payee*, or party in whose favour the bill is drawn, and who is entitled to receive the contents (E. F.). The transaction, however, may be simply between the drawer and acceptor, without the interposition of a third party; and there are other modifications and changes of form, according to the circumstances of the case, and the mode in which it is desired to have the bill negotiated. The bill being thus in proper form, and duly authenticated, is then presented for acceptance, which may be defined to be the act by which the drawee evinces his consent to comply with, and be bound by, the request contained in the bill of exchange directed to him; or, in other words, it is an engagement to pay in money the bill when due. Acceptance in the case both of inland and foreign bills of exchange must now be in writing on the bill, and signed by the acceptor, or some person duly authorised by him; the mere signature of the drawee, without any additional words, being sufficient. There are certain precautions to be observed before accepting. The drawee should, upon presentation for acceptance, and before he accepts, assure himself that the signature of the drawer is genuine, and that there has not been a fraudulent substitution of a larger sum than that originally inserted in the bill by the drawer. And if the drawee accept a forged bill, or a bill for a larger amount than that originally named by the drawer, he will nevertheless be liable to pay a *bona-fide* holder. There is also acceptance *supra protest*, which takes place where, after a bill has been protested for non-acceptance, but not before, any person, not already liable on the bill, may accept it *supra protest*, which acceptance is so called from the manner in which it is made. Where the drawee of a foreign bill cannot be found, or is not capable of making a contract, or refuses to accept, this description of acceptance is frequently made in order to save the credit of all or some of the parties to the bill, and prevent legal proceedings. In this country it is called an acceptance for the honour of the person or persons for whose use it is made, and in France an acceptance *pur intervention*. The drawer or indorser of a bill may insert in it the name of a person to whom the holder may resort in case of its non-acceptance. In place of simply assenting to the order, the drawee may *qualify* his acceptance by making payment dependent on the fulfilment of a condition, as 'the delivery of bills of lading.' An acceptance may also be qualified as to the amount or currency of the bill or the place where it is payable. An acceptance 'payable at Coutts' Bank' would be general, but 'payable at Coutts' Bank only' would be a qualified acceptance. It must be observed that while the acceptance or indorsement may be qualified, the bill itself as drawn must be an unconditional order.

The bill as a negotiable instrument being thus complete in all its parts, may either be held by the drawer or other payee till due, when it is presented for payment to the acceptor, or it may at once be transferred by *Indorsement* (q.v.), the indorsee taking it for its value at maturity, and in the meantime cashing or discounting it to the holder. There may be a succession of indorsees, the last of whom is entitled to payment; and to

him all the other indorsees, as well as the drawee and drawer, are bound. Like the acceptance, the indorsement may be qualified or conditional, and it may also be *restrictive*, as 'pay A. B. only,' thus prohibiting the further negotiation of the bill. An indorser may also add the words 'without recourse,' so as to negative his own responsibility to the holder. This method of disposing of bills without a concurrent obligation by indorsement is better known and more practised in the United States than in England. Instead of discounting his bills in the usual form through a banker, a merchant in New York will sell his bills to a broker or dealer in this kind of instrument, the price paid being according to the state of the money-market and the creditworthiness of the acceptor. In such cases, the purchaser stands in the place of the drawer, undertakes all risks, and as custodian of the bill has the power of legally exacting payment.

When the bill arrives at maturity, that is, on the day when its payment is due, it must be presented for payment to the acceptor at the place or address mentioned in the bill; if none is mentioned, then at his place of business or residence. If the holder fail to duly present, the drawer and indorsers will be relieved of liability; even the known death or bankruptcy of the acceptor will not excuse presentment for payment. It may, however, be dispensed with if the acceptor is a fictitious person or is not bound to pay the bill, if the parties expressly waive presentment, or if, after reasonable diligence, the acceptor cannot be found.

When the bill is not payable on demand or at sight, three days of grace are added to the currency of the bill, on the last of which the bill becomes payable. Should the last day of grace fall on a common-law holiday, as Sunday, Christmas-day, or Good Friday, or a National Fast or Thanksgiving Day, the bill is payable on the preceding day; but if the last day of grace is an ordinary statutory bank holiday, the bill is due on the succeeding business day. If the acceptor is unable to pay, he may endeavour to arrange for a *renewal* of the bill—i.e. the drawing of a new bill with an extended currency. Failing such an arrangement, if the bill is not paid on presentment, the holder must give immediate notice of its dishonour to the drawer and indorser, from whom he can then claim payment. To preserve this recourse, it is not necessary to note or protest the bill, this act being now necessary only in the case of foreign bills, and, in the case of inland bills, as a preliminary to acceptance or payment for honour, or to preserve the right of summary diligence in Scotland. The acceptor, as primary obligant, may then be proceeded against in a very speedy form in England under the 'Summary Procedure Act, 1885,' and in Scotland by the still more direct method of summary diligence, without further action, under the old statutes of 1681 and 1696.

By the Statute of Limitations (see LIMITATION) in England, and Prescription (q.v.) in Scotland, bills and notes (except bank-notes) become of no effect in six years after their due date, but the creditor may still recover on the original claim in satisfaction of which he received the bill.

ACCOMMODATION BILL.—A bill in its legitimate sense is a document constituting a debt, and as such is beneficial to all parties connected with its negotiation. A owes B £100. A cannot conveniently pay the amount, while B is in need of it; B draws on A, and C (a banker) discounts—i.e. for a consideration pays the amount to B. B thus gets his money at once, A obtains time, while C makes a profit for advancing. These facilities have had the effect of inducing bills to be resorted to

for raising money where no value is given, and in which one party gives the use of his name for the *accommodation* of another. In the above case, for example, let us suppose that A does not owe B, but yet accepts B's draft. If C discounts the bill, it is immaterial whether he knows that A has got value or not—as an onerous holder, he can compel payment from A if B cannot pay the bill. But if merely in B's hands, the amount is not recoverable from A if the latter can prove that no value was received by him. Accommodation bills, being a simple and easy way of raising money on credit, often give rise to fraud and rash speculation, and many attempts have been made to suppress the system; but it is difficult to do so without unduly interfering with the negotiation of *bona-fide* bills.

FOREIGN BILL OF EXCHANGE is a bill which is either both drawn and accepted abroad; or drawn by a person residing abroad on a person in this country, or the reverse. The risk of miscarriage to which these bills are liable in their transmission to distant countries has given rise to the custom of drawing them *in sets*: that is, writing out two or three of the same form and tenor, and transmitting them to the payee by different channels, so that if one or two of the individuals of any set are lost, the other might reach its destination. The first of the set that is presented and accepted is alone entitled to payment, and payment of it discharges the acceptor; but foreign bills, of course, may also be drawn singly. The following is the usual form of a foreign bill:

£1000.

JAMAICA, 2d January 188 .

Fifty days after date pay this First of Exchange (second and third of same time and date unpaid) to the order of A. B., One Thousand Pounds sterling, value received. C. D.

To E. F., London.

If a bill be drawn in this country upon a correspondent abroad, or a foreign house, it must be stamped; and when drawn abroad, it must be stamped by the holder, before he can present it for payment, or indorse, transfer, or otherwise negotiate it within the United Kingdom (Stamp Act, 1870, sect. 51). Formerly, a bill drawn or payable in Scotland or Ireland, was foreign in England; but such bills are now inland, and the same regulation extends to the islands of Man, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and adjacent islands (Bills of Exchange Act, 1882, sect. 4). The same act, sect. 72, provides that the liabilities of the drawer, the acceptor, and indorser shall be governed by the laws of the countries in which the drawing, acceptance, and indorsement respectively took place. The duties of a holder are determined by the law of the place where the act is to be done, and the due date depends on the law of the place where the bill is payable. Thus, a bill drawn in Paris or Berlin on London, is entitled to three days of grace, but a bill drawn in London on either of these places has no days of grace, these not being recognised by the laws of France or Germany. If a foreign bill is dishonoured by non-acceptance or non-payment, it must be duly protested, or the drawer and indorsers are discharged. In the case of foreign notes protest is not necessary, but it is always advisable if the makers of the note are to be sued abroad, as the law of the foreign country may require protest. Except in a few points, the laws of most commercial countries agree with those of the United Kingdom in regard to bills. See Byles, *On Bills* (1885); Chalmers, *On Bills of Exchange* (3d ed. 1887).

Bill of Health, a certificate or instrument, signed by consuls or other proper authorities, delivered to the masters of ships at the time of

their clearing out from all ports or places suspected of being particularly subject to infectious disorders, certifying the state of health at the time that such ship sailed. A *clean* bill imports that at the time the ship sailed no infectious disorder was known to exist. A *suspected* bill, commonly called a *touched* patent or bill, imports that there were rumours of an infectious disorder, but it had not actually appeared. A *foul* bill, or the absence of a clean bill, imports that the place was infected when the vessel sailed.

Bill of Lading is a receipt from the captain of the vessel to the shipper (usually termed the *consignor*), undertaking to deliver the goods—on payment of freight—to some person whose name is therein expressed, or indorsed thereon by the consignor; and the delivery of this instrument— independently of the actual delivery of the goods— will suffice to transfer to the party so named (usually termed the *consignee*), or to any other person whose name he may think fit to indorse thereon, the property in such goods; and by the Bills of Lading Act, 1855, it is provided that every consignee and every indorsee shall have transferred to him all rights of suit, and be subject to the same liabilities in respect of the goods as if the contract had been made with himself. The bill of lading is thus a negotiable instrument, subject to rights of stoppage *in transitu*, liability for freight, &c. It is also provided that every bill of lading shall be conclusive evidence of the shipment made. Bills of lading are thus the proper evidence of the contracts of a 'general ship'—i.e. where the ship is not chartered wholly to one person, or where the charterer takes sub-freights. They are made out in three copies; one of which is retained by the shipper, another sent to the consignee, another left with the master. A 'mate's receipt' is generally given until the more formal bill of lading is made out. The bill mentions the name of the master, the destination of the ship, the goods, the consignee, and the rate of freight (see STOPPAGE IN TRANSIT). In the United States, a bill of lading is an instrument of twofold character: it is an acknowledgment of receipt by the master of the vessel, and it is a contract to carry safely and deliver. Its *prima facie* legal effect is to vest the ownership of the goods consigned in the consignee.

Bill of Mortality is a return of the deaths within a certain district, specifying the diseases, and giving a progressive view of the age at death. Such were the mortuary tables of Geneva, the Northampton and Carlisle tables, on which much of the business of life-insurance has been founded. The London bills were begun after a visitation of the plague in 1592, and continued by the company of parish clerks till shortly after the Registration Acts of 1840, being superseded by the Registrar-general's returns. The material for the returns was obtained by persons called 'searchers,' and the system was one of disgraceful inaccuracy and systematic imposition. The common expression, 'within the bills of mortality,' is a local term relating to an area which gradually increased with the growth of London, but defined under municipal arrangements which no longer exist. See LONDON, VITAL STATISTICS.

Bill of Sale is, in the law of England, a formal deed assigning personal property. It is the usual mode of transferring ships, and in the case of a registered ship it is necessary to follow the form provided by the Merchant Shipping Act. But in the case of other personal property, absolute bills of sale are rarely used except on a sale under execution by the sheriff. As mercantile securities, on the other hand, over stock in trade, household furniture, movable machinery, cattle, &c., bills of

sale are in England of enormous importance. Contrary to the principle of Scots law, that the property of movables can only be transferred by delivery, and hence that an effectual security over movables can be created only by possession, the English common law has recognised as effectual mortgages or bills of sale over movables which are left in the possession of the debtor. This led to great frauds on creditors, and the legislature has interfered in 1854, 1878, and 1882, to require public registration and other safeguards in the case of such securities. Registration must take place within seven days, otherwise the security is bad as regards goods left in the actual or apparent possession of the grantor. By the last act, bills of sale must henceforward have a schedule containing an inventory of the personal chattels assigned; must be attested by witnesses, else they become void; those given for any sum under £30 are void; and when goods are seized, they are not to be removed or sold until the expiration of five clear days. This act does not apply to Scotland or Ireland. In Scotland the device of an absolute sale, followed by a lease in favour of the debtor, has sometimes been followed. Wherever the latter obtains the full rights of a purchaser, even although only for the purposes of security, he is protected against the bankruptcy of the seller by the Mercantile Law Amendment Act, 1856, which entitles the purchaser, who has given value, to enforce delivery of goods sold from the bankrupt's estate. In Scotland, however, the common law as regards securities over movables has fallen into a state of uncertainty, and declaratory legislation is urgently required in the interests of trade.

In the United States there is no distinction between grand and ordinary bills of sale. The effect of such bill is to transfer the property in the thing sold. By an act of congress of 1793 every sale or transfer of a registered ship must be accompanied by a bill of sale setting forth at length the certificate of registry. But now a contract to sell, accompanied by delivery of possession, is sufficient.

Bill of Sight is an entry of imported goods of which the merchant does not know the quantity or quality. This is permitted to save time by the Customs authorities on sworn information. The bill must be made perfect in three days by indorsing the particulars required for warehousing, payment of duty, or delivery free of duty. If the entry is not completed within a month, the goods are sold.

Bill of Store is a license from the Customs authorities to re-import British goods formerly exported. Such goods are generally regarded as foreign goods unless re-imported within ten years from exportation, and unless belonging to the original exporter. Bills of store, however, are not given by the Customs regulations for corn, grain, meal, flour, and hops.

Bill of Victualling, or VICTUALLING BILL, is a list of necessary stores shipped from the bonded warehouse, or for drawback on board vessels proceeding on oversea voyages. It is made out by the master and countersigned by the collector of customs, the object being to prevent frauds on the revenue. Stores not on the list are liable, under the Merchant Shipping Act, 1883, to be destroyed. In the case of ships sailing in ballast, the bill of victualling acts as the certificate of clearance.

Billardiera, or APPLEBERRY, a genus of twining Australian evergreen shrubs of the natural order Pittosporaceæ. The fruit is generally bluish when ripe, and is eatable, although not destitute of a resinous character which prevails in the order. Some species are cultivated in greenhouses in Britain.

Billaud-Varenne, JEAN NICOLAS, one of the Terrorists in the French Revolution, was born at La Rochelle, 23d April 1756. From 1785 an advocate in Paris, he soon joined the Jacobin club, and became one of the leaders of the revolutionary movement. He took an active part in the September massacres, and distinguished himself in the Convention for his violence against the king and the royal family, and his general unfeeling cruelty. During the Terror he was president of the Convention and member of the Committee of Public Safety, and it was mainly at his instance that the Duke of Orleans, the queen, and a host of other victims, were arraigned before the fatal Revolutionary Tribunal. He joined in the end in bringing about the fall of Robespierre, but could not ward off his own condemnation to be transported to Cayenne (1795), where he lived about twenty years, rejecting the pardon offered by the First Consul. In 1816 he went to New York, but was coldly received, and then sought an asylum in Hayti, where he died at Port au Prince, June 3, 1819.

Billet, in Architecture, an ornament belonging to the Norman style. It was formed by cutting a moulding—generally a round moulding—into notches, so that the parts left resembled billets of wood. When used in several rows, the billets and



Billet.

empty spaces are placed interchangeably, as in the accompanying illustration.

Billet, in Heraldry. Billets are small oblong figures, sometimes taken to represent pieces of wood, sometimes letters. A field or charge strewn with an indefinite number of billets is called *Billeyé* or *Billetteé*.

Billeting, or **CANTONING**, is a mode of feeding and lodging soldiers and their horses by quartering them upon the inhabitants of a town. As this system obviates the necessity of carrying food, forage, fuel, and camp equipment, it is resorted to as much as possible during a campaign, especially in its earlier stages, when collision with the enemy is not imminent, and therefore concentration has not become necessary. One or two men or the same number of horses are billeted for several nights on each hearth or family, which may be taken as four or five persons; for a single night the number per hearth would be greater. Billeting is also used on the Continent during the army manoeuvres, as many as nine men and three horses being allotted to each hearth, but the food and forage provided by the commissariat. In the United Kingdom the system has always been most unpopular, from the time when monarchs were wont to quarter their troops on the monasteries, and later when soldiers compelled the inhabitants of towns to receive and support them, the authorities being either unable or unwilling to interfere. The civil population naturally resented billeting, and one of the provisions of the Petition of Right (1628) was directed against the practice. The Mutiny Act, passed for the first time in 1689, declared that no housekeepers should be compelled to accommodate soldiers except on a recognised and fairly administered system. The chief civil magistrate of a town, on requisition from the military authorities, quartered the soldiers on the inhabitants as fairly as he could. This continued, in England, until 1745, when the liability to provide billets was limited to certain traders, and has so continued

ever since; but the alteration was not made in Scotland until 1857.

The Army Act of 1881 enacts that only the keepers of public-houses of any description, if licensed to sell beer, wine, or cider to be drunk on the premises, are liable to have soldiers billeted on them, and livery-stable keepers to take in troop horses. The exceptions are canteens, and houses kept by foreign consuls or Vintners of the city of London. The prices to be paid for food, forage, and accommodation are fixed for each year by the Army Annual Act. Before the present barracks were built at the headquarters of each regimental district, it was usual to billet militia, when called out for their month's training, in some convenient town, but this is no longer necessary. The cases in which billeting is resorted to in the United Kingdom are either when troops are called out in aid of the civil power, or when mounted troops are marching for several days; but whenever practicable, they would be lodged in barracks, and dismounted troops are always moved by rail or sea for any distance exceeding one day's march. The order for the march is the authority for drawing billets. It is issued by the Secretary of State for War, and specifies the exact number of men and horses for which billets may be drawn, and the dates on which they are to be at each town. This document is called a 'route.' A billeting party of two or three non-commissioned officers precedes the main body by one day's march, and presents the 'route' to the billet-master (usually the chief constable) at the first halting-place. This official has a list of persons liable to have soldiers billeted on them, and from it he selects those whose turn it is to take them. The men and horses are told off to their billets by the billeting party in order that no delay may arise when the main body enters. After its arrival, the soldiers go to the houses on which they are billeted; all those belonging to one troop being quartered as near together as may be, for convenience of muster, and the horses near the men. The licensed victualler is bound to provide each billet-holder with food, drink, bed, and accommodation, either in his own house or somewhere near at hand, and the livery-stable keeper has to provide straw, hay, and oats of good quality for each horse. The officers visit the houses, to see that the men really have one hot meal per day, instead of taking the value of it in money. The soldier may demand facilities for cleaning his arms and accoutrements. The quartermaster of the regiment makes the payments. Disputes often arise between the innkeeper or others and the officers of the regiment, and there are provisions of the Army Act framed to prevent irregularities on either side, but especially to safeguard the rights of the innkeeper.

In the United States, a provision of the constitution specifies that no soldier shall in time of peace be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Billiards (probably from old Fr. *billard*, 'a stick with a curved end'; in English, introduced as the name of a game, and made plural). The origin of billiards is uncertain. Some ascribe its invention to Henrique Devigne, an artist who flourished about 1570. It was brought into fashion by Louis XIV. (middle of 17th century), whose physicians recommended him exercise after eating. Others believe billiards to be of English origin. It is mentioned by Spenser (*Mother Hubbard's Tale*, 1591) and by Shakespeare (*Antony and Cleopatra*, circa 1607). The earliest description of billiards in English is in Cotton's *Complient Gamester* (1674). The bed of the table was then made of oak; sometimes of marble. Slate beds were first used about

1827. The cushions were stuffed with flock: list was used later. India-rubber cushions were first manufactured about 1835. The pockets, called hazards, were at first wooden boxes, nets being employed soon afterwards. Each player pushed his ball with a mace (now corrupted into mace), made of heavy wood, and tipped at the broad end with ivory. The game played was the white winning game (single pool), five or three up. A player holing his adversary's ball won an end (or life); if he holled his own ball he lost a life (hence the terms winning and losing hazards). In addition, a small arch of ivory, called a 'port,' and an ivory peg or 'king,' stood on the table, and certain scores appertained to passing the port and to touching the king.

In 1734 French billiards first appears in Seymour's *Court Gamester*. It is there stated that port and king are now wholly laid aside. Maces were still commonly used, but cue-playing was permitted. Cues, however, had no tips until the beginning of the present century. French billiards was very like single pool, a hazard counting two, a miss one, and a coup three. The game was played twelve up.

The losing game, in which a player scored for a losing hazard, was also occasionally played. About 1775 the caranbole game (now corrupted into cannon) is first heard of. A third ball, called the carum ball (etymology unknown), was introduced. Winning hazards and cannons counted to the striker, losing hazards against him; and a baulk (now first so called) compelled the next striker to play out of baulk, as at present. Early in the present century, the white winning and losing caranbole game, now known as billiards, ousted all other varieties in this country. It is played on a table 12 feet by 6 feet, surrounded by cushions, and having six pockets, of no fixed size, one at each angle of the two adjacent squares which form the bed of the table: three balls, diameter $2\frac{1}{8}$ inches, are used. The French have long discarded pockets altogether, and play only a cannon game, with larger balls and a smaller table. The Americans added a fourth ball, and in their game cannons and winning hazards counted to the striker, and losing hazards against him. They then abolished the two side-pockets, in consequence of their interfering with cannon play (or, as the Americans still spell it, more correctly, carom). Of late years pocket-tables have been but little used in America, except for pool; and the size of the table has been gradually reduced to 10 feet by 5 feet; balls $2\frac{3}{8}$ inches in diameter. The four-ball game is now seldom played by experts, the three-ball French carom game having superseded it in match play. Each carom counts one; each miss, one; and the game is usually 34 up. Sometimes it is played 21 up, misses not being reckoned, and each carom counting one; or 45 up, each carom counting two, and misses being scored. In the American game, push and crotch shots are generally barred. The crotch is a $4\frac{1}{2}$ -inch square at each corner of the table. Whenever the centres of both object balls lie within the same crotch, only three caroms are allowed, unless at least one of the object balls is moved out of the crotch.

The highest breaks made at the English game are as follows: On an ordinary table, spot barred, John Roberts, junior—604, in 31 minutes, at the Billiard Hall, Argyll Street, on November 17, 1886; on an ordinary table, all in, Peall—2413 (338 and 449 spots), at the Aquarium, Westminster, November 4 and 5, 1886. Peall also holds the record on a championship (3-inch pocket) table, the spot being 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the top cushion, instead of 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches as in championship matches. His break was 445 (128 spots), at the Billiard Hall, on May

31, 1887. The best break on a championship table, with spot 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the cushion, is by Roberts, junior. The break was 153, in a match for the championship, in June 1885.

To play the game of billiards, the learner should first acquire an easy attitude. The left foot should be forward, a little to the left of the ball to be struck, with the toe pointing to the ball. The right foot should be about 18 inches behind the left, and nearly parallel to the edge of the table. The body should be inclined forward, with the face full in front of the ball. The cue should be lightly grasped with the right hand near the butt-end, the hand being directly under the right elbow. The left hand should be placed on the table, with the space between the thumb and first finger opposite the centre of the ball to be struck, the tip of the middle finger being 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 9 inches from the ball. To form the bridge on which the cue is to rest when aiming and striking, raise the knuckles about 2 inches; raise the thumb, and press it against the third knuckle of the first finger. Spread the fingers a little, and press slightly on the table with the forefinger, little finger, and ball of the thumb.

The cue, when placed between the thumb and the first finger, should be nearly parallel to the bed of the table, and pointing to the centre of the ball, or slightly above it. To deliver the cue properly, draw it back several inches, and then send it forward with a free and even motion, allowing the tip to pass beyond the spot occupied by the ball. For practice, place the ball on the spot in the middle of the baulk line, and drive it over the red spot, gently at first, so as to make the ball return into baulk. If struck truly in the centre, it will return over the baulk spot. When able to accomplish this with tolerable certainty, increase the strength, and practise striking the ball a trifle above the centre.

When able to hit the ball pretty accurately above the centre, at any strength, the learner should practise half-ball losing hazards. A half-ball stroke is one in which half the striker's ball overlaps half the object-ball. Place the red on the spot. Draw an imaginary line from the red to the nearest shoulder of the middle pocket, and place the white on that line rather nearer to the shoulder than midway between it and the red. This gives a half-ball losing hazard with gentle strength into the top corner pocket. The white is to be struck in the centre. Then move the white ball towards the opposite middle pocket, say about 2 inches. A half-ball losing hazard is still left, but it requires to be played stronger, and the ball should be struck above the centre. Again moving the white ball towards the opposite middle pocket, a stronger half-ball loser is left, the limit being reached when the ball has been moved about 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches, the stroke being then played as hard as possible. On either side of these limits, losing hazards can still be made into the corner pocket, but they require either side, or screw, or to be played finer or fuller than a half-ball.

To play with side, the ball must be struck on one side instead of in the centre. If the ball is to travel to the right, right-hand side is required; if to the left, left-hand side. The cue should be held parallel to the direction of the aim, and not crossing the ball. The more gently the ball is struck, the more the side will tell. The amount of side required for given strokes can only be judged by practice. The effect of side is to alter the angle at which the striker's ball leaves the object-ball or the cushion; if side is put on in the direction in which the ball is going, the angle is increased; if reverse side is put on—i.e. if the ball is struck on the side away from that in which the ball is going, the angle is diminished.

To play with screw, the ball must be struck below the centre, and the cue should be tightly grasped. Screws should never be played at top strength, and never finer than a three-quarter ball (three-quarters of each ball overlapping). The effect of screw is to make the striker's ball leave the object-ball at a greater angle than it would if played without screw.

For following strokes, the striker's ball should be hit above the centre, and the object-ball fuller than a half-ball. For fine strokes, the striker must be careful to play his own ball truly in the centre. How fine the object-ball has to be struck to make a given stroke is a matter of practice.

Cannons follow the same principles as losing hazards. For pocket read ball, and the stroke is as already explained. Winning hazards depend chiefly on striking the ball accurately. Except when playing for position, the ball should be struck in the centre. The striker should draw an imaginary line from the centre of the pocket, through the object-ball, and 1 inch beyond it, and should aim at the point where that line ends. A fine winning hazard or cut cannot be made if the angle formed by the imaginary line and the line traversed by the striker's ball is greater than a right angle.

The foregoing instructions are only intended to initiate the learner into the elements of the game. Besides the ordinary strokes described, much might be said about billiards which must here be passed over. In a complete treatise, push, kiss, bricole, massé, spot, and other strokes should be separately treated; as also strength, position, and playing for breaks, and for safety. For further information, see *Billiards*, by Joseph Bennett (Lond. Thomas De La Rue & Co.), and *The Game of Billiards*, by Michael Phelan (New York, Dick & Fitzgerald).

Billings, JOSH, the pseudonym under which Henry M. Shaw (1818-85), a land-agent at Poughkeepsie, New York, published facetious almanacs and collections of witticisms, the wit in which, however, was mainly due to their deliberate mis-spelling.

Billings, ROBERT WILLIAM, born in London in 1813, acquired, during a seven years' apprenticeship with John Britton, topographical draughtsman, a taste for and facility in the production of illustrations of historic buildings. Between 1838 and 1846 he produced illustrations on his own account of several churches and cathedrals, including his *Architectural Antiquities of the County of Durham*. The work, however, with which his name is permanently associated is his *Baronial and Ecclesiastical Antiquities of Scotland* (4 vols. 1845-52), with accompanying letterpress to its 240 illustrations. He wrote several works on architecture, and conducted a large business; amongst the buildings restored under his direction are the chapel of Edinburgh Castle and the Douglas Room in Stirling Castle, &c. He died 14th November 1874.

Billingsgate, a gate, wharf, and fish-market, a little below London Bridge, to the west of the custom-house. It was opened in 1558 as a landing-place for provisions; and in 1699 was made 'a free and open market for all sorts of fish.' The present handsome stone building was finished in 1874. The unpolished phraseology native, though not peculiar, to this quarter of London, has given rise to the proverbial use of the name.

Billington, ELIZABETH, a celebrated singer, was born in London about 1768. Trained by her father, a German musician named Weichsel, she appeared as an infant pianist in 1774; and in 1783, after a secret marriage with her singing-master, James Billington, she came out with brilliant success on the opera stage in Dublin. Returning to London in 1786, she was engaged at Covent

Garden at the then unheard-of salary of £1000 for the season. She appeared subsequently in Naples, Venice, Florence, and elsewhere, with the greatest applause. In 1799, her first husband being dead, she married a Frenchman, Felissent, but owing to ill-treatment she left him and returned to London, 1801, where she received nearly £4000 for six months, playing alternately at Covent Garden and Drury Lane. She retired from the stage in 1811, and died (1818) at her villa near Venice, not without suspicion of foul play from her husband. To a voice of great compass and the richest tone, trained in all the art of the Italian school, she added a fascinating personal beauty and grace.

Bil'iton, or BITONG, an island in the Dutch East Indies, between the SE. of Banca and the SW. of Borneo. It is of round shape, about 50 miles in length by 45 broad, and 1855 sq. m. in area. To the north, which is hilly, the highest point rises 3000 feet. It is rich in iron, tin, and timber, and exports rice, trepang, edible birds' nests, seaweed, tortoise-shell, and wax. Its coasts are beset with rocks and islets. The best harbour is at Tandjong; Pandang is the chief town. Pop. (1882) 32,210, of whom 78 were Europeans, and 7885 Chinese, the rest mostly Malays.

Billon, a decayed town of Auvergne, in the French department of Puy-de-Dôme, 14 miles ESE. of Clermont. It was the seat of a university from 1455 to 1554. Pop. (1886) 4112.

Billon, a name (originally French) for a mixed metal sometimes used in coinage, consisting of gold or silver, with a large proportion of baser metal. For some small French coins, a mixture of four parts of copper to one of silver was used before 1810.

Bilma, a town of the Sahara, Central Africa, situated in 18° 40' N. lat., 14° E. long., on an oasis called the Wady Kawar. It is the capital of the Tibu country, important as a resting-place of caravans crossing the desert, but is a poor place.

Bilney, THOMAS, martyr, born about 1495, probably at Norwich, studied at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, and was ordained in 1519. He was opposed to the formal 'good works' of the schoolmen, and denounced saint and relic worship; and to these mild Protestant views he converted Hugh Latimer and other young Cambridge men. In 1527 he was arraigned before Wolsey, and on recanting, absolved, but was confined in the Tower for over a year. Stung by remorse, after two years of suffering, he began to preach in the fields of Norfolk, but was soon apprehended and condemned; and although allowed to receive the sacraments of the church from which he differed so little, he was burned as a heretic at Norwich, 19th August 1531.

Bilston, a town in South Staffordshire, situated on a rising-ground, about 2½ miles SE. of Wolverhampton, and forming part of its parliamentary borough. It has extensive iron and coal mines, iron-smelting works, iron-foundries for making machinery, besides works for manufacturing tin-plate goods, japanned and enamelled wares, nails, wire, screws, and coarse pottery. It is the centre, indeed, of the hardware trade, and consequently a very busy place. Fine sand, adapted for metal-casting, is found here. Pop. (1881) 22,730.

Biluchistan. See BELUCHISTAN.

Bima, a seaport of Sumbawa, one of the Sunda Isles, and capital of a state of the same name, is on a bay of the north coast, 100 miles E. of Sumbawa.

Bim'ana (Lat., 'two-handed'), a term first employed by the Göttingen anatomist Blumenbach (1752-1840) to describe the human species in con-

trast to other mammals. The separate order thus designated was recognised by Cuvier (1749-1832), and by most of his contemporaries and immediate successors. But in 1863 Huxley pointed out in his work entitled *Man's Place in Nature*, that as far as the term *Bimana* was concerned, it was equally deserved by some of the higher apes. In ordinary civilised man it is indeed obvious that the foot does not grasp in the way the hand does, but this is largely a matter of use and disuse. Many men in all races have learned to use their big toes as if they were thumbs, even to the extent, in more than one case, of playing on the violin; in less civilised races, the foot is not unfrequently used in rowing, climbing, and handiwork; and our own schoolboys and sailors exhibit considerable power of foot-grip. Haeckel notes how a young infant can grasp a spoon with the big toe as with a thumb. In short, man is four-handed if he chooses. The title is now rarely used, and man and monkeys are zoologically united in the old Linnæan order—Primates. See MONKEYS.

Bimbia, a district on the southern slope of the Cameroon Mountains in Africa, and on the northern bank of the river Bimbia. Since 1884 it is part of the German protectorate. See CAMEROONS.

Bimetallism is the name given to a monetary system in which both gold and silver are on precisely the same footing as regards mintage and legal tender. At present, in the United Kingdom, gold to any amount can be brought to the mint and coined into sovereigns free of charge, and the legal definition of the pound sterling is a certain weight of gold of a certain fineness, &c.; and gold, and Bank of England notes representing gold, are the sole legal tender to any extent.

The silver coins of this country are at present only 'token' coins. The value of the silver of which they are made (even at the valuation before any depreciation of silver relatively to gold occurred) is below the nominal value—i.e. the silver in twenty shillings (reckoning silver as worth about 60 pence, or a quarter of a sovereign, an ounce) is not worth the gold in a sovereign. As a consequence the silver is coined only in limited quantities, and is legal tender only to the extent of forty shillings. This preliminary explanation is necessary, because it is often said in a loose inaccurate way that bimetalism exists *de facto* everywhere, because all nations use both gold and silver for coinage.

There is, however, a fundamental difference between standard coin and token coin. If by great discoveries of gold, or by the opening up of hoards in the East under civilising influences, the amount of gold brought to the mints were increased to a great extent, then there would follow a general rise in prices. This depends upon the principle that, other things remaining the same, an increase in the quantity of money will raise general prices. The only object of converting the gold into coins is to use the coins to spend, and the increase in spending power tends to force up prices. The theory is confirmed by the effects of the great discoveries of gold in Australia and California about 1850. Similarly, in the 16th century, when silver was standard money, the discovery of the rich mines of Potosi caused a great rise in prices.

But if under present conditions, in which no civilised nation coins silver to an unlimited extent, there were similar discoveries of silver, there would be no corresponding effect on prices. The only effect would be that silver would, reckoned in gold, become cheap or depreciated. The coinage, however, would not be increased, because the use of silver is strictly limited. If silver were a standard coin, then it would be coined in unlimited amounts, and when expended would tend to raise the prices of

commodities. The principle may be expressed thus: The quantity of standard money, other things remaining the same, determines the general level of prices, but the quantity of token money issued is determined by the general level of prices. When prices are high, *ceteris paribus*, more token money will be required as a circulating medium than when prices are low.

If we consider any particular country, the principal difficulty in the adoption of both metals as a joint standard is generally expressed by saying that the joint standard or double standard (to use the more familiar but less accurate term) would be in reality a fluctuating single standard. It is argued that, considering the variations in supply and demand of the two metals, variations must constantly occur in the relative market values of gold and silver considered as bullion. At the same time, it is said, if both are coined in unlimited amounts for unlimited payments, some definite legal ratio must be adopted at which they are to be coined and to circulate. If a contract for so many pounds can be fulfilled by the payment of either gold or silver, it must be assumed that in some way the equivalent amounts are determined.

But suppose, when large amounts have been issued at one legal ratio, the ratio for example at which gold coins are reckoned as equal to 15½ times their weight of silver, a disturbance occurs in the market ratio of the metals, such as it is alleged must occur with variations in supply or demand. Let it be assumed that silver becomes cheaper, so that the silver in twenty standard shillings is no longer worth one sovereign in gold, but only three-quarters. That means practically that any person can for three-quarters of a sovereign buy enough silver bullion to make into twenty standard shillings. Clearly under these circumstances no one would pay his debts in gold when by first exchanging it for silver, he would gain five shillings in the pound. On the other hand there would be a rush to melt down gold in order to get the cheap silver, and the gold would, if silver remained below the old legal ratio, be driven from circulation. Under the opposite conditions of silver becoming relatively dearer, it would be replaced by gold, and thus the conclusion is reached that the joint standard would be an alternating standard with the cheaper metal as the real standard at any time. This law, according to which the cheaper metal displaces the dearer, is known as Gresham's Law; and it is found, historically, that a very small difference between the market and the legal ratio will suffice in any particular country to drive the dearer metal from circulation. This theory has been repeatedly illustrated in the history of particular countries. Thus, in England in 1717, according to the ratio adopted by the advice of Sir Isaac Newton, gold was, compared with silver, overvalued about 1½ per cent., that is to say, it was so much more valuable as currency than as metal. Consequently the full-weight silver coins were withdrawn, and gold became the principal currency. In France, on the other hand, at the time of the great Revolution, silver was slightly overvalued, and thus became the principal currency, the gold being to a large extent driven from circulation.

The question then arises: What becomes of this dearer metal, and whence is the cheaper metal derived which must be coined to take its place? It is obvious that in any modern society, the gold or silver displaced will not be hoarded, nor is there any reason why the mere change in relative value should lead to a greater use of plate made of the dearer metal. Accordingly it seems inevitable that this dearer metal should be exported, in order to get the cheaper metal for coinage, for by parity of reasoning it cannot be drawn from hoards or plate

within the country. It is this consideration which is the foundation of the argument, that although one country alone might be unable to maintain both metals as legal tender at a fixed ratio, under a union of the principal commercial countries the system would be quite possible and perfectly stable. For, *ex hypothesi*, there would in this case be no place to which the gold, supposing it became dearer, could be exported, or from which silver to take its place could be obtained. Again, if under these conditions any disturbance in the ratio occurred, (supposing it possible) to the advantage, for example, of gold, the gold would be driven from circulation and converted into bullion. Thus there would be a great increase in the supply of gold, and a corresponding increase in the demand for silver, and it is maintained that the old ratio would at once be restored. This process of reversion to stability is known as the *compensatory action of the double standard*, and is the counterpart of Gresham's Law in the present controversy.

If, then, the possibility of international bimetallism on a conventional basis is granted, it is requisite next to inquire into the advantages of the proposed system, for in currency above everything, the maxim *quiescit non movere*, to let things alone, is held to be sound. The advantages claimed are twofold. In the *first* place, it is argued that if the main work of standard money is in the future thrown upon gold, there must be a great fall in prices from the level to which the world had been accustomed with both metals as standard money. It is alleged that the fall in prices that has actually taken place since 1874, is mainly due to the substitution of gold for silver as the standard by Germany and other countries, because, taking the world as a whole, the amount of gold has not sufficed to keep up the level of prices. It is further argued that having regard to the increased use of gold for the arts and the diminished supply from the mines, this fall in prices will continue, or that there will be a continuous appreciation of gold, with a constant increase in the real burden of debts, and a disturbance of the real meaning of contracts and great friction in the adjustment of customary retail prices.

The term *appreciation*, as applied to gold, requires some explanation. If gold is the standard of value, it may be thought that its own value cannot change, just as a foot measure always remains of the same length—that a sovereign of full weight must always remain of the same value. But it is one thing to appoint by law that a certain amount of gold shall be coined into a certain number of sovereigns, and quite another to suppose that these sovereigns shall always exchange for the same amount of wealth. If, on the whole, a sovereign purchases more than it did, from whatever cause, that constitutes an appreciation of gold. An appreciation of gold is thus the same thing as a general fall in prices.

Seeing that the number of purchasable commodities is practically infinite, it is of course not easy to say even that a general fall is taking place, and it is still less easy to measure exactly the extent of the fall. For some commodities may be rising whilst others are falling. The general method adopted is to take certain important commodities as fairly representative. Thus the *Economist*, in its annual review, takes twenty-two commodities and compares their price with the price which was the average between 1845–50. Taking each of the average prices for that period as 100, the total would be 2200. In any subsequent year the actual change in price is worked out in these 'index numbers,' as they are called. Thus suppose during the given period the average price of wheat had been 60s. a quarter, and in some other year it

became 30s., we should have to change the index number from 100 to 50, that is, under it or half. If in adding up the total of the index numbers in any year we find a rise has taken place, then it is assumed this fairly measures the general rise in prices. It may be interesting to quote some of the principal changes in the 'index numbers.' A fluctuating rise took place from 1850 up to 1864 when the index numbers became 3787. This is equivalent to saying that on the articles taken there was an average rise of about 72 per cent. It would, however, obviously be a mistake to argue that all prices must have risen to that extent, especially when we consider that owing to the American civil war the price of cotton was abnormally raised. From 1864 to 1871 there was a fluctuating fall in prices, the index numbers in the latter year being 2590. Then a rise took place, the numbers in 1872, 1873, 1874, being respectively 2835, 2947, 2801. Thus in these years of inflation, as they are often termed, though there was a rise of about 31 per cent. on the original 'index numbers,' there was a still greater fall from the numbers of 1864. From 1874 there was a steady and rapid decline, until on 1st January 1886 the aggregate 'index number' was only 2023, which was lower than the original number, and lower than that of any year subsequent to 1850. It is this very remarkable fall in prices that constitutes the appreciation of gold, and it is maintained by bimetallicists that if silver were used to supplement gold as standard money, the fall in prices would be checked, and that for the future the general level would remain more steady. The fall in prices has apparently affected agriculturists more than any other class, because many of the charges are fixed for comparatively long periods, and thus expenses cannot be adjusted to the new level of prices very readily.

Secondly, the adoption of conventional international bimetallism (for that is the only system practically proposed) is advocated not only as a partial remedy for the appreciation of gold, but also as a preventive of fluctuations in the relative values of gold and silver. It is said that the recent depreciation of silver, caused by the monetary disturbance, has injuriously affected our trade with silver-using countries, and that in effect this depreciation has acted like a protective duty on imports into such countries, and a bounty on their exports. To these statements of alleged facts it is replied generally that our exports to the East, or silver countries, have largely increased, and that the exports from the silver countries, such as Indian wheat, have been really stimulated by other causes—e.g. railways and reduced freights by sea. It is, however, undeniable, that if gold prices on this side had remained at their old level, whilst at the same time silver had depreciated, the effects on our eastern trade would be accurately described by the analogies of a protection duty in the one case and a bounty in the other. So far, however, as the gold prices of commodities have fallen in the same degree as silver, no such stimulus or restraint appears to take place. A Manchester merchant may just as well sell to India for the same silver as before, even although it produces only thirty per cent. less gold, as sell to gold-using countries for thirty per cent. less gold, directly without the intervention of silver. Similarly, an Indian exporter has no advantage from cheap silver if he obtains for his exports thirty per cent. less gold wherewith to purchase silver.

Here, however, the question arises whether the depreciation of silver has not directly, to a large extent, caused the fall in gold prices. It is generally admitted that the effect of a bounty is to lower prices in the foreign country, and protective duties operate indirectly in the same way; and similarly, it is maintained (especially by M.

Cernuschi) that the depreciation of silver has lowered all prices measured in gold.

It will be observed that both of these advantages claimed for bimetallicism depend upon questions of fact; and the difficulty in obtaining information was the chief reason for the appointment of the Royal Commission in 1886. No one, however, denies that if by any means the relative values of gold and silver could be fixed, it would be beneficial to the world at large. Mere fluctuations are certainly an evil. The possibility of thus fixing and maintaining a ratio receives strong practical support from the fact that for seventy years, in spite of great variations in the relative amounts of gold and silver produced, the existence of bimetallicism in France, and the large use by other nations of silver as standard money, kept the ratio, apart from small variations due to exchange operations, at nearly $15\frac{1}{2} : 1$. It may also be said that an international convention, once established, would not be broken in the same capricious manner as a purely political treaty; for it may easily be shown that every nation makes the agreement in the first place with its own subjects, and that by breaking the agreement it would injure them more than any one else. There is really not much more apparent reason why, once established, the system should be broken through, than if all the nations had adopted the same system of weights and measures. It is possible, of course, that the initial difficulties may be insuperable in spite of the extremely unsatisfactory condition of the present relations of gold and silver. At the same time it is difficult to suppose that the present state of things can continue.

The United States (by the Bland Act) are compelled to coin a large amount of silver every year, and until recently very little could be put into circulation. Again, France and other countries hold large quantities of silver which can still be used as standard money, and which passes nominally at about 60s. per ounce, whilst the market value may be only 43s.

But any attempt to adopt gold as the sole principal standard throughout the world, would, in Mr Goschen's often-quoted opinion, produce a most disastrous monetary crisis, and thus the choice seems to lie between an international agreement on a reasonable basis, and the reliance on the self-interest of each particular nation to make no further change through dread of further evil.

It is impossible to even mention in a brief article all the points of controversy on the question of bimetallicism. Until the recent great and rapid fall in the value of silver compared with gold, it was apparently believed that from some curious but beneficial natural cause the ratio would remain fairly steady, and for about seventy years the variations were very small. Accordingly, very little attention was paid to the question by economists, who for the most part were content with saying that it would be difficult for one country to maintain effectively a double standard. Again, when the depreciation set in, it was believed that it would be only temporary, but this belief has proved to be unsound.

The partial failure of the Latin Monetary Union to preserve an international *coinage*, ought not to prejudice the case of a bimetallic union like that proposed by the United States. The Latin Union, proposed in 1865 and accomplished in 1868, was essentially a treaty between certain countries (France, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland) for an identical *coinage* (apart from the mere stamp) to be received as legal tender in each country. It was only accidentally bimetallic, and no special provision was made for the unlimited *coinage* of either gold or silver.

It is impossible to obtain accurate figures either as to the production of gold and silver, or as to the extra demands made on gold and the extra supplies of silver thrown on the market since the demonetisation of the latter. There is, however, no doubt that the production of gold has decreased as that of silver increased, and that the demonetisation of silver has to some extent increased the supply of it as a commodity.

To understand the subject in its present bearings, the reader must refer to recent writers, and consult especially the Report of the Royal Commission. On the monometallic side may be mentioned Mr Fowler's *Appreciation of Gold*, Mr Giffen's *Essays on Finance*, and the papers published in the *Contemporary Review* by Mr Wells. On the other side much more has been written, since attack is always more productive than defence—e.g. various essays by H. Cernuschi, H. H. Gibbs, Grenfell, R. Barclay, S. Smith, &c.; a valuable historical work by the Hon. Dana Horton called the *Silver Pound*, and a *Treatise on Money, with Essays on Present Monetary Problems*, by Professor J. S. Nicholson, may also be mentioned. The best book for the statistics of the question is Soethoer's *Materialien*, translated from the German for the use of the Royal Commission, and published in America by Mr Atkinson.

Binary Theory, in Chemistry, takes cognisance of the mode of construction of salts. It assumes that all salts contain merely two substances, which either are both simple, or of which one is simple and the other a compound playing the part of a simple body. The best and most familiar illustration of the binary theory is common salt or chloride of sodium, NaCl, which is constructed of the metal sodium, Na, and the non-metal chlorine, Cl, and is at a glance seen to be a *binary compound* (a compound of two). In like manner, fluor-spar, or the fluoride of calcium, CaF₂, consists of the metal calcium, Ca, and the non-metal fluorine, F; and iodide of potassium, KI, largely employed in photography, of potassium, K, and iodine, I. Although this theory attracted much attention from 1837 to 1855, and was adopted by Liebig and other chemists, it never met with general acceptance, and has now been quite superseded. See ACIDS and SALTS.

Binché, a town of Belgium, in the province of Hainault, 10 miles E. of Mons. Its inhabitants are largely engaged in the manufacture of delf-ware and lace. Pop. (1884) 9441.

Bindweed. See CONVULVULUS.

Bingen, an ancient town of Hesse-Darmstadt, Germany, is charmingly situated on the left bank of the Rhine, 39 miles SE. of Coblenz. Below the town is the celebrated *Bingerloch*, formerly a very dangerous point in the navigation of the Rhine, but in the year 1834 the smitten rocks were blown up. In the middle of the river stands the *Mauseturm*, the tower of Bishop Hatto (q.v.). Nearly opposite Bingen, in the Niederwald, is the colossal statue *Germania*, erected 1877-83 to commemorate the war of 1870-71. Pop. (1885) 7215.

Bingham, JOSEPH, a learned English scholar and divine, was born at Wakefield in Yorkshire, September 1668. Educated at University College, Oxford, he was elected fellow in 1689 and college tutor two years later, but was obliged to resign his fellowship owing to an unfounded accusation of heresy in a sermon which he had preached in St Mary's on the meaning of the word 'Person' in the Fathers. He was at once, however, presented to the rectory of Headbourne-worthing in Hampshire, and here he commenced his laborious and learned *Origines Ecclesiasticæ, or Antiquities of the Christian Church* (10 vols. 1708-22). In 1712 he was

preferred to the rectory at Havant in Portsmouth, and in 1720 he lost all his property in the great South Sea bubble. He died August 17, 1723.

Binghamton, a flourishing city of New York, at the junction of the Chenango and Susquehanna rivers, 215 miles NW. of New York city. It is an important railway centre, and manufactures flour, engines, carriages, leather, and cigars. Pop. (1870) 12,692; (1880) 17,317; (1887) 25,000.

Bingley, a town in the West Riding of Yorkshire, 15 miles WNW. of Leeds. It has worsted, woollen, cotton, and paper manufactures. Pop. (1881) 9465.

Binnacle, a wooden box or case for containing a ship's compass, together with a lamp and other necessary apparatus. See COMPASS (MARINER'S).

Binney, THOMAS, D.D., LL.D., a Congregational preacher, born at Newcastle in 1798, in 1829 settled in London, where he soon acquired extensive popularity. The new Weigh-house Chapel, near London Bridge, was erected for him by his hearers in 1833, and here he continued to labour with great success till 1869. He died 24th February 1874. Of his numerous writings the most popular was *Is it Possible to make the Best of Both Worlds?* (1853). See the Lives by Stoughton (1874) and Paxton Hood (1874).

Binocular, a field-glass or Opera-glass (q.v.), or Microscope (q.v.), for which both eyes are employed.

Binomial, in Algebra, is a quantity consisting of two terms or parts—e.g. $a + b$, or $9 - 5$; a *trinomial* consists of three terms, as $a + b + c$, or $10 + 5 - 8$. The Binomial Theorem gives a remarkable series or analytical formula by which any power of a binomial can be expressed and developed. Thus, the eighth or any other power of $a + b$ can be at once written down without going through the actual multiplication of $a + b$ by itself for the given number of times. The older mathematicians were acquainted with this theorem in the case of integral exponents, though the actual discoverer is unknown. Newton was the first to demonstrate its truth for all exponents—fractional and negative, as well as integral. It is one of the finest of his discoveries, and is engraved on his tomb. Among its many applications, it affords the means of finding any root of any number much more conveniently than by the usual method of extraction.

Bintang, an island of the Dutch East Indies, 40 miles SE. of Singapore. Area, 454 sq. m.; pop. 18,000. Gambir, rice, and pepper are exported.

Bluturong (*Arctictis* = bear-marten), a genus of carnivores in the civet section. Its resemblance to raccoons, beside which it used to be placed, is entirely superficial. It is a slow arboreal and nocturnal animal, partly vegetarian, indeed omnivorous, in its diet, with lank body, coarse dark hair, long tufted ears, and prehensile tail. There is but one species (*A. bluturong*), found in India, Malay, Sumatra, and Java. It is easily tamed.

Bluue. See BENUÉ.

Biobio, the largest river of Chili, has a west-north-westerly course of about 220 miles, from near the volcano of Antuco in the Andes to Concepcion on the Pacific Ocean. It is 2 miles wide at its mouth, and navigable for 100 miles.—The river since 1875 has given name to a province with an area of 4158 sq. m., and a pop. (1885) of 100,871.

Biogen'esls, as opposed to Abiogenesis (q.v.), is the name used by Huxley for the theory that living matter always arises by the agency of pre-existing living matter. See also LIFE, SPONTANEOUS GENERATION.

Biography is the artistic representation in continuous narrative of the life and character of a particular individual. It may be either a mere *curriculum vite*, detailing only the historical sequence of the incidents of a man's life, or it may be an elaborate attempt at an analysis of his character, and at a complete reconstruction of the whole motives of his actions. To the former class the ancient examples of biography, as the Lives of Cornelius Nepos, mainly belong, while modern biographers have mostly aimed at the latter method. But of course the inward life is revealed in the outward, and even such a biography as the *Agricola* of Tacitus, with all its stately dignity and reticence, does give the reader some real insight into the character of the man. The main object of biography as now written is portraiture, and its success or failure mainly depends on the degree of truth and completeness with which the image is represented. The facts of a life may be fully and truthfully told without any adequate idea being given of the personality of the central figure, which is often revealed in small details that might well escape the notice of a biographer who lacked the eye to see them and their significance. Thus, as Dr Johnson points out, Sallust has not forgotten in his account of Cataline to remark that his walk was now quick and again slow, as an indication of a mind revolving with violent commotion. But indeed it could not be better put than it is by Plutarch, the prince of ancient biographers, in his 'Alexander,' in a passage aptly quoted by Boswell: 'Nor is it always in the most distinguished achievement that men's virtues or vices may be best discerned; but very often an action of small note, a short saying, or a jest, shall distinguish a person's real character more than the greatest sieges or the most important battles.'

It is hardly necessary to add that there is no more interesting department of literature than biography, that the most fascinating study of mankind has ever been and will ever be man himself, and this hardly less in the lyric or the occasional essay than in the formal biography or autobiography. 'I never look,' says Montaigne, 'upon an author, be they such as write of virtue and of actions, but I curiously endeavour to find out what he was himself.' The genuine lyric is a spontaneous and impassioned expression of an emotion of the writer, and its poetical value depends ultimately on the poverty or richness of his personality; while the essay, as understood by Montaigne, its inventor, and such masters in this form as Addison and Charles Lamb, owes no small part of its charm to the pleasing egotism by which hints as to the feelings and foibles of the writer are conveyed by the way to the sympathetic reader. The essay has now come to be so much a merely didactic medium that the personal equation in it has become inconsiderable, and we are apt to forget that in its simpler and perhaps more perfect forms it ever contained something of self-revelation, conscious or unconscious. Even such severe examples as the famous essays of Bacon, throughout which we scarcely find one word about the writer, yet really make up, as Dr Abbott points out, a kind of autobiography which tells the story of the intellectual and moral history of youth passing into age, and the student making way for the statesman.

Many lives are written in such eulogistic terms that they fail by default to give a truthful picture of their subject, while others, in their fear of being unlike life, deepen the shadows until the picture becomes equally untrue through its over-truthfulness. Thus, in the life of Carlyle by Mr Froude, many critics accused its accomplished author of having given such undue prominence to

the disagreements between Carlyle and his wife as to distort completely the picture of the ordinary life of the pair; while Mr Froude's defenders maintained that he had but painted Carlyle as he would have painted himself, every wrinkle on the face truthfully represented on the canvas, and that his business was to describe the man as he lived, not as he should have lived. Again, a biographer may not understand the relative significance of things, and thus unconsciously give an untrue picture of his subject. Especially is this danger close to him when he has to deal with a time or a society in which he himself has not lived. It is difficult for him to breathe freely in another atmosphere than his own, and avoid anachronisms in feeling if not in fact.

A biographer must have an adequate knowledge of his subject and his surroundings. He must follow him in his controversies and his speculations, and must be able to weigh in the balance his abilities as well as his private virtues. Thus the best biography should be that written by one almost as great as his hero, skilled in the same things, with full sympathy and perfect knowledge, as the life of Dr Arnold by Dean Stanley, and Boccaccio's life of Dante—a great man, says Emerson, 'to describe a greater'; while the worst should be the production of the professional biographer, who is ready at a moment's notice to write to order lives of poet, philanthropist, or man of science alike. The latter part of the proposition is much truer than the former, which is indeed true, though not exclusively so, for it will hardly be maintained that Boswell was nearly as great a man as his hero, though he had insight enough to write the best biography in the English language; while from a merely literary point of view, some of the most effective biographies we possess were written by men of letters, lacking the special technical knowledge that might have been esteemed necessary. Southey's life of Nelson is admittedly one of the most perfect biographies in existence, yet the author tells us that he had to move among the naval terms like a cat among crockery. Indeed adequate insight and sympathy, with a fine sense for literary form, may make up a complete equipment for a biographer, for Walton's lives are absolutely perfect examples of biography, though the garrulous old angler could scarcely have understood the full significance of the great work of Hooker. There are few books in English of such abiding interest and excellence as Johnson's *Lives of the Poets*—a singularly happy combination of sympathy and intelligence, although at the same time a collection of lives of very varying values. Thus the lives of Pope and Dryden are as conspicuous for their goodness as those of Gray and Milton are for their badness, in one respect at any rate. That of Savage has the additional interest of casting a reflex light on the early struggles of Johnson himself, while yet he was without his Boswell. No less admirable are Macaulay's short lives of Johnson, Goldsmith, Atterbury, and Bunyan, written for the *Encyclopædia Britannica*; and Scott's volume of *Biographical Memoirs*—short, shrewdly sensible lives of Richardson, Fielding, Smollett, Goldsmith, Johnson, and others. Scott's lives of Swift and Dryden, forming the first volumes of complete editions of their respective works, still hold the field.

Most modern biographies are too large—they err by not selecting merely the significant. Perhaps it is true that near things look too large, and that the right perspective is only possible to the observer at some distance. The lives of the greatest men must teem with details that are quite ordinary and unimportant, and we gain absolutely nothing by

having these set down. Just as in the art of portrait-painting, it is relatively of but little importance how the accessories are filled in, so as the living look that made up the individuality of the subject has been caught. And if it requires a special gift of insight in a Velasquez or a Rembrandt to see so as to reproduce on his canvas the subtle something on which the expression of a face depends, so to the biographer there is the same necessity to see under the surface the hidden springs of character; while it cannot be doubted that his task—the moral diagnosis of motive—is infinitely the greater in difficulty. The biographer must be more than the mere realist who can photograph facts—he must be something of the idealist as well, for he has to create as well as reproduce; and we value a biography exactly in proportion as its author has succeeded in creating for us the character of a new man or woman to be added to our personal acquaintance. If, as has been said, every man's life is worth telling for something that there was in it of unique interest, it may be equally true that all the life save this particular part was not worth telling at all, and had better been left untold. Although undotored human nature with its swarm of struggling and contending motives is always an interesting study—in its morbid no less than in its normal phases—yet the elaborate dissection of mere human frailty must ever be a wearisome and unprofitable pursuit. Man's spiritual aspirations cannot be fed upon mere clever character-analysis, and lives that had in them nothing high for humanity had better be soon forgotten. There are perhaps no books more really unprofitable to generous youth than those that are often put into their hands—the lives of men who have earned mere material success, and carved themselves fortunes out of the hard conditions in which they were born. Humanity in its onward progress will soon get past this point, and recognise that in the history of our race the real spiritual and ultimately material makers of the future were far more often men who seemed to fail completely in the struggle of life.

The lives of the great men who have helped to mould their times throw much light on contemporary history. The biographies of Cromwell, Frederick the Great, and Napoleon, broadly speaking, sum up great part of the public history of their times, but do no more for us than merely throw a side-light on its social history, which must be reconstructed by a wide and patient study of the conditions of life of the common people. Professor Masson's life of Milton is the largest life of an individual Englishman, but despite its ponderous learning and great accuracy, cannot be regarded as a model biography, overweighted as it is with an enormous mass of detail about contemporaries unjustified by anything but a roundabout and indirect connection with Milton himself, who, spite of his poetical and even political importance, was not by any means the centre of the destinies of England. Carlyle's life of John Sterling, again, is an example of an almost perfect biography, and yet it is that of a man whose life was in some respects hardly worth writing at all. He was indeed a man of high aspirations and clear intellect, but beyond this there was scarcely anything very memorable in him, and the abiding charm of the book is due to nothing but the consummate art of the writer and his revelation of himself in sympathy with his subject. Mr Cross's life of George Eliot errs in the opposite direction. Here the biographer adopted the method of making the subject speak entirely by extracts from letters, with the very briefest possible connection of narrative. But by keeping himself so much out of sight, the writer only avoided

Scylla to fall into Charybdis, and succeeded in making a book dull and lifeless that should have been unusually full of interest.

Many biographies, by having a subject of too narrow interest, or by treating a subject in too narrow and special a sense, do not reach the level of a permanent place in literature, though they may have been treated with full knowledge, fine literary sense working within the conditions laid down, and even proper sense of relative proportion. Every year produces examples of biography which are doomed, spite of more or less creditable literary workmanship, to be soon forgotten, from the ephemeral importance to the world of their subjects, and the controversies in which they were involved. Each one, for example, of our hundred religious denominations has its heroes—all important to its own sectaries, but not necessarily of the slightest value to the infinitely wider world. The lives of these men are full of interest within the small circle of their personal influence, but they do not in the least touch the sympathies of readers outside it, unless they chance at once to be written with more than consummate literary skill, and to be revelations of figures with dimensions much beyond those of the usual church leader or pulpit orator. But unfortunately the hero of our religious biographies is not always a Wesley, a Chalmers, an Edward Irving, or even a Whitefield, any more than the biographer is always a Southey, a Haunsa, or a Mrs Oliphant. Similarly, there is hardly an eminent man of science, actor, musician, mere millionaire, or successful soldier whose life is not written often in his own lifetime, at more or less extravagant length, and with a more or less absurd overestimate of his relative importance. By no means the least really important of our biographies are our lives of 'illustrations shoemakers,' and those unknown village naturalists who so suddenly found themselves famous.

We have many lives, moreover, of very great inherent importance indeed, but which appeal to comparatively small circles of readers from the large demand they make upon the possession of special culture or knowledge. Such are many of our larger lives of philosophers, and those of artists and musicians. Excellent examples of the last are Crowe and Cavalcaselle's lives of *Raphael* and *Titian*, Spitta's *Bach*, Jahn's *Mozart*, Karasowski's *Chopin*, and Woltmann's *Hans Holbein*, all excellent examples of solid, conscientious, and exhaustive biography, but of too large proportions for the mere literary student.

All history is full of the materials of biography, though it is only in the narrowest sense true that history is nothing but an aggregation of the biographies of individuals. No little of the interest in ancient and modern histories alike depends on the pictures of men and women with which their pages are lightened up, and this we find in annalists like Livy and Tacitus, no less than in professed biographers like Plutarch and Suetonius. Perhaps no more living portraits were ever painted than those sketched in a few touches in the lurid colours of Tacitus. In the hastiest sketch of the master we see far more than in the most finished painting by the dauber. Such books as Holinshed's *Chronicle*, Clarendon's *History of the Rebellion*, Burnet's *History of his Own Time*, and Shakespeare's historical plays, from the portraits of individuals they contain, have an additional interest that is only second to their historical importance. Indeed it is far more than a paradox to say that such works of creative fiction as the last are truer than the records of history themselves, for they are informed with a deeper inwardness than these, and do far more to create for us the actual living objective figures of history. Shakespeare's

Richard III. is not only a magnificent creation as the dramatic revelation of a matchless usurper, but it is so true a realisation of this working on a sound basis of consistent tradition that it satisfies, as Mr Cairdner tells us, the requirements of historical truth almost as much as any formal history. Shakespeare's historical figures are not puppets dressed in old clothes, but living and breathing men and women, and the bare historical details of their characters and lives have become fused in his glowing imagination and harmonised into consistent wholes stamped with the warm and actual impress of very truth. This is hardly less true of Macaulay's *History*, and still more of Carlyle's *French Revolution*, with its vivid portraits of even the minor figures flashed like instantaneous photographs upon the reader's brain. Again, books like D'Israeli's *Calamities of Authors* and *Quarrels of Authors* are full of rich material for the biographer, as are also such critical essays as those of Macaulay and Carlyle, hardly less than professedly biographic studies like Hayward's *Sketches of Eminent Statesmen and Writers*, and Bagehot's *Biographical Studies*.

One word must be said on the question of the biographer's reticence. Voltaire said, 'We owe consideration to the living; to the dead we owe only truth.' Doubtless this is true if the dead have slumbered long enough to be regarded somewhat impersonally even by their own descendants, but no language is too strong to reprobate the conduct of those writers of biography or autobiography who ruthlessly tear open unhealed wounds and bridge their malignant malice across the separating grave. The concluding and posthumous volume of Campbell's lives of the Chancellors, containing the lives of Brougham and Lyndhurst, is an example of biography, whether due to deliberate malice or no, so full of misrepresentation and inaccuracy, to say nothing of lack of generosity and good taste in treating the life of great living contemporaries, that, as Sir Charles Wetherell wittily said, or at least re-said, the author had 'added a new sting to death.'

No form of this composition is of more abiding interest than the autobiography in which a man narrates his own history, unlocks his heart, and takes the public into confidence by laying bare the motives of his life. To know one's self was the first and last step to wisdom, according to the Greek sage—the last, indeed, for nothing is more difficult to attain than just such self-knowledge. And if a man has so much ado to understand his own heart, how much less valuable will be his diagnosis of his neighbour's. Dr Johnson thought every man's life could be best written by himself, and doubtless so it could if every man were a Dr Johnson. It is needless to say that nothing can be more difficult than to preserve the just balance between due modesty and overweening self-consciousness and self-esteem. In this form there are no better examples in the English tongue than those of Gibbon and Hume, and the opening sentence of the latter is memorable as a canon of art: 'It is difficult for a man to speak long of himself without vanity, therefore I shall be short.' It would be invidious to name modern autobiographies which reveal a complete overestimate of the writer's own abilities or importance, though our contemporary literature is by no means barren of such books, often naïve and unconscious to a degree. Autobiographies of more than ordinary interest and value are those of Lord Herbert of Chesham, Sir Kenneth Digby, Jerome Cardan, Ellwood, Clarendon, 'Jupiter' Carlyle, Thomas Boston, Benjamin Franklin, Haydon, Cobbett, Harriet Martineau, Beranger, Mary R. Mitford, Mary Somerville, Hugh Miller in *My Schools and Schoolmasters*, Colonel Meadows Taylor, Hans Christian Andersen,

Leigh Hunt, Berlioz, Macready, John Stuart Mill, George Sand, Mark Pattison, Anthony Trollope, Renan in *Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse*, Alphonse Daudet in *Trente Ans de Paris*, Sir-Henry Taylor, John Ruskin in *Proserpina*, and the fragment in Carlyle's *Reminiscences*, with its strange sad story of self-reproach lightened up with rare literary charm and gleams of tenderness that make it unique in English literature.

St Augustine's *Confessions* stands by itself as a revelation of the spiritual history of perhaps the greatest intellect that has ever been entirely mastered and moulded by religion. Completely different in most respects, but hardly less valuable as a confession of the strange spiritual history of a mighty intellect and a great heart, is the *Apologia* of Cardinal Newman. Sir Thomas Browne's *Religio Medici* has high value as a confession of faith, but not a little of its exceptional literary charm depends upon the pleasing egotism with which its author reveals his foibles to the reader. The *Grace Abounding* of Bunyan is a spiritual autobiography of singular intensity, in spite of itself of high value as literature. Rousseau's *Confessions* is a book of rare interest, but hardly of such precious value as its author imagined, for the ear of the modern reader never fails to detect the ring of the counterfeit that deprives it of half its charm by robbing it of reality. Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit* stands quite alone as the self-told history of the artistic growth of perhaps the best-cultured intellect that the world has ever seen; but its value would be greater if, to use the author's own antithesis, we knew quite how much is truth and how much is poetry. Borrow's *Lancashire* is a book difficult to class, but is substantially an autobiography at least; and the same is equally true of De Quincey's *Confessions of an Opium Eater*, one of the strangest books in our language. Some of our greatest novels contain autobiography wrapped up more or less obscurely in them, and to the consequent reality may owe no little of their power. We know that the story of *David Copperfield* closely follows the early life of Dickens, and that George Eliot herself was just such a girl as Maggie Tulliver in *The Mill on the Floss*. There are other books about which it is doubtful how far they are fact and how far fiction, as the *Memoirs of Captain Carleton* and of *Bampfylde Moore Caroon*. Defoe's *Memoirs of a Cavalier* is exactly such a book as might well have been true, and the great Chatham did no wrong to his intelligence in accepting it as actual history.

The letters of Cicero, Madame de Sevigné, Pope, Gray, Cowper, and such masters in this form, teem with invaluable autobiographical details; and indeed most modern biographies are largely made up of the letters of the subject, and thus are to a great extent autobiographie in character; while many of the larger and more important of recent biographies, as those of *General Grant* by his family, and *Charles Darwin* by his son, contain an autobiographical portion, and so belong to both divisions at once. Of Shakespeare, our greatest Englishman, there is no adequate life, and it is hardly probable that such ever will be written; of Thackeray, again, we have no life, in accordance with his own desire, though such publications as Anthony Trollope's study in the 'English Men of Letters' series, and still more the collection of his own letters published in 1887, go some way at least to supply the want. Some of the best English biographies have been already named; others are Lockhart's *Scott*; Moore's *Byron*; Morley's *Diderot* and *Rousseau*; Trevelyan's *Macaulay* and *Fox*; Sir Theodore Martin's *Life of the Prince Consort*; Carlyle's *Frederick the Great*, his *Schiller*, and his *Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell*; Stopford Brooke's *Robertson* of Brighton; Chalmers, by

Hanna; Coxe's *Marlborough*; Lewes's *Goethe*; Talfourd's *Lamb*; Mrs Gilchrist's *Blake*; Mrs Gaskell's *Charlotte Brontë*; Washington Irving's *Columbus*; Sparks's *Washington*; Hayley's *Cowper*; McCrie's *Knox* and *Andrew Melville*; Lytton's *life*; Spedding's *Bacon*, an elaborate and not unsuccessful attempt to rehabilitate a hero; Hamerton's *Turner*; Mark Pattison's *Casaubon*; Helps's *Cortez*, and his *Pizarro*; Froude's *Cæsar*; Forster's *Goldsmith*, *Landon*, *Dickens*, and a fragment of *Swift*; F. D. Maurice, by his son; *Longfellow*, by his son; Seeley's *Stein*; Dowden's *Shelley*; and Cabot's *Emerson*. Some of the more remarkable shorter biographies in English literature are Adamnan's *Life of St Columba*, More's *Henry VII.*, Cavendish's *Life of Wolsey*, Mrs Hutchinson's *Memoirs* of her husband, and *Crabbe's Life*, by his son.

Examples of scoundrelism frankly owned, as in Thackeray's *Barry Lyndon*, are Casanova's *Memoirs* and the Autobiography of Benvenuto Cellini; while examples of biographies in which the author abuses his hero, in contrast to biography as usually written, are Sir Walter Scott's and Lanfrey's lives of *Napoleon*, R. W. Griswold's *Poe*, and O'Connor's *Beaconsfield*. A remarkable example of a biography in which the reader finds almost no interest whatever save in the personality of the writer, is the life of Lord George Bentinck, by Disraeli, afterwards Lord Beaconsfield.

One other class of writings often contains miniature biographies, and at least are invaluable as materials for the biographer no less than the historian, the *Memoires pour servir*, in which French literature is so rich. Such books as Pepys' and Evelyn's *Diaries* are invaluable bits of autobiography, while they are more. Grammont's *Memoirs* cannot be overlooked by any one who wishes to understand the men and women of the Restoration; while Crabb Robinson's voluminous diaries and Senior's reports of conversations contain invaluable materials, which will give colour to biographies of nineteenth-century men and women yet unwritten, as well as add no less valuable qualifying clauses to the estimates of persons set forth in lives already in our hands. Greville's *Diaries* will ever be of great importance for the Victorian era, covering as they do a period of over forty years, and containing, with many stories and no little scandal, a few elaborate portraits.

In the French and German languages there are many excellent examples of biography. Here it may be enough to mention the names of the authors of what are among the most valuable: In France, Fléchier, Fontenelle, Voltaire, Boissy d'Anglas, Villemain, Cousin; and in Germany, Schröckh, Herder, Klein, Meissner, Heeren, Luden, Varnhagen von Ense, Barthold, Döring, Pertz, Haym, Arneth, Otto Jahn, Chrysander, Kapp, and Droysen. Dilthey's *Schleiermacher*, Haym's *Hegel*, and Nippold's *Rathe* may also be named. Some excellent biographies that have been translated into English are Köstlin's *Luther*, Zeller's *Strauss*, Loménie's *Beaumarchais*, Duntzer's *Goethe*, Schiller, and Lessing.

Among biographical works, some are universal, as Michaud's *Biographie Universelle* (1811-28; new ed. 45 vols. 1842-65); the *English Cyclopædia*, biographical section (1856-57); *Nouvelle Biographie Générale* (46 vols. 1857-66); among older books, Bayle's *Dictionnaire Historique et Critique* (1697); Chalmers's *Biographical Dictionary* (32 vols.; new ed. 1812-17); and for our own contemporaries: Vapereau's *Dictionnaire Universel des Contemporains* (5th ed. 1880); *Men of the Time* (12th ed. 1887); and *Celebrities of the Century* (1887). Other biographical works treat the lives of certain classes of men, as Vasari's *Lives of Painters, Sculptors, and Architects*; Mrs Jameson's *Memoirs of Early Italian Painters*; Cunningham's *Lives of the most Eminent British Painters*;

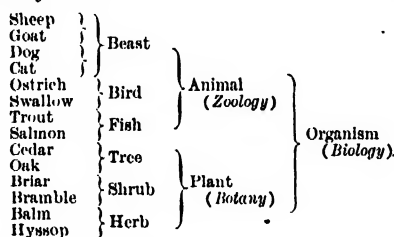
Doran's *Their Majesties' Servants*; Bettany's *Eminent Doctors*; Lord Campbell's *Lives of the Lord Chancellors, and Lives of the Chief-Justices*; Dean Hook's *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury*; Dr Smith and Dr Wace's *Dictionary of Christian Biography*; Agnes Strickland's *Lives of the Queens of England, of the Tudor Princesses, and of the Last Four Princesses of the House of Stuart*; the *Acta Sanctorum* of the Bollandists; Johnson's *Lives of the Poets* (1781); Smiles's *Lives of the Engineers, and his Industrial Biographies*; Grove's *Dictionary of Musicians* (1879-85); and H. A. Müller's *Biographisches Künstler-Lexicon der Gegenwart* (1882). Others again are for certain countries only, as Fuller's *Worthies of England* (1662); *Biographia Britannica* (1747); Chambers's *Dictionary of Eminent Scotsmen* (1835); Sparks's *American Biography* (1834), and Appleton's *Cyclopaedia of American Biography*, edited by J. Grant Wilson and John Fiske (6 vols. 1887-88); Leslie Stephen's *Dictionary of National Biography* (1885, to extend to 50 vols.). The last contains in Burns and Carlyle perfect miniature biographies from the pen of the editor himself. There are special biographical collections also, though none of such extent, for Italy, Spain, France, Switzerland, Germany, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, and even Brazil.

Special groups of books that are at once biographies and critical studies are the 'English Men of Letters' series and 'Les Grands Écrivains Français.' In the former, such perfect pieces of work as Leslie Stephen's *Johnson*, Dean Church's *Spenser*, Mark Pattison's *Milton*, John Morley's *Burke*, Canon Ainger's *Lamb*, and Sidney Colvin's *Keats* were permanent gains to English literature; while the latter series opened well with Jules Simon's *Cousin, Albert Sorel's Montesquieu*, Gaston Boissier's *Madame De Sévigné*, and E. Caro's *George Sand*. The 'American Men of Letters' series contains good studies on Hawthorne by J. R. Lowell, Washington Irving by C. D. Warner, and Emerson by O. W. Holmes; the 'American Statesmen,' lives of Jefferson by John F. Morse, and Adams by James T. Hosmer. A similar series is that of the 'English Worthies,' edited by Mr Andrew Lang, containing books so good as Darwin by Grant Allen, *Marlborough* by Mr Saintsbury, *Raleigh* by Mr Gosse, and *Steele* by Austin Dobson. Other series depending largely on the biographical interest are 'The Great Musicians,' among them *Weber* by Sir Julius Benedict, and *Wagner* by Mr Hueffer; the 'Great Artists,' with *Dürer* and *Titian* by Heath, *Hogarth* by Dobson, *Turner* by Monkhouse, and *Velasquez* by Stowe; the 'Eminent Women' series, with *Maria Edgeworth* by Helen Zimmern, *Mary Lamb* by Annie Gilchrist, and the *Countess of Albany* by Vernon Lee; 'English Philosophers,' with *Bacon* by Fowler, and *J. S. Mill* by Helen Taylor; and the 'New Plutarch,' with *Coligny* by Walter Besant, *Franklin* by Beesly, *Victor Emmanuel* by Dicey, *Abraham Lincoln* by Leland, and *Haroun Alraschid* by Palmer. Somewhat similar, and indeed the earliest of such series as these, are 'Ancient Classics for English Readers,' including literary studies with a biographical setting of *Horace*, *Cicero*, *Xenophon*, *Plato*, *Aristotle*, &c.; and 'Foreign Classics for English Readers,' including similar books devoted to *Rabelais*, *Voltaire*, *Goethe*, *Pascal*, *Diderot*, *Catleron*, &c. Yet another series, but one of far more than ordinary importance, is that of the 'Philosophical Classics,' including monographs so masterly as *Hegel* by Edward Caird, *Berkeley* by Professor Fraser, and *Vico* by Professor Flint. Another series of great value is that of the 'Twelve English Statesmen,' which began with Mr Freeman's *William the Conqueror*, and Mrs Green's *Henry II.*

Biology (Gr. *bios*, 'life'; *logos*, 'discourse'). This term has been occasionally abused in English popular writing, more especially in the absurd word *electro-biology*, which at one time threatened to take root in popular usage (see ANIMAL MAGNETISM), and has even by some scientific writers been confused with general physiology, or a special province of it. Yet the established and only legitimate meaning of biology is its literal one, that of the science of life—i.e. the science which seeks to classify and generalise the vast and varied multitude of phenomena presented by and peculiar to the living world. In the following outline the science and its general relations may be conveniently discussed under seven heads.

1. *Origin and Rise of Biology.*—Science being simply a systematised development of our common experience, it is with no more than that simplest knowledge of living beings possessed by the savage or the child that the future biologist sets out. These already keenly observe the forms of life around them: the sheep and goat, the dog and cat, the fowl and sparrow, the trout and salmon, are all clearly recognised and named; and similarly with plants. Classification, too, naturally arises; the birds, beasts, and fishes become more and more clearly defined; and even the residual mob of 'creeping things' discloses possibilities of orderly arrangement. Cedar and oak obtain the common name of trees, briar and bramble of bushes, balm and hyssop of herbs; but beyond this level it is not easy to pass. He is therefore 'the best botanist who knows most plants,' the greatest naturalist who can recognise the appearance and recall the names of the greatest number of living things, or at anyrate can remember most about each of them. This fundamental but as yet scarcely scientific knowledge comes to be recorded in a literature of natural history which varies indeed in accuracy and fullness, yet remains unchanged in spirit and purpose whether we open the pages of Pliny, Gesner, or Buffon. White's *Natural History of Selborne* may be taken as the classic English example of this nascent phase of biology; and its wide acceptance is not hard to understand, since at this level of simple but comprehensive interest in living beings, every one is by nature, however unconsciously, something of a biologist. But the habit of observation insensibly develops an increased perception of likenesses and differences; collections too arise; the power and need of classification develop and cultivate each other beyond the popular level, and a community of naturalists is thus insensibly formed. These divide, in the first place, into zoologists and botanists, among whom minor circles of specialists occupied with definite groups appear in turn. While this division of labour is apparent, its result is always giving us more and more definite general ideas of the groups studied, and this process of generalisation is summed up from time to time by a mind which unites the old breadth of interest with the newer depth of knowledge. Classifications are continually approximating towards completeness; our masses of knowledge respecting the plant and the animal world are at last brought together as botany and zoology, and the final advance is made through seeking to unite the generalisations of the two. Just as ostrich and swallow, shark and salmon, become united into the common logical genera of bird or fish, so inevitably do plant and animal become united into the general conception of *organism*. Their details of habit and processes of life come to be viewed in general terms of *environment* and *function*. Unity becomes more and more discerned under the manifold variety of these, and the conception of a united and general biology at last lies clear before us. It is, in fact, with the naturalist as with the chemist or mineralogist: the latter has his interest at first awakened by the variety of glistening stones, but soon finds himself eager to interpret and systematise the actual varieties of crystalline form in terms of a few simple ideal ones, with modifications in relation to particular circumstances; while the former passes from the empirical description of the experimental details of the science to the interpretation of these by reference to the properties of chemical elements and the laws of their molecular interaction and arrangement. Similarly, the naturalist passes from empirically recording his observations of living nature or the treasuring of its defunct spoils, to analyse and unify the general problems of life; and thus becomes a biologist proper. It may be well

clearly to sum this historical advance diagrammatically:



From this diagram the striking contrast, yet continuous gradation, between two such familiar classics as White's *Selborne* and Spencer's *Principles of Biology* may be clearly understood, and by tracing the steps of its correction and development (see BOTANY and ZOOLOGY), the history of scientific advance might be recorded, and even the field of each investigator marked out. Since these details will be outlined under BOTANY and ZOOLOGY, it suffices here to point out that progress has lain in continuously uniting these extremes, so that the crude empiricism which at first absorbed the more concrete students, and the vague and useless metaphysics which were wont to discredit the abstract ones, are being steadily replaced by a compact body of generalisation, along which the specialist at any point may safely ascend to the widest theories of the science, and by which the most abstract thinker may similarly return to lay clear hold of the minutest details of any order of empirical fact. Hence we can clearly understand the way in which the conception of biology was actually first formulated at the beginning of the century, independently and simultaneously by Lamarck and Treviranus (1802); the former rising from his early botanical studies and his *Histoire Naturelle des Animaux sans Vertèbres* to the elevated conceptions of his *Philosophie Zoologique*, which reached general principles as the outcome of detailed studies; while the more abstract mind of the German Treviranus occupied itself with details essentially as interpreted by the help of general principles.

The conception of biology, it will be noted, has thus come to be used with two different contents: in speaking of the principles of biology, we refer to the body of generalisations common to plants and animals; while in speaking of the science of biology, we include the entire body of botany and zoology, with all their concrete sub-sciences. Yet there is here no discord, and we may conveniently accept the definition of Charles Robin: 'Biology is the science which has for its object the study of organic beings, and for its end the knowledge of the laws of their organisation and activity.'

2. *Subordinate Provinces of Biology.*—The results of this natural history study of plants and animals, which seeks above all things to know the actual forms of life, are of course in the first place to be sought in the numerous separate articles devoted to particular animals and plants; next, in the articles devoted to separate families, natural orders, classes, and sub-kingdoms, and finally under BOTANY and ZOOLOGY; while the facts relating to their distribution upon the earth's surface, in present and in past time, are outlined under GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION and PALEONTOLOGY respectively. Underlying this empirical view of plants and animals, yet essential to the classification which can alone give this any intelligibility or completeness, lies a detailed analysis of each of these multitudinous forms, which we call *anatomy*. This involves comparison, and *comparative anatomy* arises; but as we come to discern the marvellous unity of type which underlies all apparent differences, and as we (e.g.)

decompose all flowers into variously arranged leaf-whorls, or fancy that we can reduce all skulls to vertebrae, or again analyse the organism in organ, tissue, or cell, the conception arises of what was at first called transcendental or philosophic anatomy, but which later became known as *morphology*. This term has also been extended, as on the whole with advantage, to include not only these widest generalisations of unity in organic forms, but all the details as well, in fact all the static aspects of organisms as distinguished from their dynamic or vital ones, which we similarly group under *physiology*. In the same way the crystallographer is, as it were, the pure morphologist, but with him we can scarcely avoid including the descriptive mineralogist as well.

But while the morphologist deals primarily with the anatomical facts presented by the organism before him at a given moment, he can only fully understand the origin of these and still more the resemblances and differences by reference to their form at earlier and earlier past times; and in this endeavour to reach this fuller conception of form no longer viewed at rest, but as a result and phase of change, we constitute the sub-science of *embryology*. See ANATOMY, MORPHOLOGY, EMBRYOLOGY.

Yet our biological studies are even now not biological in the most literal sense, for the study mere forms can take no note of the life which possessed or produced them. The morphologist's dealings are with fossil and corpse; his botanical garden is a herbarium, his appliances the scalpel and lens; whereas it is the harder task of the physiological colleague, instead of simply describing the machinery of life, to comprehend it in action. He thus of course requires an acquaintance with the results of the study of forms, but only for the sake of applying, and if possible interpreting them. In a word, his problems are no longer those of statics, but of dynamics. These dynamic physiological problems in the first place concern the individual organism at a given time both as whole and analysed; we study its internal and external relations—its respiration and nutrition in all cases, its sensation and movement if any there be. But the conception of phases of function at successive times necessarily also presents itself and the more complex problems of growth and adaptation, of variation and of disease, thus arise while when we pass from the study of the organism alone to its relations to the species, the processes of reproduction and the marvels of heredity appear for elucidation (see ENVIRONMENT, HEREDITARY PATHOLOGY, PHYSIOLOGY, REPRODUCTION, VARIATION). And in all these cases, as we shall see below, these problems may be attacked at different levels—i.e. in terms of organ, tissue, cell, or protoplasm.

3. *History of Morphology and Physiology.*—The progress of our concrete knowledge of plants and animals is respectively outlined under BOTANY and ZOOLOGY, and even from these articles it will be sufficiently obvious that these two developments are not mere isolated streams of discovery, but have a deeper than biographical interest. Our historic inquiry must now seek to fuse these two detailed chronicles of botanical and zoologic advance into a broad and general sketch. It should show how the whole development of modern biology, despite its multitudes of past and present workers, and its apparently overpowering wealth and variety of detail, lies upon a few essential lines of investigation, which have been opened up by a magisterial succession of original thinkers, and simply extended and elaborated by their respective schools. For were this grasp of general principles once obtained, it is evident that we should be

possession, not merely of an additional fragment of more or less interesting historical information, but of a well-twined and trustworthy clue which should at once guide us through the teeming maze of organic nature, and among the corresponding recesses of the vast and increasing library of biologic science.

(a) *Morphology*.—Starting then from those chaotic accumulations of fact and blunder, myth and fancy, of practical usefulness and traditional quackery, which characterise the medieval encyclopædias of natural history, we find their inevitable criticism and replacement at length fairly undertaken in the latter half of the 17th century by the labours of John Ray and his minor contemporaries. Yet the period of general natural history was not to end for a century, for it is in Buffon's wide and brilliant survey of all that was known of animal life—the famous *Histoire Naturelle Générale*—that the ancient school found at once its highest outcome, its monument and grave. The modern period, then, essentially opens with Linnaeus, whose importance depends upon his having brought to bear upon the confused accumulations of the past the critical and analytic skill, the accuracy and descriptive power, and the classificatory resources of existing logic, which had hitherto been dragging on a merely academic or at most controversial existence, but left almost devoid of concrete or constructive applications. The importance of the order introduced by his binomial nomenclature, his establishment of the categories of species and genus, order and class, his precision of descriptive terminology and the like, can hardly be overrated; while his definite concentration for classificatory purposes upon the precise form of the organism as distinguished from its mere general appearance and mode of life, laid the basis of the future science of pure morphology. Despite the opposition of Buffon, whose thoroughly synthetic attitude and ardent enthusiasm of living nature were alike naturally repugnant to the cold analysis of the new Linnaean school, this necessarily triumphed, indeed too completely. The orderly and exhaustive catalogue of natural forms begun by Linnaeus was ardently taken up by his pupils, and handed on to his innumerable intellectual heirs; and it is still in progress, as every systematic monograph, such as those of the *Challenger Expedition*, still testifies. Each new species described means in fact a new leaf added to his *Systema Nature*, and the original work is thus, as it were, under continual revision and extension by a succession of sectional sub-editors. Yet, although invaluable as an index to the museum of nature, and indispensable as a catalogue for the future library of the science, the preparation of this systematic description of species gradually enslaved its labourers, and blinded them to all the other problems presented by the living beings which came under their notice. But although this disastrous tendency remains even now too common, the required deepening of the science was soon fairly begun by Jussieu, who passed from the description of external forms alone, and the artificial and provisional grouping of species by their superficial characters, to the establishment of large natural alliances upon a basis of comparative anatomy. He thus not only founded the 'natural system' in botany, but suggested to Cuvier that re-examination of the animal world upon similar lines which became his life-work. But this supplementing of superficial description by detailed anatomical and comparative research has not only given us the classic *Règne Animal* of Cuvier, but its continuation by an entire school—the comparative anatomists. Of these Meckel, Müller, and Gegenbaur in Germany, Milne-Edwards and Lacaze-Duthiers in France, Owen and Huxley in

England, will be remembered among the most historic veterans.

The next step, that of penetration below the study of organs, is due to Bichat, who analysed the body into a series of simple tissues—muscular, nervous, glandular, connective, &c., with definite structural characters. Here, then, a new movement—the histological—found its beginning, and thus under Bichat's *Anatomie Générale* we may group not only the labours of his immediate successors, but all those researches on embryonic layers and tissue structure which have of late formed an increasing proportion of recent literature.

Histology had not, however, found in the study of tissues its ultimate basis. The microscopic studies of the botanist Schleiden led him, in 1838, to the conclusion that all plant structures were built up of separate unit-masses or *cells*, a generalisation immediately extended to animal structures by Schwann, who published in the following year his famous *Microscopic Investigations on the Accordance in the Structure and Growth of Plants and Animals*, as the English translation (Sydenham Society, 1847) has it. The tissue being in this way analysed into a cell-aggregate, that elaborate and detailed study of cellular forms and structures, development and modifications, which still mainly occupies the histologist, was thus fairly begun.

Finally, the description of the essential living substance of some of the lowest animal cells by Dujardin, and the similar account of vegetable cell-substance by Von Mohl, have directed attention from the cell to the all-important protoplasm of which it is composed. Here, of course, opens a new series of investigations, in which a basis for the study of organic structure is sought in the investigation of protoplasm. No deeper analysis is possible, without passing out of morphology altogether into chemistry and physics; and we are thus warranted in regarding the preceding five great categories of morphological inquiry as exhaustive, although progress within each of these is still far from ended. It must not be forgotten, indeed, that especially since the establishment of the last two of these categories (cell and protoplasm) we have had a new light cast upon all five through the study of development, with which names like those of Von Baer, Kölliker, and others, are so imperishably associated. Thus we can now trace not only the origin and differentiation of the cell itself, but that of the tissue, the organ, and the organism, from the ovum or primeval cell. Recognising, however, this general indebtedness to the embryologist for elucidating, under the actual facts of being, their mode of *becoming*, we may still classify the labours of morphologists as being essentially continuations of the five fundamental classes above mentioned.

(b) *Physiology*.—The early physiology was a matter of very vague and often mystical interpretation of the processes of the body, as phrases like those of 'animal spirits' and 'vital spirits' still survive to show. At best it was broadly little more than a superficial account of habit and temperament, which, although corresponding to the observation of general form later inaugurated by Linnaeus, had yet little of the order and definiteness of this. The progress of anatomical research could not, however, fail to suggest that many vital processes were associated with definite organs or systems of organs, and the analytic study of physiology may be thus regarded as beginning with Harvey's memorable demonstration of the circulation of the blood. The study of the functions of each organ, viewed as a whole, long continued to form the sole problem of physiology. The illustrious Bichat was, however, no less a physiological than a morphological thinker; and in the physiological portion of his

Anatomic Générale, function was referred from the organ as a whole to the fundamental properties of its essential tissue. He thus not only deepened both morphology and physiology by a new analysis, but showed them to coincide; and in this way we come to understand how he so early clearly reached the conception of a unified science of biology.

With the advent of the cell theory, function, which had thus been referred from organ to tissue, had of course next to receive a yet deeper interpretation in terms of the constituent cells of these. Cellular physiology and pathology were clearly foreseen by Goodsir, and soon developed by Virchow and his school. Yet the interpretation of function in relation to structure, which had been successively undertaken at each deepening level, began even at this one to break down. Attention came to be directed to the nature of protoplasm, and physiology, as Foster expresses it, thus began to undergo 'a change of front.' For the physiologist has now to view the problems of function of organ, tissue and cell alike, as outcomes or accompaniments of the destructive and constructive molecular changes (*metabolism*) of its protoplasm, of the physical and chemical processes of its waste and repair, its *katabolism* and *anabolism* respectively. This ultimate school of physiology may be headed by the works of the late illustrious Claude Bernard.

It is a fact of no little significance that these two independently deepened lines of research, morphological and physiological, are accurately parallel, stage for stage; not a little remarkable that the two sub-sciences of morphology and physiology should have independently undergone a precisely similar evolution. The result of our survey may in fact be conveniently illustrated by means of a couple of similar bookcases—one for morphology, the other for physiology—the shelves of each being allotted, in descending order, to the literature of the structural and functional aspects respectively of organism, organ, tissue, cell, and protoplasm, and each shelf being headed by its initial classic. To this biological pentateuch, of morphology and physiology respectively, each set of subsequent researches must be simply regarded as commentary or appendix. For since not qualitatively distinct, the originality of these is simply of a quantitative order. And if we imagine these cases, instead of being placed side by side as in the diagram, to be situated back to back, we have a yet clearer image of the completeness of their parallelism, as well as of the way in which they have independently been filled by workers approaching from quite different sides.

MORPHOLOGICAL	ASPECT OF	PHYSIOLOGICAL
+ Linnæus	Organism.	Hippocrates +
+ Cuvier	Organ.	Harvey +
+ Bichât	Tissue.	Bichât +
+ Schwann	Cell.	Virchow +
+ Dujardin	Protoplasm.	Bernard +

(c) *Evolution*.—Where, however, it may be asked, is the position on such a scheme of the literature of

evolution? The reply of course is, that like the conception of individual development of form and function, that of racial development does not lie upon any one level, but equally below them all. The evolutionist, like the embryologist, of course considers form and function in process of continuous change, while the morphologist or physiologist views them as constant at any given moment. Hence the diagrammatic representation of our evolutionary conceptions would lie in another plane; its literature might indeed be placed on the same shelves, but behind the volumes occupying them. The history of the doctrine of evolution, like that of embryology, may therefore more conveniently be treated separately (see EMBRYOLOGY, EVOLUTION), while the subject of distribution, not being a department of pure biology at all, but rather of geology and physical geography, does not enter into the present discussion (see DISTRIBUTION).

4. *Nature and Origin of Life*.—It is by this time sufficiently clear that the biologist is solely concerned with the positive facts of living nature, and is seeking only verifiable generalisations. He accepts the relativity of all scientific knowledge, and has long been wholly freed from alchemist-like dreams of reaching any 'vital essence' or ultimate secret of life other than that of a classified and unified account of its phenomena. The history of speculation as to the ultimate nature of life may therefore be conveniently relegated to a separate article (see LIFE), in which the various attempts to define it will be found: for actual biological purposes, the life of an organism is simply the sum of its functions, internal and external; nor need any other working conception be desired, if we agree that the ideal of organic life, that of a maximum of healthy function, implies the harmonised yet progressive adaptation of function and environment. Similarly, the history of speculation as to the unknown origin of life is separately discussed (see SPONTANEOUS GENERATION); while such actual knowledge as we possess respecting the structural and functional properties and characteristics of living matter is summarised under PROTOPLASM.

5. *Place of Biology among the Sciences*.—While no special account of the logic of biology is required, save that its study demands 'observation and experiment, comparison, classification, and historic filiation'—in short, all the powers of the scientific intelligence—its relation to other studies is a matter of more serious dispute. The essential problems, briefly stated, are: (1) How far and in what way the phenomena of biology are interpretable by and related to those of chemistry and physics; (2) How physiological phenomena are related to mental ones. The reply which is offered to these questions by many biologists may be best stated in two quotations from Huxley: 'Considered apart from the phenomena of consciousness, the phenomena of life are all dependent upon the working of the same physical and chemical forces as those which are active in the rest of the world. . . . A mass of protoplasm is simply a molecular machine of great complexity, the total results of the working of which, or its vital phenomena, depend on the one hand upon its construction, and on the other upon the energy supplied to it; and to speak of "vitality" as anything but the name of a series of operations, is as if one should talk of the "horology" of a clock.' Again, 'the biological sciences are those which deal with the phenomena of living matter, and though it is customary and convenient to group apart such of these phenomena as are termed mental, and such of them as are exhibited by men in society under the heads of psychology and sociology, yet it must be allowed that no natural boundary separates the subject-matter of the latter

sciences from that of biology. Psychology is inseparably associated with physiology, and the phases of social life exhibited by animals other than man fall strictly within the province of the biologist.'

From these positions the transition is easy to the dogmatic materialism of writers who look forward to completely reducing functional and psychical processes to chemico-physical ones. But it has long been pointed out that the functional states and changes which we call physiological, and the mental states and changes which we know as psychological, have each their own definiteness and continuity. Motions are continuously traceable to antecedent motions, which may be termed their causes; nor is there any hiatus at which 'vitality' or the like can be inserted; similarly, however, changes in mentality are preceded by antecedent changes of mentality; which are equally entitled to be termed their causes. A comparison of the two streams shows indeed a definite parallelism between them; so that we constantly interpret one by the other. Feature, voice, and gesture are thus familiarly regarded as the 'expression' of psychological states, while the physician constantly ascertains the state of function by inquiring into the feelings of the patient. As, moreover, he next verifies this by a physical and chemical diagnosis, we become convinced of a complete constancy or parallelism of normal and pathological relations between chemico-physical changes, organic functions, and psychic states. The materialistic interpretation—i.e. of the latter two in terms of the first—is, however, as Comte has especially insisted, as unverifiable as would be the converse transcendental one. The links of the argument that physical changes set up the mental ones, may with equal strength be placed in precisely reverse order, to prove that psychic changes set up the physical ones. Given in fact these three orders of phenomena, physico-chemical, biological, and psychic, the labours of physiologists have done great service in establishing detailed parallelism between all these processes, yet leave the original distinctness of each category unimpaired. We can not only correlate the digestive process with normal psychic states of hunger and satisfaction, but define its physico-chemical constants, and even experimentally reproduce these in our test-tube outside the organism altogether. In a definite and very important sense, therefore, we can now say that we understand digestion in terms of chemistry and physics; but this advance of our physiological chemistry is apt to produce serious misunderstanding when it prevents the chemist from seeing that his biological colleague is not ultimately concerned with the action of the acids and ferments, in terms of which the chemical 'explanation' of digestion is expressed, but with digestion as one factor of his biological unity, the organism—as one process of its 'life'—i.e. of its adjustment of internal and external relations, a complex process with which no test-tube can present the slightest parity. Similarly, the psychic state accompanying digestion, whatever its precise physico-chemical and functional concomitants (although it is of course most interesting and desirable to define these), is only truly known by reference to the whole succession of phases or forms of mentality, which it is the problem of psychology to analyse and classify. It similarly, therefore, eludes all attempt at expression in terms of the contents of our test-tube, unless, indeed, we go so far as to endow this or its contents with specific mentality as well; this, however, would of course be an unverifiable hypothesis of transcendentalism, not a scientific materialism at all. In short, then, the physiologist is entitled to say that he knows of 'no thought without phosphorus,' but by no means that 'the brain secretes thought as the liver does bile.'

Again, since in sociology our problem is of social aggregates, the study of the individual may and does indeed furnish the most valuable data, but our ultimate sociology—i.e. our generalised and unified science—is concerned not with the individuals but with the essential drama of the race. The final *reductio ad absurdum* of the crudely materialistic position is afforded by pushing it to its logical consequence, for if, as we see many disposed to think, social phenomena fall truly within the province of the biologist, and this be but the interpretation of molecular machinery in terms of chemistry and physics, then the ultimate generalisations of sociology, the philosophy of history, would have to await elucidation by the organic chemist! It will thus be sufficiently clear that the parallelism which we are constantly establishing between all orders of phenomena, physical and biological, biological and psychological, or these and social, and which we may define as the province of a legitimate materialism, in no wise interferes with that claim to the unity and distinctness of each of these sciences, which remains as the stronghold of an equally legitimate transcendentalism.

6. *Generalisations of Biology.*—But while all these provinces of the science must be separately discussed, their results demand unification. It must not be forgotten that science, no less than music, is to be distinguished from its printed records, and even from our power of recollecting its details piecemeal. For the measure of our grasp of biology lies in our power of simultaneous orderly presentment of its whole body of essential truths before our minds, and such a breadth of synthetic vision, although demanding an exceptional effort, is becoming at least partially possible.

If we thus attempt to reach the largest possible general view of the science, we have evidently not only to unite the results of the morphological and physiological study of the organisms before us at the present moment, but to introduce the conception of past, indeed also of future time as well. This entire drama of organic existence is what we have now learned to call its *evolution*; and consequently, since this supreme generalisation has been clearly laid hold of by the students of separate sub-sciences, these have been well-nigh transformed. Their unification and detailed progress have alike made enormous advances, and we are thus rapidly approaching a unified and systematic account of organic nature.

Within the present limits only the merest outline of this synthetic view can be attempted. Starting once more at the rise of modern botany and zoology, we see the naturalists of the renaissance slowly disencumbering themselves of the literature of mere medieval traditions distorted from the classic past, which did duty for natural history, and returning to nature. We watch the rise of the systematic movement from Ray to Linnæus, and thence trace its extending exhaustiveness, aided by new appliances like the deep-sea dredge and the microscope, new facilities like the marine station and the exploring expedition, and carried on by an ever-increasing multitude of workers. Accepting this catalogue of organisms, which, though still incomplete, is now for most purposes far more than adequate, we have next to sum up each of the successive planes of morphological and physiological research, and seize the results of the scrutiny and comparison of the form and function of organs, tissues, cells, and protoplasm of the multitude of organisms which have now been submitted to this detailed analysis. An attempt at the synthetic presentation of this must set out from the Protoplasm (q.v.), which is the 'common denominator' or 'physical basis' of life. Here we have to acquaint ourselves with the conditions of its

existence, and take note of the physiologist's enumeration of its functions as 'contractile, irritable and automatic, receptive and assimilative, metabolic and secretory, respiratory and finally reproductive' (see PROTOPLASM).

The study of the unit-mass of protoplasm or cell should next be summarised, its varied forms surveyed and classified from the simplest to the most complex and many-celled plants and animals, and these generalised into the conception of a simple 'cell-cycle,' ranging between a more or less passive and encysted spheroidal form to a less or more motile (amoeboid or elongated) one. The phases of cell form are also seen to arise as so many stages of the rhythm between growth and waste (anabolism and katabolism) into which, as we have seen above, all functions are finally summed (see CELL). The simplest organisms are separate unit-masses of protoplasm, of which the life-history essentially coincides with the cell-cycle aforesaid (see PROTOZOA). In higher but still unicellular forms, the resting or the motile phase becomes more and more permanent and specialised, and a distinctly plant or animal character thus makes its appearance. Multiplication soon becomes habitual at some one definite phase, and instead of the separation of the resultant portions to lead an independent life, we at length have their continued union. Such a union of normally resting cells gives us the multicellular plants or *Metaphytes*; that of normally amoeboid cells, the multicellular animals or *Metazoa* (q.v.). By the more passive vegetable organism the energy of the sun's rays is usually absorbed by aid of a green colouring matter (Chlorophyll, q.v.), and applied to the reduction of the carbonic acid of the atmosphere, starch and cellulose being also normal products, while their nitrogenous matter is obtained in solution as ammonia or nitrates. On the other hand, the more active animal is dependent for its nitrogenous food on proteids already directly or indirectly worked up by the agency of plants, and also for its carbonaceous on organic substances, starch, sugar, fat, &c.

Of the multicellular plant or animal only a few cells remain comparatively undifferentiated to form the reproductive elements. In these that alternate or permanent preponderance of katabolism or anabolism, which is a constitutional feature of the adult life of the great majority of living beings, usually specially asserts itself; and we have thus the development of those motile and resting forms which are henceforth respectively characteristic of the male and female 'sex' (ovum and spermatozoon). See REPRODUCTION, SEX. After a more or less distinct 'rejuvenescence' of the primeval cell-cycle, usually accompanied by that complete union with a cell of contrasted sex which we term fertilisation, the resultant cell (fertilised ovum) undergoes segmentation into an embryonic mass (see EMBRYOLOGY). From this a new adult organism gradually develops. In the animal this embryonic sphere becomes dimpled into a two-layered sac, the primeval stomach or 'gastrula'; a third intermediate layer arises, and from these three certain definite organs constantly develop. The outer furnishes the epidermis, nervous system, and sense organs; the inner layer the alimentary canal and its appended glands; and the middle one the skeletal, muscular, excretory, and reproductive systems. This unit of origin gives us a starting-point for identification of like organs in different animals, and the fertile study of *homology* thus begins. Again, this development of at first similar cell-unions into tissues and organs is readily explained as a consequence of the division of labour in the individual and in the race. The associated units have their activities restricted in one way or in another, and their energies find new outlets varying with their special

circumstances. Function establishes structure, and these gradually perfect each other; the *tissue* is thus formed, and by-and-by becomes rounded off or combined with other tissues into a definite mechanism, the *organ*, while these may form a still larger unit, the *system*. It is therefore the development and complexity of this physiological progress of division of labour which determines the special and general form of the organism. We thus see how the results of pure morphology (anatomy without regard to physiology) acquire a rational explanation by reference to the physiological processes which shape organic forms. With increasing complexity of structure we have necessarily an increasing simplicity of function, for the many processes at first crowded into a single cell become, so to speak, sorted out into the different organs. Residual traces of all these protoplasmic properties must, however, remain in varying measure in even the most specialised of living cells, hence the possibility of functional change is never closed, since use, disuse, or changing circumstances may set up a renewed increment of any one or a continued decrement of any other of these minor processes, however apparently suppressed. Here in this latent potency of change we have in short the rationale not only of the cell-cycle with which we set out, but the explanation of the otherwise mysterious phenomena of reversion and progression—in fact, of the occurrence of all variations, normal or pathological alike. See PHYSIOLOGY, PATHOLOGY, VARIATION.

It is clear that this specialisation of organs involves their dependence upon each other, and that if one suffer or develop, this must affect all its partners in the general life. Hence we obtain 'correlated variations,' and interpret the various symptoms of a given disease. Progress as regards organs is thus twofold—(1) in continued development and increased division of labour of the parts (differentiation); (2) in increasing correlation of the parts to each other and in subordination to the whole (integration). And when we note that any higher integration depends upon a preceding new differentiation, which of course disturbs the existing equilibrium of the whole, we are in a position at once to comprehend the beginnings of disease, and to realise that the traditional pessimistic interpretation of this admits of important modification.

A strict classification of the organs is rendered difficult by the varied ways in which different organisms have solved the problems of adaptation: a general correspondence to those essential properties of protoplasm which we noted at the outset is of course observable, since the frog has no functions which were not foreshadowed in the amoeba. The older physiologists, however, clearly pointed out that the primary classification is that which separates the reproductive or species-regarding functions from the remaining individual ones; while the latter are again divisible according as they are concerned with the internal problems of the organism—i.e. with nutrition (also circulation, mechanical support, &c.) or with the external problems of relation to the environment (sensory, nervous, muscular). These fundamental contrasts between reproduction and individual development, and between the vegetative and the animal functions, are in fact the largest physiological features of organic nature, and admit of fruitful application (see VARIATION) to interpret the endless details of plant and animal form and life.

Returning to these, which we are now in a position to view as an ordered whole, we find that (a) the successive appearance of related types upon the globe broadly (and sometimes even minutely) corresponds to (b) the order of increasing complexity established on purely anatomical grounds, while

the embryologist (*c*) finds that the development of the individual from its unicellular simplicity to adult complexity repeats the same essential succession of phases. This threefold coincidence next demands explanation, and the 'theory of descent' from a flora and fauna of increasingly simpler character in the past necessarily makes its appearance; nor has any other scientific explanation been suggested. But this modification during descent next demands explanation; a problem of supreme difficulty which has had many attempted answers.

From all these repeated attempts to discern the principle of organic progress, the naturalist has been learning to change the static or anatomical view of living nature for the dynamic and physiological one—in other words, to rise from the analysis of the individual as a dead specimen to the conception of the species as a living whole. The commanding superiority and wide scientific influence of Darwin among naturalists are of course popularly, though groundlessly, associated with the origin instead of the final popularisation of the conception of descent; while even by scientific men they are frequently assumed to be essentially associated with his particular hypothesis of natural selection as the rationale of progressive modification; yet his biological influence and example primarily depend on his having fairly established in practice this great transition from the pursuit of dispersive specialisms towards attempting a general view and explanation of organic nature. Since his time, our knowledge of the plant can no longer be grouped round the dried herbarium specimen of it, as had been the case since Linnaeus' day. It has become again for us a living being, not only breathing, and growing in the sun, but moving, digesting, sensitive, often in a measure hardly second in its fullness to that of animal life—in a word, the dryad of old poetry has been recalled to life by modern science. The individual, too, has wide relations, here it may be to other plants, here to insects, there to birds and beasts: the entomologist must leave his museum, and the botanist his herbarium, to work out in the garden together the steps by which flower and plant have wrought out each other's form and destiny: they have soon to call in other specialists to their aid; and the world thus comes to be understood as a vast and complex web of life, and its many forms as related to each other by innumerable complex ties. Thus the farmer's cat influences his clover crop, or the distribution of a particular insect determines alike the civilisation and the scenery of vast regions of Central Africa. In this way the unit-problem of the science has become no longer the description of the isolated specimens of its index collections, but the history of the entire species in its living relations, actual and historic.

Since the doctrine of natural selection, which is the more immediate contribution of Darwin and his school to the theory of evolution, will be found summarised under DARWINIAN THEORY, and discussed under EVOLUTION, it suffices here to point out that, despite its wide applicability and indisputable services, its finality is again becoming disputed by various naturalists on different grounds (see EVOLUTION, VARIATION). On one side the older explanations, in terms of use and disuse, environment, &c., are being revived; while on another, it is being attempted to replace the received doctrine of indefinite variation, with progress by means of struggle for existence among individuals, by the conception of definite variation (even pathological), with progress essentially in the measure of the subordination of individual struggle and development to species-maintaining ends, reproductive, domestic, or associative. Without entering into details, it is evident that such a

restatement of the theory of the evolution of living beings—in terms no longer primarily of strength and competition, of hunger and battle, but of love and co-operation, of sacrifice and pain—would involve, no less fully than has the doctrine of struggle for existence, a deepened reinterpretation of plant and animal life, and would similarly extend into other fields than those of pure biology.

7. *Conclusion—Biology and Practical Life.*—

While biology as a science finds its source and justification in the natural impulse to contemplate, and reasonable desire to comprehend the world and our place in it, its action and reaction with practical life requires brief consideration. Our knowledge of animals, like the child's, obviously arises with their chase; and that of the aspects and properties of plants, wholesome and poisonous, perhaps even medicinal, with the hungry search for roots and berries. The evolution through higher social states finds its reflection in widening zoological and botanical folklore, and the developed agricultural conditions of civilised life not only admit of the increasing and systematising of our knowledge, but even at length contribute valuable conceptions, like that of selective breeding, of which Darwin has made such especial use. The recent contributions of biology to the arts of life have been of course primarily associated with the advance of medical treatment; hence the popular and even medical conception of the botanist is still based upon the traditional one of the herbologist in quest of specific remedies. The increase of food-supply, through pisciculture and breeding, and through the destruction of the enemies of useful species, is an application of more recent but widening growth; in fact those applications of our knowledge of cryptogamic pests which have especially culminated in the labours of Lister and Pasteur (see GERM THEORY), at present furnish the stock illustration of the applicabilities of pure biology. New ideas are also germinating; thus speculation is busy—e.g. with schemes of artificial human selection; while rapid progress is being made in the transition from detailed medicine to wholesale hygiene—i.e. beyond the mere application of specific remedies to morbid individual variations, and towards a progressive and harmonious reorganisation of the functions and environments which are afforded by the human hive or city to its individuals. For the task of biology applied as hygiene should not only be to subdue the tendencies to morbid variations, but to determine that maximum of optimum life-cycles, which is the biologist's and hygienist's concrete rendering of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. And as the twin scientific motives of childlike curiosity, with its analytic pursuits, and of maturer contemplation, with its synthetic aims, become balanced by the corresponding practical ones of the arts and their application to the general humanist problem just outlined, our biological science and art may be fairly expected to react more and more fully in their associated yet alternate progress.

This hope is indeed confirmed by the whole past history of the science; with a glance at which in its most general aspect the present article may fitly conclude. At the very outset (§§ 1, 3) we saw that biology is no mere isolated stream of fortuitous discovery; next (§ 5), that it is no mere separate discipline which can be exhaustively pursued apart from other sciences; and—now (§ 7), that it has arisen from, and constantly returns to, ordinary life and practice. In tracing the progress of biology, we are simply following the reflection of the changing lights cast upon the organic world by each prevailing mode of general thought and social life. In a word, the evolution of biology forms part of the general social evolution; the science is no

completed body of truth, but merely such portion of it as our stage of social progress enables us to see. Else the rise of science from art would be little more than an almost prehistoric process, instead of being still and continually going on. Innumerable instances, large and small, might be given of this; thus, the classificatory doctrine of the 'échelle des êtres' (see ZOOLOGY) due to the naturalist Bonnet, is far more than a mere detail of the biographical history of zoology; for the conception of an unbroken series of beings ascending in regular gradation from the lowest up to the highest is obviously the projection upon nature of that established ecclesiastical and social hierarchy in which the good abbé's mind was formed. Again, taking a larger instance, the substitution of Darwin for Paley as the chief interpreter of the order of nature is currently regarded as the displacement of an anthropomorphic view by a purely scientific one: a little reflection, however, will show that what has actually happened has been merely the replacement of the anthropomorphism of the 18th century by that of the 19th. For the place vacated by Paley's theological and metaphysical explanation has simply been occupied by that suggested to Darwin and Wallace by Malthus in terms of the prevalent severity of industrial competition, and those phenomena of struggle for existence which the light of contemporary economic theory has enabled us to discern, have thus come to be temporarily exalted into a complete explanation of organic progress.

Finally, the division of labour having become fully established in industrial practice, and recognised in economic theory by Adam Smith, it was frankly borrowed for biological application by Milne-Edwards, almost a couple of generations later, with fruitful results. This industrial development has indeed not only given us our present clear conception of separate organic functions, where an earlier school could see only their general resultant as 'temperament,' but it has also determined the prevalent intensity of scientific specialism within artificially restricted fields. Hence too, the extreme specialist's not infrequent loss, if not indeed denial, of definite responsibility to the science as a whole, and still more to that larger progress of which it forms a part, is simply the equivalent of that loss of conscious relation both to the special task and to its general bearings, from which at present the labourer also so frequently suffers. But as we progress with the synthetic reorganisation and practical application of the science, we may anticipate the recovery of both.

The manifold importance of biology in education is seen not only in its practical applications in the arts and in the study of medicine, but as a potent agency of culture, and as preliminary to psychological and social studies. See BOTANY.

Literature.—See beside articles mentioned above, LAMARCK, TREVIKIANUS, BICHAT, &c.; also Comte, *Philosophie Positive*, i. and iv.; Robin, *La Philos. Pos.*, i.; Laffitte, *Recue Occidentale*, i.; Spencer, *Principles of Biology* (1866); Haeckel, *Generelle Morphologie* (1866); and Huxley, *Anatomy of Invertebrate Animals* (1878).

Bion, the second of the three Greek bucolic poets, was a native of Smyrna, but seems to have settled in Sicily, where he was poisoned by a jealous rival some time in the 3d century B.C. He was contemporary with Theocritus, and somewhat older than Moschus, who calls himself his pupil, and whose *Epitaphios Bionos* is indeed the chief source of our information about Bion's life. But little of his work has survived save his *Epitaphios Adonidos*, or Lament for Adonis. Editions of his works together with Moschus and Theocritus were edited by Meineke (1856) and Ahrens (1855-59).—**BION** of BORYSTHENES, who flourished about 250 B.C. At first a slave, after gaining his freedom

he studied philosophy at Athens, and afterwards lived at the court of Antigonos Gonatas.

Bioplasm is a word introduced by Professor Beale for the germinal matter of living beings—i.e. living protoplasm. See PROTOPLASM.

Blörnson. See BJORNSSON.

Biot, JEAN BAPTISTE, a distinguished French physicist and astronomer, born at Paris, April 21, 1774. He entered the artillery, but forsook the service for science, and in 1800 became professor of Physics in the Collège de France. Along with Arago (q.v.), he was (1806) sent to Spain to carry out the measuring of a degree of the meridian, and in 1817 he visited England, and went as far north as the Shetland Islands, in order to make observations along the line of the British arc of meridian. His most valuable contributions, to science are on the polarisation of light, for which he received the Rumford gold medal in 1840; his researches into ancient astronomy are also very valuable. Among the latter may be mentioned his *Recherches sur l'Ancienne Astronomie Chinoise* (1840) and *Études sur l'Astronomie Indienne* (1862). His works on physics are still esteemed; the 3d ed. of his *Traité Élémentaire d'Astronomie Physique* (5 vols. 1841-57) was translated into English. In 1849 Biot was made a Commander of the Legion of Honour; he was also a member of the French Academy, and of most of the learned societies in Europe. He died at Paris, February 3, 1862.—His son, EDOUARD CONSTANT, a distinguished Chinese scholar, was born at Paris, July 2, 1803. He was at first a railway engineer; but his health failing, he retired from the public service, and devoted his leisure to the study of Chinese and the history of the social organisation of the Celestial empire. He was elected a member of the Academy in 1847, and died March 12, 1850. He wrote a *Dictionnaire de l'Empire Chinois* (1842), and a multitude of *Mémoires* on Chinese subjects.

Biotite. See MICA.

Biped (Lat., 'two-footed'), a descriptive term, sometimes applied to man, but more frequently to birds. It may be used in two ways—(a) in reference to habit only (physiological), when animals use only their two hind-limbs for moving along the ground—e.g. man, kangaroo, bird; (b) in reference to anatomy (morphology), when the typical number of four limbs is reduced to two. Thus among mammals the order of whales (Cetacea) is marked by the absence of hind-limbs; among birds the fore-limbs are considerably reduced in the running birds of the ostrich sub-class, and especially in the New Zealand Kiwi (*Apteryx*); among reptiles, some serpents (e.g. *Python*) retain traces of hind-legs, while all the others have lost both pairs, and a few lizards have either only hind-feet (*Pseudopus*, *Ophiodes*), or only fore-feet (*Chirotes*); among amphibians, a few (e.g. *Siren*) have only fore-feet; and the same is true of numerous fishes (e.g. among Siluridae), and especially of those which live to a large extent in mud.

Bipinnaria, the technical name of a starfish larva. It is a curiously-shaped free-swimming form, with two ciliated bands, and with a tendency to develop long stilt-like arms or processes. It does not directly turn into the adult, but is only its 'nurse.' The adult is formed within the bipinnaria. See ECHINODERMS, STARFISH.

Bi-quadratic. See EQUATIONS.

Bir, a town of from 1800 to 2000 houses, of Asiatic Turkey, on the east bank of the Euphrates, 80 miles N.E. of Aleppo.—The Arabic *Bir*, which signifies 'well,' is the Hebrew *Beer*.

Birbhum, a district in the Bardwan division of Bengal, with an area of 1756 sq. m. Rice is

the chief crop. Birbhum is one of the greatest copper-fields of the world, though practically untapped as yet. Pop. (1881) 794,428.

Birch (*Betula*), a genus of Betulaceæ, which contains only the two genera, Birch and Alder (q.v.), and is frequently reckoned as a sub-order of Amentifera (q.v.). The twenty-five species of birch are all trees or shrubs, natives of northern, temperate, and arctic regions.—The Common Birch (*B. alba*) has small, long-stalked, somewhat triangular doubly serrated leaves. It is a very beautiful and rapid growing, but unfortunately short-lived forest-tree, of the colder pala-arctic region, which in favourable situations attains a height of 50 to 60 feet, with a diameter of 1 to 1½ feet, but diminishes in size towards its arctic or alpine limit, at last becoming a mere bush. It is the last tree to disappear as we proceed northwards or upwards, and hence the most important tree of Northern Russia, &c., where it often forms whole woods. No other tree exists in Greenland; and according to old popular belief, it was the only tree that grew in paradise. The bark is smooth and silvery white, and its outermost layers are thrown off as the tree advances in age. The smaller branches are very slender and flexible, and in a particularly graceful variety called the Weeping Birch (*B. A. pendula* of some botanists), they are still more slender, elongated, and pendulous. The bark and leaves of the birch are, in some northern countries, used medicinally in cases of fever and eruptions. They are also used for dyeing



Flowering Branch of the Common Birch.

yellow. The bark is sometimes used for tanning, and for steeping nets, sails, and cordage (see BARK FOR TANNING). It is in some countries made into shoes, hats, drinking-cups, &c., and is even twisted into a coarse kind of ropes, and is the material of which the North American Indians made their light canoes. It is remarkable for its durability, which even exceeds that of the wood itself. In many parts of the north of Europe it is used instead of slates or shingles by the peasantry; and in Russia—the outer or white layers being subjected to distillation—there is obtained a reddish empyreumatic oil called Birch Oil, of which a somewhat tarry form, the so-called *deputt* or *degget*, is employed in the preparation of Russia leather. Dried, ground, and mixed with meal, birch bark is used in Norway for feeding swine; and in times of scarcity has even served for human food. The wood is white, firm, and tough, and is employed by turners, wheelwrights, and coopers, who use it in the manufacture of barrels for fish. Much of it is made into charcoal for forges. The twigs are in general use for besoms, and for the 'birch' used in flogging naughty boys. On account of its fragrant smoke, birch brushwood is much em-

ployed in smoking hams, herrings, &c. In many countries the sap is not only used as a beverage in a fresh state, but is converted by fermentation into a kind of wine. The White Birch of North America (*B. populifolia*) very nearly resembles the common birch, and is also extensively used. The Black Birch of the same country, but of more southern range (*B. nigra*), also sometimes called Red Birch, produces very hard and valuable timber. But the name Black Birch is also given to another species sometimes called the Sweet Cherry Birch (*B. lenta*), itself a large and valuable timber-tree. Its leaves make an agreeable tea. The Yellow Birch of Nova Scotia, Maine, &c. (*B. excelsa*) is a large tree with leaves 3½ inches long; its timber is used in shipbuilding. The bark of the Paper Birch (*B. papyracea*) is capable of division into very thin sheets, which have been used as a substitute for paper. It is used by the Indians and French Canadians for canoes, boxes, buckets, baskets, &c. Large plates of it are curiously stitched together with the fibrous roots of the White Spruce, and coated with the resin of the Balsam of Gilead Fir. *B. occidentalis* is an interesting species found on the Pacific slope. The mountainous districts of India also produce several useful species. Thin, delicate plates of the bark of *B. bhupattra* are used for lining the tubes of hookahs, and were formerly used as paper. *B. acuminata*, a native of Nepal, has strong and durable wood.—The Dwarf Birch (*B. nana*) is a mere bushy shrub, seldom more than 2 or 3 feet high, and generally much less. It has orbicular crenate leaves. It is a native of the whole of the most northern regions of the globe, and is found as far south as the Highlands of Scotland. It is interesting because of its uses to the Laplanders and other inhabitants of very northern regions, to whom it supplies their chief fuel, and the material with which they stuff their beds. Its seeds are the food of the ptarmigan, on which the Laplanders in a considerable degree depend. A similar shrubby species (*B. antarctica*) occurs in Tierra del Fuego.

Birch, SAMUEL, Egyptologist, was born in London, 3d November 1813, the son of a city clergyman. Educated at Merchant Taylors', in 1834 he entered the public service under the Commissioners of Public Records; and in 1836 he became assistant in the antiquities department of the British Museum. In this capacity, Birch acquired an extensive acquaintance with archaeology in all its branches. He studied not only Greek and Roman antiquities, including numismatics, but applied himself with untiring zeal to Egyptian hieroglyphics. In process of time, he so distinguished himself in this difficult branch of learning, that Baron Bunsen availed himself of Birch's knowledge in the philological portion of *Egypt's Place in Universal History*, the last volume of which, after Bunsen's death, was admirably edited by Birch. In 1844 he was appointed assistant-keeper of antiquities; in 1861, keeper of the Egyptian and Oriental antiquities. He received an honorary LL.D. from St Andrews in 1862, and from Cambridge in 1874, in which year he was president of the London Congress of Orientalists. He was a corresponding member of several academies, and was a contributor to various learned journals, to the *English Encyclopedia*, and to *Chambers's Encyclopedia*. Besides three works connected with his Chinese studies, he was author of *Ancient History from the Monuments of Egypt* (1875), *Egyptian Texts* (1877), &c. He died in London 27th December 1885.

Birch, THOMAS, D.D., an industrious historical writer, born at Clerkenwell in 1705, was the son of

a Quaker, but in 1730 took Anglican orders, and received half a dozen preferments in the course of the next thirty years. He was killed by a fall from his horse in the Hampstead Road, 9th January 1766. He was author or compiler of *Lives of Boyle, Tillotson, Queen Elizabeth, Prince Henry, &c.*

Birch-Pfeiffer, CHARLOTTE, a German actress and dramatist, was born at Stuttgart in the year 1800. She made her debut at Munich at the age of thirteen, and afterwards played with great success at Berlin, Vienna, and Hamburg. In 1825 she married Dr Christian Birch of Copenhagen, and in 1837, after performing at Petersburg, Pesth, Amsterdam, and other places, she undertook the management of the theatre at Zurich. At a later period, she acquired even greater renown as a writer for the stage than as an actress. In 1843 she made an engagement with the theatre-royal at Berlin, in which town she died, August 24, 1868. Madame Birch-Pfeiffer's plays attain no very high standard, but are still popular with German audiences. A complete edition of her dramatic works has been published in 23 vols. (Leipz. 1863-80), and of her novels and tales in 3 vols. (1863-65).—Her daughter is the well-known novelist Wilhelmine von Hillern, whose daughter also is already a successful novelist.

Bird. Birds are in some ways the highest of the vertebrate animals. They represent the climax of that passage from water to land which the backbone series illustrates. Their skeleton is more modified from the general type than that of mammals; their arrangements for locomotion, breathing, and nutrition are certainly not less perfect; their body temperature, higher than that of any other animals, is an index to the intense activity of their general life; their habitual and adaptive intelligence is familiarly great, while in range of emotion and sense impressions they must be allowed the palm. It is, in fact, only when we emphasise the development of the nervous system and the closeness of connection between mother and offspring, that the mammals are seen to have a right to their pre-eminence over birds. Birds and mammals represent two divergent lines of progress, and stand in no close connection, but the affinities between birds and reptiles are sufficiently marked to warrant their being included in a common class (Sauropsida), in contrast to the amphibians and fishes (Ichthyopsida) on the one hand, and Mammalia on the other. Among the numerous points of difference which separate birds from their nearest relations—the reptiles, and from mammals, the following may be noticed:

	Reptiles.	Birds.	Mammals.
Covering.....	Scales or scutes.	Feathers.	Hair.
Number of fingers.....	Always more than three.	At most three.	Five or fewer.
" skull condyles.....	One.	One.	Two.
" aortic arches.....	At least two.	One, right.	One, left.
Diaphragm.....	Only incipient.	Only incipient.	Complete.
Blood.....	Cold.	Hottest.	Warm.
Position of optic lobes....	On top of brain.	At sides of brain.	Covered up.
Parturition.....	Ovi- or viviparous.	Oviparous.	Except two, viviparous.

But those contrasts are only a few of the less technical selected from Professor Huxley's masterly comparison of the three classes. To appreciate the full extent of the resemblances and differences between birds and reptiles, and the contrast between both and mammals, the reader must consult Huxley's *Anatomy of Vertebrate Animals*.

History of Study of Birds.—As birds are even to a careless eye most markedly separated from all other animals, there has rarely been any difficulty about the limits of the class. Aristotle (300 B.C.) defined them as feathered flying bipeds which lay eggs, and catalogued a goodly list, divided into three great orders, with the ostrich and a few others in separate subdivisions. He did not include bats in his list. For eighteen centuries no real progress was made with the study of birds. They were not of course lost sight of, but were abundantly discussed, now from a semi-religious, now from a practical point of view, yet it was not till the outburst of naturalist enthusiasm in the 16th century that they became again objects of scientific study. It is indeed curious, after a lapse of 1800 years, to find William Turner describing the birds enumerated in the catalogues of Aristotle and Pliny. Of the school known as Encyclopedists, Belon (1555) devoted himself especially to the study of birds, and made the great step of comparing the skeletons of bird and of man bone for bone. In the subsequent classificatory enthusiasm inaugurated by John Ray, and perfected by Linnaeus, birds came in for a full share of attention, but the numerous naturalists who, towards the end of the 18th century, tried to put the birds in order, have left in their discrepant systems a record of the difficulty of a task which is still acknowledged to be bewildering. They fixed their attention mainly either on superficial characters, such as bills and feathering, or on general facts of habit, such as running and swimming. In other directions, however, progress was made: John Hunter (1728-93)

and Vieq d'Azyr (1748-94) made important investigations on the skeleton and musculature of birds, while Caspar Friedrich Wolff, turning in 1764 to the problem of chick-development, the study of which had begun in Greece more than nineteen centuries before, laid the foundations of modern embryology. Then followed the Cuvierian school of anatomists, and to the works of the master himself, and of his numerous disciples, most of our present knowledge of bird anatomy is due. Numerous attempts at classification were again made, but even yet no one detailed system is generally adopted. General ornithology has been greatly enriched by the monographic, and in some cases stupendous labours of enthusiasts like Naumann, Thienemann, Audubon, Gray, Wilson, Gould, Selater, &c. In recent years we are mainly indebted to Owen and Marsh for knowledge of fossil forms; to W. K. Parker for embryology; to Selater, Wallace, Newton, and others for distribution; and for a scientific classification to Professor Huxley.

Structure.—(a) With the general form of birds every one is familiar; the frequent length of the neck, the inconspicuousness of the fore-limbs when at rest, the length of the hind-limbs, the reduction of the tail, the boat-like form of the main body, the smooth gracefulness of the contour curves are at once evident. (b) As to the appendages, the modification of the fore-limbs for flight in the great majority of birds is the most marked characteristic. While the flying reptile, Pterodactyl, had a membrane stretched on the much elongated little finger, and the bats have their skin spread out between their elongated four fingers, the bird has never more than three fingers, and these much reduced. The stroke, as every one knows, is effected not by a stretched skin, but by the strong stiff feathers. The most marked general feature in the legs is the elongation and fusion of the bones just below the ankle (metatarsals).

The toes are never more than four, except in abnormalities. The spur of the cock is thought by some to represent a toe. (c) The integument differs markedly from that of other animals in



Fig. 1.

a, fore-limb of pigeon; b, fore-limb of bat; c, fore-limb of pterodactyl.

being clad with feathers. These are skin structures generally comparable to scales or hairs. Their development will be discussed separately (see FEATHER), but it may be noted that in consequence of certain conditions of skin growth, numerous elevations are formed both of the outer and inner layers. These growing outwards, and at the same time fixed below in little pits, become to a large extent horny, and are split up in various ways to form feathers. The outermost sheath becomes a horny case which falls off as the feather grows; the feather proper is due to a horny modification of the inner stratum of the outer skin or epidermis; the inner skin (*dermis*) forms a nutritive base which, with its blood-vessels, keeps the young feather alive, but becoming subsequently reduced, leaves the perfect structure virtually dead. They do not usually occur all over the body, but in definite feather-tracts, as can be readily seen by plucking small or young birds. Some birds, however, like the penguin are really feathered all over. Three distinct kinds of feathers are at once distinguishable—(a) the small hair-like downy rudimentary *filoplumes*; (b) the numerous smaller contour or covering *plumes*; and (c) the large strong quill-feathers or *pennae* on wings and tail. The ordinary feather consists of a quill at the base of a shaft up the centre, and of the vane borne on the sides of the shaft. The vane consists of parallel barbs, which are linked together by small barbules. The base of the quill bears a miniature feather or after-shaft, which in a few cases becomes as large as the main feather. On the bare legs of many birds the feathers are replaced by horny scales, and the horny structures forming the beak and terminating the toes are very familiar. Skin glands, so abundant in mammals and elsewhere, are here absent; but at the very end of the tail there is a two-lobed oily preen-gland, the secretion of which is used by the bird for anointing and waterproofing its feathers. Curious skin structures, such as combs and wattles, are often developed.

Skeleton.—The most important peculiarities of the bird skeleton are the modifications of forelimbs and girdle in association with flight, the abundant air-cavities (only absent apparently in the kiwi or apteryx), which make the bones so light and spongy, and the tendency the bones have to fuse together. (a) The *backbone* is very different from that of other animals. The several backbone bodies (vertebrae) have a very complex shape, and are not to be mistaken for those of any other vertebrate. While the neck of mammals almost

always consists of seven vertebrae, that of birds includes a larger and variable number, amounting to over a score in the swan. Unlike the very movable neck, the dorsal region tends to become more or less rigid, especially behind, where a large number of vertebrae enter into immovable connection with the hip-girdle. Behind this there are a few caudal vertebrae which are again mobile, and end in a compound ploughshare-bone which bears the great steering feathers of the tail. The most anterior ribs are fused to the vertebrae; then follow a few (two in the fowl) which are free, but do not reach

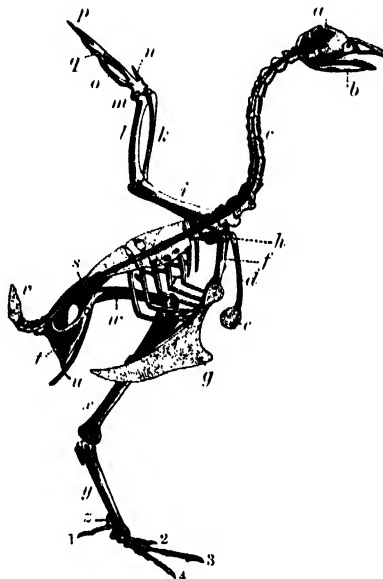


Fig. 2.—Skeleton of Fowl (exhibited in section):

a, brain-cavity; b, hyoid bone; c, neck vertebrae; d, clavicle; e, interclavicle; f, coracoid; g, breastbone; h, scapula; i, humerus; k, radius; l, ulna; m, wrist; n, thumb; o, united metacarpals; p, second finger; q, third finger; r, ribs; s, ilium; t, ischium; u, pubis; v, ploughshare-bone; w, femur; x, tibia; y, united metatarsals; z, separate metatarsal; 1, 2, 3, 4, toes.

the breastbone; the next set meet, at an angle, upward processes from the breastbone, with which they are thus indirectly connected. The last ribs are again free. Almost all the ribs bear backward directed (uncinate) processes which overlap the rib behind. These also occur in crocodiles. (b) The *skull* of course corresponds in general structure to that of other vertebrates, but is distinguished by the early fusion of the component bones, so that the contours are no longer visible, by the prolongation of the front bones to bear the beak, by the absence of teeth, by the large sockets for the eyes separated from one another only by a thin (sometimes perforated) partition, and by the marked lightness of the bones. There is only one ball (condyle) which turns on the cup of the body of the first (atlas) vertebra, the bone (quadrate) on which the lower jaw works is movable, the portion of the skull lying in front of the eye-sockets is slightly movable on the portion protecting the brain, the tongue-bone (*hyoid*) is very well developed. It is on the relations of certain bones of the skull that Huxley bases his anatomical classification. (c) *The limbs.*—The *shoulder-girdle* consists (1) of a long bone running backwards (the shoulder-blade or *scapula*), (2) of a shorter bone running from the shoulder down to the breastbone (the

coracoid, only a process of the scapula in mammals), and (3) of a slender collar-bone (*clavicle*) which extends from the shoulder to meet its fellow in front of the breast, forming with the broad uniting plate the familiar 'merrithought.' The *breastbone* or sternum forms the base of attachment for the great muscles which work the wings, it is concave



Fig. 3.—Breastbone and Shoulder-girdle of Falcon:

a, clavicle; b, scapula; c, coracoid; d, keel of sternum; e, ribs.

internally, and in most birds bears a prominent ridge or keel on the middle line in front. As this ridge serves for the fixing of the flight muscles, it is largest in the birds which use their wings most, and absent in those, such as the ostrich family, which use them either not at all, or very little. The flying keeled birds (*Carinatae*) are in the immense majority; the running birds, with flat raft-like sternum (*Ratitae*), are few. Even among birds of flight, comparative disuse of wings may be associated with a slight development of the keel. In the New Zealand parrot (*Strigops*), and a few more, the keel is very rudimentary. The arm consists as usual of a strong upper bone or *humerus*, working in the socket formed by scapula and coracoid, of two bones forming the forearm, the *radius* and the stronger *ulna*, of a single pair of wrist-bones, and of three fingers. The three bones corresponding to the palm of the hand (the *metacarpals*) are fused together, the thumb has two, the first finger three, the second finger one or two joints. The terminal joints of the thumb and first finger are sometimes clawed. In the kiwi and cassowary there is only one complete finger, apparently the second. The feathers attached to the hand are usually called primaries, and those borne on the ulna, secondaries. The *hip-girdle* is very long, and its most important part consists of two dorsal bones (*ilia*) which are fused to a large number of posterior backbone bodies. A second



Fig. 4.—Hip-girdle of Fowl:

a, ilium; b, ischium; c, pubis; d, socket.

portion (the *ischium*) extends backwards on either side, nearly parallel to the hind part of the ilium with which it is firmly fused. The third part (or *pubis*) also runs backwards from the socket of the thigh, and is a slender bone nearly parallel to the former. Only in the ostrich (*Struthio*) do the two pubes really unite; but in other birds they are bound together by fibrous tissue. In the American ostrich (*Rhea*) the two ischia are united ventrally. The socket formed by the union of the three portions of the hip-girdle is incompletely bony (perforate), as is also the case in one of the lowest mammals, the porcupine ant-eater, or *Echidna*. The thigh (*femur*) is a short stout bone. It is followed by the two bones of the lower leg, one of which (the *fibula*) is always imperfect and fused to the strong *tibia*. The knee is generally protected by

a knee-pan or *patella*. The ankle is peculiar in this, that the upper portion unites in the adult bird with the lower end of the tibia, which is therefore known as the *tibio-tarsus*, while the lower portion unites with three of the bones corresponding to the sole of the foot (metatarsals), which are therefore known as the *tarsometatarsals*. In the adult there are thus no distinct ankle bones or tarsals, these having become fused to the tibia above, and to three of the metatarsals below. Birds have only four toes, and the metatarsals of the second, third, and fourth are fused together. The metatarsal of the great toe remains separate, but in many birds this digit is wholly undeveloped. The



Fig. 5.—Feet of various Birds:

a, swift; b, stilt; c, black stork; d, wryneck; e, falcon; f, raven; g, kingfisher; h, pelican; i, grebe; k, coot; l, snew-duck.

ostrich has only two toes. In most cases the number of joints in the toes increases by one, from two in the first to five in the fourth toe. The toes vary considerably in direction according to the way they are used. A bony spur ensheathed with horn is sometimes developed (as in the cock) in connection with the metatarsus.

Muscular System.—The most important muscles of the bird are those which work the wings. These lie on the breastbone, which forms their base of attachment. The great pectoral muscle which forms the greater part of the breast depresses the wing; a second smaller and deeper muscle, covered by the former, is continued into a long tendon which passes through a hole at the shoulder-joint, is inserted on the back of the upper arm, and raises the wing; a third much smaller breast muscle also assists in elevating the wing. It is well known that birds may remain firmly perched when asleep. This is effected by an automatic muscular arrangement. The tendon of a muscle which bends the toes passes up to the hip over the knee-joint, so that when the knee is bent in perching, the tendon is stretched, and the toes are kept firmly fastened. There is a strong development of muscles in association with the gizzard or stomach-mill.

Nervous System.—The brain of birds is markedly more developed than that of reptiles, the parts no longer lie almost on one plane, and the organ occupies the whole of the spacious skull-case. The convolutions characteristic of the fore brain of mammals are not yet developed. The 'tween brain (*optic thalami*) is quite hidden, the mid brain (*optic lobes*) is thrust to either side, the hind brain

(*cerebellum*) exhibits cross grooves. There are twelve pairs of nerves given off as usual from the brain. The spinal cord exhibits in the hip region a conspicuous enlargement due to the divergence of its two sides. The *sense-organs*.—In association with their manifold experience, birds have well developed sense-organs.



Fig. 6.—Brain of Pigeon:
a, fore brain; b, cerebellum; c, optic lobes; d, medulla oblongata; e, spinal cord; f, olfactory lobe; h, pituitary body; i, pineal gland.

This is especially true of the eyes. They are large and powerful, and can be rapidly accommodated to different distances. They differ only in minor points from those of any vertebrate. The form is far from spherical, the front portion being protruded, and to a certain extent constricted off from the ball behind. A special ring of small bony plates protects the base of this anterior portion. A comb-like nutritive fold (*pecten*), absent only in the kiwi, projects from behind into the posterior chamber of the eye. A third transparent eyelid or nictitating membrane (not restricted to birds) is conspicuously developed, and can be drawn like a screen across the eye. It lies hidden in the anterior corner. Tear and other glands are present. The ear differs markedly from that of mammals in the absence of any external

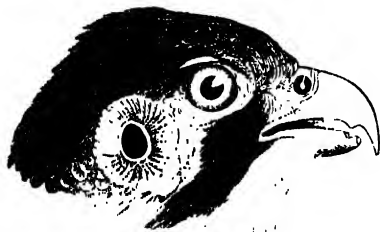


Fig. 7.—Head of Falcon, showing beak, nostril, eye, and ear; opening exposed by removal of feathers.

portion. In the birds of prey, however, a membranous flap is present. The external opening is usually surrounded by a circle of fine hair-like feathers. As regards ear bones, only one (the columella) is present, and in this particular also the bird ear differs from that of mammals. The snail-like coil of the ear-cavity (the cochlea) is also much simpler. The (Eustachian) tubes which lead from the ear-aperture down to the mouth, unite before they open into the latter. The nostrils are usually situated at the base of the beak, but may occur further forward, and in the kiwi are situated at the very tip. In some cases they are guarded by bristles, in other cases prolonged into a tube, but are usually simple apertures. The nasal cavities may communicate with one another, and contain two or more gristly or bony scrolls. A peculiar nasal gland is present. The sense of smell is undoubtedly less developed than those of sight and hearing. Taste is also but slightly developed, and is discharged by the nerve terminations on the tongue, and by a soft patch of skin (*cere*) usually situated on each side of the base of the beak. In rare cases (e.g. in mud-grubbing birds) a much larger area of the Bill (q.v.) may remain soft and sensitive.

Alimentary System.—The character of the food-canal differs widely in different birds, varying with the nature of the food. Even in one bird the difference of food at different seasons, such as the change from fish to grain in the gull, may be

associated with a marked change in the nature of the stomach. The beak may be helped by the tongue in taking up food, but in the absence of teeth no real mouth mastication takes place. The tongue varies widely in form, being not unfrequently notched and rough, and varies in size from



Fig. 8.—Beaks of various Birds:
a, marabou stork; b, sparrow; c, bonbill; d, swordbill humming-bird; e, species of thrush; f, pelican; g, spoonbill; h, scissorbill; i, flamingo; j, avocet; k, boatbill stork; l, openbill stork; m, ibis; n, condor; o, merganser; p, *Columba senas*; q, mycteria or saddle stork.

the rudiment found in the pelican to the long protrusible organ of the humming-bird. Salivary glands open into the mouth-cavity, which in some cases (e.g. pelican) is enormously distended, and can hold quite a store of food. The gullet is soft and elastic, in obvious association with the downward passage of unmaniculated food. In many birds it dilates into a spacious thin-walled sack, known as the crop, in which large quantities of food can be stowed away. It is from the crop that pigeons obtain the soft milky stuff with which they feed their young. In most birds the succeeding portion of the canal is divided into two (and sometimes three) distinct parts—the glandular and the muscular stomach. In the first (the *proventriculus*) the food begins to be digested, in the second (the *gizzard*) it is subjected to grinding. The former is characterised by thick, soft glandular walls, and near it the blood-gland, known as the spleen, is situated. Most people are familiar with the large hard gizzard of fowl or pigeon, with its very thick muscular walls lined internally by firm horny skin. The cavity usually includes small stones, and by the approach of the two sides

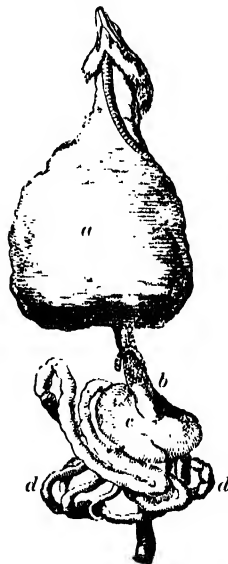


Fig. 9.—Alimentary Canal of Pigeon:
a, crop; b, proventriculus; c, gizzard; d, d, intestine.

the food is very effectively ground. The changes dependent upon food, above referred to, are expressed in the varying preponderance of glandular and muscular regions. The exit from the stomach is turned upwards (as in crocodiles), so as to lie very near the entrance. Of the long small intestine and the short large one, of the blind processes given off at the commencement of the latter, of the associated liver (very often without a gall-bladder) and pancreas, there is little of much interest to notice. The gut ends in a common chamber or cloaca, which also receives urinary and genital products. The back wall of this common chamber is connected with a peculiar sac with glandular walls, especially prominent in young animals, but of dubious import.

Vascular System.—The heart of birds shows a marked advance over that of reptiles, in the complete separation of arterial and venous blood. Like that of mammals, it is perfectly four-chambered. The blood-vessel arrangements also resemble those of mammals in the presence of a single main branch (*aortic arch*) conveying pure blood from the heart to the body; but this runs to the right instead of to the left. The most remarkable physiological fact about the blood is its high temperature of 100° to 112° F., greater than that of mammals by 2° to 14°. 'The polished feathers are bad radiators, the air entangled among them forms a bad conductor, and thus the heat is kept in.' The usual 'blood-glands' are present. There is only an incipient partition (*diaphragm*) between the anterior and posterior portions of the body-cavity.

Respiratory System.—The two lungs do not lie freely in a closed space, as in mammals, but are fixed to the back of the bird. They are further peculiar in the way the supplying air-tube (*bronchus*) branches in a tree-like fashion without breaking up into finer and finer forkings. The ends

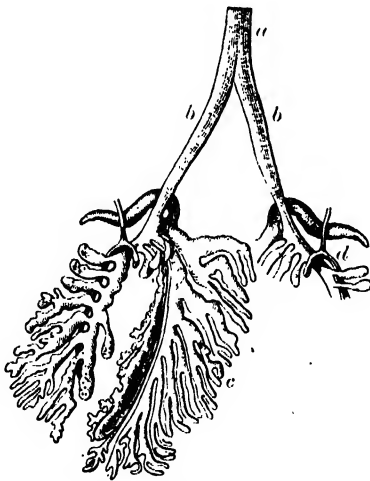


Fig. 10.—Lungs of Bird :

a, base of trachea; b, bronchial tubes; c, branches of bronchi; d, blood-vessel.

of the bronchial branches are in connection with air-sacs which lie round about the lungs. These greatly increase the quantity of air which may be taken in; they are of use in warming it, and doubtless aid, not only by greatly reducing the specific gravity, but also on the heated-air principle of Montgolfier's balloon, in buoying the bird in the air. These air-sacs are large but thin-walled bags, nine in number (see AIR-SACS). They are connected on the one hand with the bronchi, on the

other, as John Hunter showed, with the air-spaces found in the spongy bones. The windpipe or *trachea* is often very long and coiled, and is strengthened by gristly or bony rings. It sometimes comes into very close association with the breastbone, running through part of it in the swan. At its upper end there is, as usual, a larynx; but this is not the vocal organ of birds. Further down, at the point where the windpipe divides into the two bronchial tubes, lies the seat of all the music, the sing-box or *syrix* (see the paragraph on Song).

The Excretory System.—A pair of three-lobed kidneys embedded under the shelter of the hip-girdle perform the usual function of getting rid of nitrogenous waste. They are connected by a pair of ducts (*ureters*) with the cloaca. There is no urinary bladder. The urinary secretion is semi-solid, and rich in uric acid.

Reproductive System.—The male reproductive organs (or *testes*) are paired, and lie in front of the kidneys. The left is very often larger than the right. They are connected by a pair of ducts (*vasa deferentia*) with the common chamber, the wall of which occasionally bears a copulating organ. The female organs are peculiar in this, that in the adult the left side predominates over the right. In the embryo two ovaries are present; in abnormal and in a few exceptional cases (diurnal birds of prey) they may persist; usually, however, the right wholly degenerates. And similarly with the ducts, but the rudiment of a right oviduct is present. The end of the left oviduct is expanded to receive the ova as they burst from the ovary; the upper part of the duct is glandular, and equips the eggs with albumen; the lower is firmer, and contributes the limy shell; and the end opens into the cloaca whence the eggs are laid.

Nutrition.—The food of birds varies greatly, not only in different birds, but also to some extent at different seasons. Some are vegetarians, feeding on the green parts of plants, and in these the intestine is as usual long. Some confine themselves to grain, and these have large crops and powerful gizzards, while others combine cereals with insects (usually then without crop), or with the green parts of plants. A few sip honey, and a large number feeding on fruits probably play an important part in the dissemination of seeds. In insectivorous and fruit-eating birds the crop is usually absent, and the stomach only slightly muscular. Others again are notoriously carnivorous, or feed upon fish and molluscs, and in these cases the glandular predominates over the muscular portion of the stomach. The kea (*Nestor*) of New Zealand, originally a fruit-eating bird, has recently developed an alarming fondness for the blood and fat of living sheep. The interest of the nutrition of birds is twofold: on the one hand, in relation to the modifications of the alimentary system; on the other hand, in respect to the rôle of birds in the economy of nature. The experiments of John Hunter on the changes in the stomach of gulls consequent on a change of diet have been corroborated and extended. Such changes appear to occur normally in nature. Food is also said to have an influence on colour—e.g. in bullfinches and parrots.

Locomotion.—Most birds use their wings in flight, the feather-covered arms being raised and depressed with great rapidity by means of the breast muscles already described. Every one who has watched birds is familiar with the marked differences in rapidity and mode of flight. It has been calculated that a common average of rapidity is about 40 to 60 feet per second, but records of the feats of carrier-pigeons, &c. certainly greatly surpass this. It seems probable that strong-winged birds, like eagles, can cover about 80 feet in a second. Buffon noted that they disappeared from sight in about three

minutes. The importance of the air-sacs and spaces has been already noted. Strong birds, like the albatross and birds of prey, can not only fly very rapidly, but can sustain their exertions for long

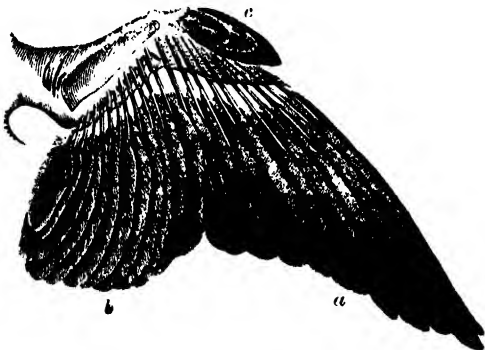


Fig. 11.—Wing of Pigeon, showing primary (a) and secondary (b) feathers, and 'bastard wing' (c) at thumb.

periods, while many other birds rarely take prolonged flights, except during migration. The ostrich uses its wings to help it along in its rapid race; some aquatic birds, like the steamer-duck, use them as paddles, auxiliary to its legs. On the ground, birds vary greatly in rate and manner of progression, the swift strides of the ostrich, the rapid run of the partridge, the hopping of the sparrow are well-known illustrations of different gaits. That many birds are expert divers and climbers is also a familiar fact. See FLIGHT.

Respiration.—The great activity of birds is associated with very efficient respiration. Expiration, or the expulsion of used air, is managed by the contraction of breast and abdominal muscles, which compress the inclosed cavities and force the air from the sacs and lungs. When these muscles are relaxed the cavities again elastically expand, and fresh air rushes in by the windpipe to lungs and air-sacs.

Song.—With few exceptions, birds have a vocal organ, and are able to produce more or less variable sounds. The organ is, however, wanting in the running birds, such as the ostrich, and in the American vultures. The sounds produced are almost as varied as the different kinds of birds, and an expert ornithologist has little difficulty in identifying a great number of forms by their distinctive noises. That some chirp and others scream, that chattering describes the language of many and croaking that of others, that some boom and others bark, that the crows caw and the laughing jackass laughs, that the mocking-bird imitates and the parrot becomes able to articulate, and above all that the lark trills and the nightingale truly sings, are well-known illustrations of the variety of bird language. The weird cry of the curlew or whaup, the melancholy voice of the seamew, the gabble of ducks, the crowing of the cock, the soft cooing of the dove, the hoarse voice of the cornerake, the ecstatic melody of the bobolink, the cheerful notes of the blackbird, the educated music of the canary, are again a random selection of instances from an almost infinite medley. It is among the so-called perchers, songsters, or insectivores, that we find song really developed, and that for the most part in the males, and in highest degree at breeding time. Though the notes are not musically pure, many bird songs have been expressed in musical notation, and every one is familiar with imitations in word form.

In mammals the voice is produced by the

mechanism of vocal chords situated in the larynx at the top of the windpipe. In birds these vocal chords are never present, but their absence is compensated by the development of a sing-box (or syrinx) at the base of the windpipe. In some cases the sing-box is wholly produced from the base of the windpipe (or trachea)—e.g. in *Thamophilus* and American Passerines; in a few cases the mechanism is confined to the beginning of the bronchial tubes (e.g. *Steatornis*); in the great majority of songsters the syrinx includes the base of the trachea and the tops of the two bronchi. The mechanism is a very variable one, and even in its simplest forms not to be understood by any verbal description unaccompanied by dissection of a few typical singers. To take a typical example of a lower larynx or syrinx of the last and commonest construction, we find (a) that the base of the trachea and the tops of the bronchi are altered by lateral compression or by expansion, by fusion of several of the strengthening rings, or by incompleteness of some of the same. (b) The end of the windpipe is divided by a bony ridge, rising up at the angle where the two bronchi unite, and forming the main stay of the reson-

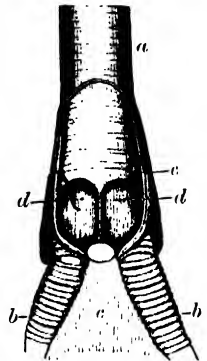


Fig. 12.—Syrinx of Thrush:

a, trachea (opened below);
b, bronchi (with rings);
c, internal tympaniform membrane; d, muscles;
e, nerve supplying muscles.

ating cavity known as the 'tympanum.' (c) From this bony ridge to the median surface of each bronchus stretches the 'internal tympanic membrane.' (d) Between the last tracheal and the first bronchial ring, or between a pair of modified bronchial rings, stretches a second 'external tympanic membrane.' (e) In singing-birds there is a third important inward projecting 'semi-lunar membrane.' (f) Besides these there are vocal membranes or folds of skin, projecting inwards in both bronchi. The tension of the membranes is varied by the action of special muscles; their vibration as the air passes over them causes sound; the note varies with their muscular state, with that of the tympanum, and with the column of air in the windpipe.

Singing is an unbidden expression of emotional energy. It is most marked at the high tide of sexual emotion during the breeding-season. It is best, sometimes solely, developed in the males, who use their powers to attract the females, and often vie with one another in so doing. In other cases the note is obviously used as language, expressing alarm and the like, for that some birds are able by voice to convey impressions to one another is indubitable. In so far as the song is an instrument and expression of sexual attraction, it falls to be included among those powers which have been strengthened and developed by sexual selection.

Moulting (q.v.).—After the strain of the reproductive period, or sometimes at the low ebb of mid-winter, the old feathers drop off, and birds undergo annual moult. The use of this in replacing breakage, and in furnishing a complete machinery for the flight of migration, is very evident; the cause is not yet sufficiently investigated. Moult obviously presents some analogies with skin-casting and hair-shedding in other animals, and must be associated with some deep-seated constitutional change, such as its connection with the end of

the breeding-season suggests. Besides this annual growth of new feathers, many birds exhibit double, and some triple moulting. The ptarmigan, for instance, changes its suit three times in the year, moulting after breeding into gray, changing this for white as the winter sets in, and acquiring in spring a third and most attractive set of feathers. In association with sexual attraction many male birds seem to undergo a partial moult, as the result of which they acquire those special decorations which are the index of a reproductive climax.

Reproduction.—Birds usually pair in spring-time, but to this rule there are many exceptions. Fertilisation is internal, and all birds are oviparous. The number of eggs is often in inverse proportion to the size of the bird. Several, such as the apteryx, lay only one; the doves and the birds of prey lay two or three, but the majority of birds many more.

The Sexes.—The male birds are often markedly different from the female. In the Bird of Paradise (q.v.), for instance, the two sexes are at first alike, but with successive moults and increasing maturity, the male becomes in colour and plumage a most marked contrast to the comparatively sober female. The contrast between peacock and peahen is a yet more familiar illustration of a very widely observed fact. In rare cases the female is the more brilliant. The male has also a richer and more varied voice, and in many cases the singing is all on his side. Both with song and with dance, by strains of love and display of charms, by the wildest excitement of aerial evolutions, and by the most grotesque of striking attitudes, the males strive to captivate the females. For the details of this sexual attraction, and for the importance of sexual selection in evolving decorations and charms, the reader may be referred to Darwin's *Descent of Man*, where the subject is very fully discussed. Birds associate together to very different degrees; thus, eagles live separately, the two sexes only coming together at breeding time; the doves live in pairs; many birds are similarly monogamous, but live in society, except during the breeding-season, while fowls and some running birds are polygamous, one male ruling over a number of females. See SEX.

Eggs.—The size of the egg is very generally proportionate to that of the parent, but there are many striking exceptions. The very centre of the egg contains what is known as white yolk which rises as a plug to the surface. This white spot, usually lying uppermost when the egg is opened, is the area (*blastoderm*) where by the multiplication and arrangements of cells the embryo chick is mapped out. The 'yellow yolk' is traversed by concentric

fluid white of egg or albumen, which is separated from the yolk by a (*vitelline*) membrane inclosing the latter. The fluid albumen is also disposed in layers, separated by fibrous networks, and almost every one is familiar with two thick sets of fibres (known as the 'tread') which extend from each end of the yolk into the surrounding albumen. In the lower portion of the oviduct (the *uterus*) the egg becomes, as we have already noted, inclosed in a limy shell. This is an organic structure and is two-layered. Its texture and microscopic characters differ in the various orders, and appear to be truly diagnostic. The shell is separated from the white of egg by a double membrane, the two layers of which become separate at the broader end, and leave a familiar air-space which increases with the age of the egg. The form of the finished egg varies from an approximately perfect sphere to more or less symmetrical ovals. In the uterus the shell usually becomes stained by complex secretions of pigment which in some respects resemble those of the blood and bile. As many as seven distinct pigments have been distinguished by Mr Sorby. It is necessary to distinguish the ground colour from the subsequent more or less circular markings, which become variously blotched and distorted by the movement of the egg in the uterus. The markings are not always constant, but vary with age and even in the same brood. The colouring is apparently to some extent protective against the sun rays, and varies also according to exposure. That the colour of the eggs often favours their being overlooked by enemies is a familiar fact. Though the older naturalists, before the collecting of eggs had been superseded by embryology, doubtless exaggerated the importance of their science of 'oology,' it is also certain that some important hints in classification have been afforded by the study of the characteristic colouring. The extraordinary enthusiasm exhibited by egg-collectors, from the time of Sir Thomas Browne's cabinet onwards, is a most remarkable side chapter in the history of science, which has been recapitulated in the lives of many of our famous naturalists, and indeed in the boyhood of almost every boy bred in the country. See EGGS, WILD BIRDS.

Development.—The development of the embryo bird will be discussed along with that of other backboneed animals (see EMBRYOLOGY); but a few general facts (with special reference to the fowl) may be noticed here. The egg is fertilised in the upper part of the oviduct before the coating of albumen is added to the ovum proper. The usual division commences in the lower part of the oviduct, shortly before the shell has begun to be formed. Owing to the vast amount of nutritive, as opposed to formative material, the whole ovum does not divide, but only a special part of it, known as the germinal disc. It is also noteworthy that the division proceeds somewhat unsymmetrically. The subsequent changes by which the different germinal layers are established, and nervous system, backbone, gut, muscles, and the organs generally are formed, cannot be here discussed. The development of the chick excited interest even among the old naturalist philosophers of Greece, and we have not finished the inquiry to-day. It was by observation of the embryo chick that Wolff first showed distinctly (in 1759) that development was a matter of gradual growth, and not the unfolding of a miniature ready-made organism. It was in regard to the fowl that Pander (1817) first drew emphatic attention to the different germinal layers, the distinctions between which are of such importance in understanding the process of development. On the development of the chick also, Von Baer (1828-37) partly based his great generalisation as to progress

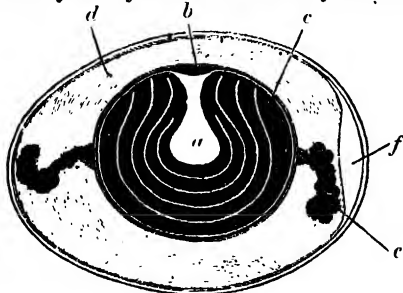


Fig. 13.—Section of Fowl's Egg:

a, central plug of white yolk; b, position of germinal area; c, yellow yolk; d, white of egg; e, 'tread' or chalaza; f, air-space between outer membranes.

layers of white, which also forms a thin layer round the outside. As the egg passes down the upper portion of the oviduct it becomes coated with

from the simple to the complex, and showed that the passage of the embryo from one great stage to another corresponds to the successive steps which mark off fish from amphibian, amphibian from reptile, reptile from bird. This law we now express by saying that the individual development (*ontogeny*) is a recapitulation of the historic evolution of the race (*phylogeny*). Mr Parker eloquently compares watching the development of a bird to reading a palimpsest; under the more superficial characters are others (at an earlier stage) more primitive, beneath those others more primitive still, till the characters are seen to be distinctly reptilian, and so on backwards. The work thus begun by Wolff, Pander, and Von Baer has been vigorously continued; many of the greatest embryologists have contributed to the elucidation of bird development; in Britain Parker especially has, with marvellous patience and skill, followed the development of the bird skull. By the recent use of the contrivance known as the embryoscope, the development of the chick has been watched going on, and even experimented upon.

The chick is inclosed in an embryonic membrane known as the amnion, and has a large respiratory sac called the allantois. The nutritive yolk which is gradually absorbed is inclosed in a 'yolk sac.' When about to be hatched, the chick thrusts its beak through the egg-membranes, and breathes the air in the air-chamber. The lungs begin to work, and the allantois shrivels up. The Umbilicus (q.v.) becomes completely closed, and 'the chick, piercing the shell at the broad end with repeated blows of its beak, casts off the dried remnants of allantois, amnion, and serous membrane, and steps out into the world.'

The period of incubation, during which the parent, generally the female, but often also the male, sits in most cases constantly on the eggs, varies greatly, from ten days to eight weeks. The young birds may be at first naked, blind, and helpless, and are then fed by the parents till fledged (Altrices or Insesores)—e.g. Thrush, or they may be downy, active, and able at once to look after themselves (Precoces or Autophagæ)—e.g. Chick. In some cases, however, they are hatched downy, but remain for a while helpless. See EMBRYOLOGY.

Nests.—It is important to notice that the higher development of birds, as compared with reptiles, is associated with the production of fewer offspring, but at the same time with the enormous increase of parental care and sacrifice. If the young are to be developed within the eggs, the latter must be kept at an approximately constant warmth. In almost all cases this is effected by brooding. The comfort of the parents during the hatching period is secured by the nest, which becomes further necessary for the protection of the fledglings. The nest-building instinct is not indeed the exclusive property of birds, but occurs also among insects and fishes, not to mention the numerous cases where homes rather than nurseries are constructed by animals. But it is among birds that the instinct reaches perfect development. The prolonged period of brooding, the frequent helplessness of the young, the very common arboreal habit, the not unfrequent enemies, have necessitated a most varied series of nest-building contrivances. The nest is built before the eggs are ready to be laid, and in most cases the female takes the prominent part in its construction. But both in the building and in the subsequent brooding the male may do his share, or in some cases much more. Each species usually has its own peculiar style and material of construction, though this may be adapted to varying conditions. The nests are usually solitary, more rarely grouped, and very exceptionally (as among cassowaries and ostriches)

common property. Rooks, sea-fowl, herons, are familiar examples of breeding communities, while the sociable grosbeak, the republican swallows, and a few others, form even closer associations. The cuckoo and the cow-bird have managed by a sort of parasitism to shirk their task, and quite a number of birds lay their eggs in an exceptional manner in the nests of neighbours. The beak is the organ most used in construction, but the pressure of the body may round off the forming nest, and the feet may also be used. How comfortable a nest may be made inside every one knows; how adroitly hidden it may be by external decorations of moss and lichen is familiar to every nest-hunter. All who have opportunity should examine the cases of birds and their nests so beautifully arranged in the British (Natural History) Museum in London. The smaller birds usually build the more beautiful nests, and every variety occurs, from the comparatively careless hole in the sand made by the ostrich to the skilfully suspended and neatly fashioned nest of the tailor-bird.

Without entering into details of nest-construction, the following series given by Leunis may be noted. For details, such a work as Rev. J. G. Wood's *Homes without Hands*, and for theory, Wallace's essay on Nests in his *Contributions to the Theory of Natural Selection*, may be profitably consulted. It must at the outset be again noticed that habits vary considerably, as the very diverse nests built in different circumstances by falcon, eagle, heron, &c. well illustrate. Nests are shifted to suit food-supply, and vary in structure according to the available material. And again, since nest-building is obviously an acquired habit, which gradually rewarded the species in the greater success of both parent and offspring during breeding time, it is natural to find it dispensed with in many cases where the nature of the situation rendered no actual nest necessary, or where the birds for some other reason have never learned the habit. Some sea-birds, like the auk, simply lay on the rocky ledges of their haunts; some ground-birds simply deposit their eggs on the bare soil.

(1) *Burrowed holes* are made by sand-martins, bee-eaters, penguins, kingfishers, and many others. The prairie-owl, living in the burrows of the prairie-dog and of the armadillo, is a well-known example of peculiar habit, and in the first case of curious partnership. (2) *Ground-nests*, generally of the simplest character, with rough and scanty accumulation of nest material, are made by swans, ducks, geese, fowls, gulls, waterhens, corn-rakes, &c. (3) *Mud-nests*, constructed from damp earth, are well illustrated by the house-swallows, blue-creeper, flamingo, &c. The common singing thrush is well known to make a firm nest of clay and cow-dung mixed with moss. (4) *Carpenter-nests*, formed with more or less preparation in the holes of trees, are used by woodpeckers and a few other arboreal birds. (5) *Platform-nests*, simply consisting of flat seats, are formed by the ring and turtle doves, by eagles, storks, and cranes. In some parts of the Continent the flat nests formed by the storks on the tops of buildings are familiar enough objects. (6) *Basket-nests* are such loosely interwoven constructions of grass, stems, twigs, &c., as are made by crows, mistle-thrushes, and most singing-birds. The green weaving-birds (*Ploceus pensilis*) hang their loosely woven nests, with downward directed opening, on the Madagascar trees. The South African republican birds (*Philatarus socius*) form hundreds of hanging nests on the branches, under the shelter of a common thatch. (7) *Woven nests* are the more delicately constructed and really woven constructions of wool, hair, bark, grass, &c., which are made by

such birds as the goldfinch, the Baltimore bird, and very many others. (8) *Sewed nests*, composed of leaves sewed together by the beak as needle, are well illustrated by various species of Icterus, and by the Indian tailor-bird (*Orthotomus benettii*). (9) *Felt-work nests* are woven from the wool of plants or animals, sometimes with other material in addition; the humming-birds and the bullfinch form beautiful nests of this fashion. (10) *Cement-nests* are bound together by a viscid and very adhesive secretion, which is mixed with saliva, and used to glue the materials of the nest together. The nests of the American swallow, the edible birds' nests of the Salangani, sought after as luxuries by Chinese and others, are of this cemented type. (11) *Dome or moss nests* are roofed in above, and have an entrance on the side. The common wren, the water-wagtail, and the tits build on this principle. The beautiful bottle-shaped nest of the titmouse is one of the best examples. (12) The *parasitic* habit is well known among cuckoos and cow-birds. The nest of another bird is utilised to the future loss of the rightful inmates, and with obvious economy of labour on the part of the intruders. Thus sparrows usurp the nests of swallows, and starlings those of woodpeckers. Pheasant and partridge eggs are sometimes found in the same nest, and the same has been observed in many cases—e.g. gull and eider-duck. When artificial nests are forthcoming, birds are glad to be relieved of the labour of construction, and different birds thus sometimes share a common box. The resorts of birds, when convenient nooks are available, are often extremely curious.

Migration.—It is a well-known fact that comparatively few birds (at any rate, outside of the tropics) remain in the same place all the year round. They do not hibernate, but migrate on the approach of cold. Some we know as winter visitors returning north again in spring, most we know only in summer, for in autumn they fly to the warmer south; a third set we call 'Birds of Passage,' for these we only know somewhat incidentally as they pass through on their way elsewhere. Thus the swallow, the cuckoo, the nightingale, &c. come to Britain in summer and breed there, being winter residents farther south; the fieldfare, jack-snipe, bean-geese, redwing, &c. reach Britain in winter, being summer residents and breeders farther north; while the little sandpipers are familiar examples of the true birds of passage which we know only for a short time as they rest on our shores in their journey south in autumn, and north again in spring. These three classes are obviously only different cases of one fact of Migration (q.v.). As this will be discussed separately, only the general facts are here to be noticed. Almost all birds are in some degree migratory. Those which breed in the equatorial regions are the chief exceptions, and even they pass from hill to valley and back again. Forns, too, which seem to be constant residents of a non-tropical country are in many cases known to exhibit a partial or a very local migration. This is true, for instance, of the common wren and the red grouse in the north of Scotland. All birds breed in the colder regions of their migration. Changes in food-supply and temperature are the most important conditions impelling them to shift their habitats. The general trend of migration is always, as indicated, towards the equator in autumn, from the equator in spring; but the investigations of the British Migration Committee have clearly shown that the courses often come to be circular. The flight is the more universal in a country, the more marked the contrast between summer and winter. The annual migration from breeding areas too cold for winter

residence and food-supply to warmer subsistence areas cannot be understood apart from the history of climates. When the European climate was more equable, it was virtually indifferent to the birds where they went. As it grew colder, the birds had to fly farther and farther south every few winters. Migration has become an inherited habit, for they set about it before the impelling conditions are directly present. According to Wallace, natural selection has played an important part in confirming this habit. Many facts about migration are still utterly obscure. The power birds have of flying straight and of returning to the same locality is very marvellous. It must be remembered that a continuous tradition is sustained; those who have made the journey before guide the others. Doubtless they have memory for great landmarks. They fly across the shallower parts of the Mediterranean, where a chain of islands in this submerged tract long remained to guide them. The smaller birds usually keep nearer the ground; but it must not be forgotten that the flight is usually mostly accomplished by night. Birds generally meet in concourses, and migrate in flocks. Only a few fly alone. Sometimes the old males remain, while the others 'fit.' The return northwards is more rapid, without young ones or weaklings. The males often return first.

Intelligence and Emotions.—As birds have a full active life, with considerable variety of function, in usually complex environment, since, as we have already noticed, their sense-organs and nervous systems are highly developed, considerable exhibition of intelligence is to be expected. They seem to have great vividness of sense impressions, to judge from their power of recalling old haunts and old friends. Birds often return to the same place season after season, and they have been known to recognise an owner after the lapse of years. Their quickness of ear and power of retention are evidenced by the power some possess of learning to repeat sounds, both words and tunes. Some have exhibited marked fondness for music, and the æsthetic tastes of the Bowerbird (q.v.) excite deserved admiration. Much more is known in regard to their marvellous hereditary, general, and largely automatic reasonable habits or 'instincts,' than in regard to their power of individually adapting their conduct to novel circumstances. Their beautiful and adroit contrivances of nest-building are very familiar instances of the former, but many instances of the latter have also been recorded. Mr Romanes has collected numerous illustrations of curiosity, imagination, forethought, and instruction by experience. He notes many interesting cases of their special devices in obtaining food, in avoiding capture, and in nest-building. His valuable treasury of sifted facts ought to be consulted on this subject.

As to feelings, it is hardly necessary to refer to their unexampled exhibition of sexual emotion in song and dance, parade and display, or to the marvellous parental love and sacrifice expressed in their nest-building labours, in their prolonged incubation, and in their care for and courage in defending their brood. Subtler emotions of jealousy, both in connection with and altogether apart from sex; of affection for owners or associates, of sympathy for wounded or enfeebled fellows, are also not rarely exhibited. That a bird singing continuously for hours does not represent a rare height of emotion is not to be believed. It may be fairly said that the joyous song of the lark 'at heaven's gate' is an eloquent expression of emotion only surpassed perhaps by human music.

Distribution in Space.—It is a curious fact that though birds are able to fly far and wide, and are

much less settled than most animals, it was in relation to them that the first great essay towards an understanding of distribution was made. In 1857 Mr Sclater based, upon the facts of the distribution of perching birds (Passeres or Insessores), a division of the earth into six great regions, with characteristic fauna. These regions he termed Palearctic, Ethiopian, Indian, Australian, Nearctic, and Neotropical. For an account of the birds which especially predominate over these great regions, or others with somewhat altered limits, the reader must be referred to the works of Murray and Wallace on Geographical Distribution of Animals, and to the convenient summary of facts given by Hailprin (Inter. Science Series). Some genera of birds are very widely distributed, and almost universally represented; others, like the birds of paradise and the humming-birds, are peculiarly restricted. It hardly needs to be stated that birds have unusually great facility of dispersion; that they are more numerous in the warmer countries; that according to the nature of the region, different physiological types will preponderate—e.g. insect-eating birds in the tropics, and fish-eating swimmers in the northern seas.

Distribution in Time.—(1) In the Triassic strata of New England, various kinds of footprints occur which most naturalists now regard as reptilian, though others are inclined to see in some of them the earliest hints of birds. (2) The oldest known birds are found in the Upper Oolite, the well-known *Archaeopteryx* (q.v.), from the Solenhofen lithographic slates, and *Laopteryx priscus*, from 'a nearly equivalent horizon in the Wyoming Territory' of the western United States. The long feathered tail, the unfused metacarpal bones, the toothed jaws, and other features of *Archaeopteryx*, are exceedingly important pristine characters. (3) In the Middle and Upper Chalk, numerous fossil birds have been discovered, especially by Marsh. These are grouped together in a somewhat mixed division of toothed birds, or *Odontornithes* (q.v.). Of these the most remarkable are *Hesperornis* and *Ichthyornis* (q.v.), both with teeth. The latter had biconcave fish-like vertebrae, well-developed wings, and a keeled breastbone. The former had vertebrae much like those of modern birds, rudimentary wings, and, as one would expect, no keel on its breastbone. Its teeth were not implanted in distinct sockets as in *Ichthyornis*, but lay in a longitudinal groove of the jaw. *Apatornis* was another remarkable form, and *Enaliornis* has been found in Europe in the Upper Greensand of Cambridge. (4) In the Tertiary deposits birds become more numerous, and liker those now existing. Representatives of modern genera occur from the Eocene onwards. Many types, such as the great running birds, now with restricted distribution, are found in regions far from their present habitats. A giant goose-like form, *Gastornis*, apparently exceeding the ostrich in size, has been found in France and Britain. Hailprin notes how *Leptosomus*, type of a small family now restricted to Madagascar, is found in the Eocene deposits of France. In the Eocene also occur *Megalornis*, little smaller than an emu; *Dasornis*, uniting ostrich and moa; *Odontopteryx colapicus*, 'with dental armature recalling the toothed birds' of the chalk. A crane-like genus, *Aletornis*, is frequently represented in American strata. Giant forms disappear, the running birds are driven into corners, teeth degenerate and wings develop, as the modern bird fauna is gradually approached. Those who wish to read the full story should consult especially the writings of Marsh, and in the first place convenient summaries, such as that of Hailprin.

Sub-fossil and Historically Exterminated Birds.—Within comparatively recent (semi-historic)

times, the 'moas' of New Zealand (*Dinornis* and *Mionornis*), the *Pygornis maximus* of Madagascar, the Australian *Dromornis* (ancestor of the emu), and others have disappeared. Much more recently the dodo of Mauritius, the solitaire of Rodriguez, the crested parrot and the *Aphanapteryx* of Mauritius have been exterminated. Under separate articles some of these will be discussed. Thoughtlessness and cruelty are unfortunately tending to the extermination of some other forms.

Classification.—In 1880 Mr Sclater estimated the number of extant bird species at 10,130, and Gray's estimate was somewhat higher. To these some 200 known fossils have to be added. The classification of these numerous forms is still a matter of the greatest difficulty. The older classifications were based on the habits, or on comparatively trivial characters; but as this physiological classification has been gradually improved, it has come to be not so inconsistent as formerly, with the anatomical classification suggested by Huxley. In his famous paper on the 'Classification of Birds,' *Proceedings of the Zoological Society*, 1867, Huxley grouped birds according to certain features of the skull, and though this may seem too narrow a basis, it must not be forgotten, as W. K. Parker remarks, 'that the structures of the skull and face govern the whole body, as it were; every other part of the organism corresponds to what is observable there.' But even when the great groups are marked off on this basis, there remains the huge difficulty of the genera and species. The difficulty of satisfactory diagnosis is due to the narrow range of modification. 'One bird is so like another,' say the non-ornithologists, and Professor Huxley confesses the same in saying that 'the structural modifications which the specific forms present are of comparatively little importance; any two birds which can be selected differing from another far less than do the extreme types of the lizards.'

While there is general agreement in distinguishing three great divisions of (1) ancient birds, like *Archaeopteryx* (*Saurure*); (2) running keelless birds, like ostrich (*Ratite*); and (3) keeled flying birds (*Carinate*), the divergence of classification observed in grouping the last of these three divisions is very great. In many works, especially text-books, the old orders of swimmers (*Natatores*), waders (*Grallatores*), scratchers (*Rasores*), climbers (*Scansores*), perchers (*Passeres* or *Insessores*), and birds of prey (*Raptores*), are still followed. In other cases some of these are retained, and others split up or rearranged in smaller orders, and a dozen or more established in all. It seems therefore most useful simply to append the classification of Huxley, with examples showing their relation to more familiar divisions.

I. *Saurure*.—Metacarpals not fused. Tail longer than body. Often with teeth—e.g. *Archaeopteryx*.

II. *Ratite*.—None of preceding characters. Flat unkeeled breastbone—e.g. (1) the kiwi (*apteryx*), with a big toe; (2) the 'moas,' cassowaries, and emus without a hallux; (3) the ostriches, differing from the preceding in having a long upper arm (humerus), and two (not one) clawed digits—the American ostriches or *Rheas*, with bechis (see hip girdle) united, but pubes free, and the true ostriches or *Struthios*, with the ischia free, but the pubes united.

III. *Carinate*.—Ordinary birds with keeled breastbone.

1. (a) *Dromaeognathus*.—Vomer broad behind, interposed between pterygoids, palatines, and basiphonoid rostrum—the Tinamous.

(b) (2-4) Vomer narrow behind, pterygoids and palatines articulating largely with basiphonoid rostrum.

2. *Schizognathus*.—Maxillo-palatines free, vomer truncated in front. Plovers, gulls, penguins, cranes, fowls, sand-grouse, pigeons, hoazins, goatsuckers, humming-birds.

3. *Agithognathus*.—Maxillo-palatines free, vomer truncated in front. Part of Gernanomorphus, the Hemipods, swifts, Passerine birds.

4. *Sauragnathus*.—Vomerine halves permanently distinct, maxillo-palatines arrested (except in woodpeckers, birds of prey, parrots, cuckoos, kingfishers, trogons, goose-like birds, flamingos, storks, cormorants).

While the meaning of the terms can only be appreciated with the skull in hand, the above classification is independently of value as showing what orders of birds are on anatomical grounds most nearly related.

Pedigree.—It is generally allowed that birds have risen out of reptiledom. Such an origin is suggested not only by the general fact that 'reptiles' in the wide sense form the nearest distinctly lower class, but by resemblances of structure revealed in anatomical research, and still more by the study of bird embryology. But the crowning evidence in favour of this origin is found in the primitive characters of the first known bird (*Archæopteryx*, q.v.), and by the series of forms connecting flying saurians and toothed birds. Birds are derived from the ancient reptiles or saurians known as *Deinosaurs* or *Ornithoscelida*. These lead up to the primitive birds or *Saurura*, from which two branches diverge, represented by the keelless birds (*Ratitæ*) on the one hand, and by the keeled birds (*Carinata*) on the other. To discuss the nature of the step by which birds took wings and rose out of reptiledom, is to raise the whole problem of organic progress. To refer the step, as Buffon did, simply to a change in the quantity of carbonic acid gas in the atmosphere, is to give the process a false simplicity. To assume the accumulation of reptilian variations by natural selection in the struggle for existence, is the consistent Darwinian view. It is probably more correct to regard the incipient birds as, so to speak, 'feebler' representatives of reptiles progressing in the direction of greater and greater constitutional activity. Flight would be at first spasmodic, but as the structures became modified by function, would gradually become more constant and less pathological. The high temperature, the feathered skin, the flight, the hollow bones, the long rest of brooding, are probably all expressions of one predominant constitutional tendency. It must also be noted that the sacrifice of parental care justifies itself in the success of the brood. See EVOLUTION.

Economic Importance.—In their connection with other parts of the web-like world of life, as well as for their own sakes, birds are of much practical importance. Though eagles are sometimes destructive of lambs, the birds of prey more than make up for this by keeping down the vermin; though many birds rob fruit-trees, devour seeds, and pilage growing crops, their services in keeping away plagues of insects more than counterbalance the damage they do. That some (e.g. humming-birds) visit flowers and act probably as pollen-carriers, and that others aid in the dispersion of seeds, are minor offices. That the flesh and eggs of many, both wild and more or less domesticated, are common articles of food; that the down and feathers of some are in common use for comfort and decoration; that the excrement of others forms the useful manure known as guano, are facts familiar to all. In exceptional cases, birds may be of more curious utility, a variety of pigeon discharges the functions of a letter-carrier, falcons used to be much employed in sport, the nests of one form are eaten, and some birds are kept for amusement and decoration. And when we think of their beauty and song, we must allow that human life would be poorer without them.

Conclusion.—In many centuries, and now more than ever, birds have been studied by the naturalist. The perfection of their structure, the variety and ingenuity of their habits, and in later days the fact of their lofty ascent from lowly parentage, have afforded material for thousands of researches which, in a pre-eminent degree, have been labours of love. In the eyes of simpler men, unacquainted with the technicalities of science, the majority of

birds have for long seemed the most delightful of animals. Apart from their importance as beneficial or hurtful, apart from matters of food and sport, and apart from their ancient augural significance, birds have been universally allowed to possess peculiar charms. Their ethereal habit, their general vivacity, their grace of structure, the beauty of their plumage, the music of their song, the range of their intelligence and emotions, the mystery of their migrations, and other features, combine to make birds the first and last favourites of man. To the artist too they have supplied a wealth of colour, a variety and gracefulness of form, a suggestive beauty of pose and attitude which are not elsewhere equalled. Nor is it necessary to say that just as some of the greatest ornithologists have been at the same time poets, so most poets have been also ornithologists, or at least bird-lovers. To poets of every age and country birds have been 'symbols and suggestions,' although to too many they have been nothing more. They are emphatically the poet's animals; still he is often ignorant of their habits, according to Phil Robinson's indictment in *The Poets' Birds* (1883).

Literature.—Of the immense literature on birds, the following may be noted:

E. Alix, *Appareil Locomoteur des Oiseaux* (for mechanism of flight); Balfour's *Embryology*, vol. ii. (for development); Brehm's *Bird Life*, &c. and *Book of Birds*; Brewer, *North American Oology* (for eggs); British Museum, *Catalogue of Birds*; Bronn's *Thierreich*; Cassell's *Book of Birds and Natural History* (Martin Duncan); Darwin, *Descent of Man*, &c. (for sexual selection); Foster and Balfour, *Elements of Embryology* (for development); Gould's *Birds of Australia* (for reference); Gray and Mitchell, *Genera of Birds* (for reference); Hewitson, *Eggs of British Birds*; Huxley, *Anatomy of Vertebrate Animals* (for structure and classification); *Ibis*; *Journal of Ornithology*; Jerdon's *Birds of India* (for reference); Leunis, *Synopsis des Thierreichs* (for genera); Macgillivray's *British Birds* (for anatomy and genera); A. Newton, 'Birds,' *Ency. Brit.* (for distribution, &c.); Owen, *Anatomy of Vertebrates* (for structure); W. K. Parker, 'Birds,' *Ency. Brit.* (for structure and development); J. G. Romanes, *Animal Intelligence, Mental Evolution of Animals*; H. Seebohm, *A History of British Birds, with coloured illustrations of their Eggs*, vol. i.-vi. (1886); A. R. Wallace, *Contributions to Theory of Natural Selection, Philippine Islands*, &c. (geographical distribution of animals); J. G. Wood, *Homes without Hands*, &c. (for nests and general life); Yarrell's *British Birds*.

Bird, EDWARD, an English genre painter of considerable celebrity, was born at Wolverhampton in 1772. On the expiration of his apprenticeship to a maker of tea-trays in Birmingham, where his duty was to ornament the trays with flowers and shepherds, he established himself as a drawing-master in Bristol. In 1809 he sent to the Royal Academy a picture called 'Good News,' which brought him into notice; and two of his pictures, the 'Choristers Rehearsing' and 'The Will,' having procured him influential patrons, henceforth his reputation was secure, and ere long he was elected a Royal Academician. Other pictures were the 'Field of Chevy Chase the day after the Battle,' his masterpiece; the 'Death of Eli,' a number of rather poor Scripture subjects; and the unfinished 'Embarkation of Louis XVIII. for France.' He died in 1819. His reputation now depends on such of his works as 'The Blacksmith's Shop,' 'The Country Auction,' 'The Village Politicians,' and 'The Young Recruit.'

Bird, ISABELLA (Mrs Bishop), an adventurous lady traveller, long resident in Edinburgh, visited Canada and the United States in 1854. During a six months' residence in the Sandwich Islands, from time to time she sent home glowing letters describing what she saw and did, to a sister in Edinburgh. From such materials most of her

books of travel have been compiled. Her lively and picturesque narratives of journeys made to the Rocky Mountains, to the aborigines of Yezo and the shrines of Nikkō and Isé in Japan, and the Straits Settlements, have been very popular with the reading public. Her books are *The English-woman in America* (1858), which appeared anonymously; *Six Months among the Palm Groves of the Sandwich Islands* (1875); *A Lady's Life in the Rocky Mountains* (1879); *Unbeaten Tracts in Japan* (1880); and *The Golden Chersonese* (1883).

Bird, ROBERT MONTGOMERY, American physician and author, born at Newcastle, Delaware, in 1805. He wrote two successful tragedies, and published *Calavar, a Mexican Romance* (1834); *Nick of the Woods*; *The Infidel*, and other novels. He died in 1854.

Bird, WILLIAM, a distinguished English composer, was born about the year 1540, and in 1563 appointed organist in Lincoln Cathedral. Twelve years afterwards he and the more famous Tallis were gentlemen of the Chapel Royal, with the sole right to print and sell music, and both were organists to Queen Elizabeth. Bird, who was the earliest English composer of madrigals, published numerous compositions exhibiting great freedom as well as musical learning, and contributed many pieces to Queen Elizabeth's *Virginal Book*; but his fame rests on the canon *Non Nobis, Domine*, which still is sung as the grace at almost every civic banquet. He died in 1623.

Bird-catching Spider, a name originally given to a large spider, *Mygale avicularia*, a native of Brazil, Cayenne, and Surinam; but now more extensively applied to a number of large species of Mygale, Epeira, and perhaps other genera. The body of *M. avicularia* is nearly 2 inches long, very hairy, and almost black. When the feet are stretched out the animal occupies a surface towards a foot in diameter. The hooks of its mandibles are strong, conical, and very black. This giant spider lives in clefts of trees or in hollows between stones, where it spins a muslin-like tubular nest. During the day the Mygale



Bird-catching Spider (from Bates).

lurks in the wide porch of its house, but issues forth at night to hunt for its prey, which, according to Bates and others, really includes small birds. They are large enough to be led about by children as playthings. It is probably a species of this genus that Dampier mentions as found in Campeachy, the fangs of which, 'black as jet, smooth as glass, and at their small end as sharp as a thorn,' are said by him to be worn by some persons in their tobacco-pouches to pick their pipes with; and to be by others used as toothpicks, in the

belief of their having power to expel the tooth-ache.

Mygale or Avicularia belongs to that section of spiders in which there are four breathing organs instead of the usual two. The members of this tribe do not form a proper web, but live in holes in the manner above described, and gain their livelihood by hunting. But even the quieter web-spinning spiders (e.g. Epeiridae) seem to manage occasionally to capture birds. Their toils are occasionally many feet long, and sufficiently strong to impede travellers in the forest, so that it is little wonder that humming-birds, and even larger forms, are sometimes entangled. See SPIDER.

Bird-cherry (*Prunus Padus*) is a small tree growing wild in the moist woods in Britain and through the palaearctic region. It is easily recognised by its abundant racemes of small white flowers and deciduous leaves. The drupes are small, unpalatable save to birds (whence the popular name) and schoolboys, but are sometimes used to colour wine and brandy, and are said to be eaten in Siberia. In Scotland the common name is *Hagberry*. A larger but closely allied species (*P. virginiana*), of which the fruit is used to flavour pemmican, has been introduced into Britain. The wood of both species is esteemed by cabinet-makers.

Bird-lice, a popular name for a family of insects (Mallophaga), often placed beside other lice in the order Hemiptera. These external parasites are louse-like in form, usually with a distinctly separated front ring in the breast region (prothorax), with 3-5 jointed antennae, with biting mouth organs, and more or less of a sucking mouth. They live on the skin of birds and mammals, and eat young feathers and hairs, and also blood. *Trichodectes canis*, *Philocterus versicolor*, *Liothecum onseris*, *Menopon pallidum*, are common species. See LOUSE.

Birdlime is a viscid and adhesive substance, which is placed on twigs of trees or wire-netting, for the purpose of catching the birds which may alight thereon. A common practice is to place a decoy or tame bird in a cage near where the birdlime is spread; the wild birds, attracted to the spot by the song of the tame bird, get entangled with the birdlime. It is also extensively used for catching mice, and even rats, in houses, where poison is objectionable. The birdlime is spread on a board, some toasted cheese placed in the centre, and the trap laid on the floor. The mice in endeavouring to reach the cheese, are held fast by the feet, and may be destroyed. The substance is generally prepared from the middle bark of the holly, mistletoe, or distaff-thistle, by chopping up the bark, treating it with water, boiling for several hours, straining, and lastly exposing it to fermentation for several weeks, when a gelatinous mucilage is obtained, consisting mainly of a substance to which the name *resin* has been applied. A second mode of preparing birdlime is to employ ordinary wheat-flour; place it in a piece of cotton cloth; tie up the ends, so as to form a bag; immerse the whole in a basin of water, or allow a stream of water to flow upon it; and repeatedly squeeze the bag and its contents. The result is, that the starch of the wheat-flour is pressed out of the cloth bag, and an adhesive substance named *gluten* is left on the cloth. This substance resembles that prepared by the previous process in its properties; but the former mode of preparing birdlime is a much cheaper plan, and is that generally followed.

Bird of Paradise, the common name of a family of birds (Paradisæidæ), found chiefly in New

Guinea and neighbouring islands, and remarkable for splendour of plumage. In all other respects, however, they are very closely allied to the crow family, Corvidæ (q.v.), to which they exhibit a great similarity, not only in the characters of the bill, feet, &c., and in general form, but also in their habits, and even in their voice. They have been the subject of many fables. The state in which their skins are usually exported from their native islands, gave rise to the notion that they were destitute of feet; and free scope being allowed to fancy, it became the prevalent belief that they spent their whole lives floating in the air, except when perhaps they suspended themselves for a little by their long tail-filaments from the uppermost branches of trees. They were supposed to feed on dew and vapour, or more substantially on the nectar of flowers. Some of them do, indeed, feed partly on the latter. Antony Pigafetta, who accompanied Magellan in his voyage round the world, described them as having legs, and stated that these were cut off as useless in the preparation of the skins; but his statement was not credited, and Aldrovandus went the length of accusing him of an audacious falsehood. Most of the characters ascribed to birds of paradise are simply to be regarded as imaginative revelling in the absence of facts; but it is also possible that some of the fables are in part due to the desire of the inhabitants of those islands in which they are found to increase the value of their skins as an article of merchandise. A sort of sacred character being attached to them, they were employed not merely for ornament, but as a charm to secure the life of the wearer against the dangers of battle. Mr A. R. Wallace also points out that the Malayan traders, from whom the birds were usually bought, never saw them alive, knowing them indeed by the name *Barong mati*, or 'dead birds.' The people of Ternate call them *Mauk devati*, or 'birds of God,' which name Buffon modified into *Mauvode*. In different languages they are known by names signifying birds of the air, birds of the sun, &c. In 1760 Linnaeus described the largest species, *Paradisæa apoda*, and also referred to the King Bird of Paradise. The list was gradually increased, but our real knowledge of the group dates from Mr Wallace's visit to New Guinea in 1857-58. Since then the quest has been followed up with enthusiasm.

The Paradiseidæ are comparatively small birds, but their spreading feathers are often of great length. Though allied to crows and starlings, the adult males are in beauty unsurpassed even by humming-birds. Tufts of bright feathers spring from beneath the wings, from the tail, or from the head, back, or shoulders. Trains, fans, and exquisitely delicate tress-like decorations occur abundantly, and the gracefulness of the plumage is enhanced by the brilliant colour and metallic lustre. The females are plain, sober-coloured birds, and it is only with maturity, and after successive moults, that the males acquire that brilliancy of plumage which they exhibit to such advantage in their courtships. The true birds of paradise feed on fruits and insects, and are practically omnivorous. Their mode of life is more or less gregarious. They are intensely active, flitting about the whole day long. There is still lack of information in regard to nests and eggs. Some of them may be readily kept in confinement.

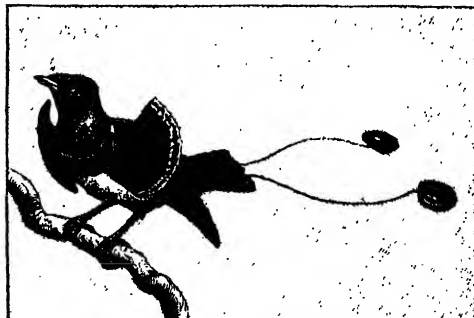
The birds of paradise are usually grouped in two divisions—the Paradiseidæ proper and the long-beaked Epimachidæ—but Wallace unites these in one family. The former appear more nearly related to the crows, the latter to the hoopoes. Among the Paradiseidæ proper, the following species deserve special record. The Great Bird of Paradise

(*Paradisæa apoda*) is the largest species, measuring about a foot and a half in length. From beneath



The Great Bird of Paradise (*Paradisæa apoda*).

the wings of the male there springs on each side a rich tuft of long plumes, sometimes 2 feet in length. The gorgeous colours, from golden orange to blackish violet, baffle brief description. 'The loud, shrill note is the most prominent and characteristic animal sound in the Aru Islands.' The natives shoot the males with blunt arrows when they are displaying themselves in courtship. So preoccupied are they that many may be shot before the thronging rivals take alarm.—The Lesser Bird of Paradise (*P. papuana*) is smaller and predominantly yellow, except on the breast, which is purplish. The females are white below, and so are the young males. They gradually become more brown and more handsome. This species is very frequently used for ladies' head dresses. Its home is in New Guinea and adjacent islands. Wallace brought two live specimens to Britain, and they lived for one and two years in the Zoological Gardens in London. Among closely related species is the Red Bird of Paradise (*P. rubra*), restricted to the island of Waigiu, near New Guinea. It is about 14 inches long, and the side plumes are rich crimson. The two middle tail-feathers form stiff black ribands, about 22 inches long. Wallace notes this bird as one of the most vivid instances of the development of colour and plumage through the selective action of the females. The natives catch them by an



King Bird of Paradise (*Paradisæa regia*).

ingenious snaring contrivance.—The King Bird of Paradise (*Paradisæa regia*, also called *Cicinnurus*

regius) is much smaller, only about 6 inches long, but is even more brilliant in plumage. The two middle feathers of this living gem are wire-like shafts, about 6 inches long, bearing at their extremities a spiral emerald disc. The females and young males are, as usual, very plain.—The Magnificent Bird of Paradise (*Diphyllodes speciosa*) has a curious double mantle on its back.—The Superb Bird of Paradise (*Lophorina alba*) is yet rarer and more brilliant, and bears a most extraordinary shield (like another pair of outspread wings) on the back of its neck.—The Six-shafted Bird of Paradise (*Parotia seppensis*) is adorned in many ways, but especially by six slender feathers springing from the back of the head and ending in oval webs. Wallace discovered a beautiful bird, which he called the Standard-wing (*Semioptera wallacei*), especially distinguished by a pair of long narrow white feathers, which spring from the bend of the wing, and are capable of being erected at pleasure.

Among the Epimachidae, or Long-billed Birds of Paradise, one of the most remarkable is the Twelve-wired Paradise Bird (*Seleniculus alba*). About twelve posterior plumes have the midrib elongated into black wires, which curve backwards for about 10 inches. The female is not so plain as in most other species. The males are solitary in habit. These birds frequent flowering trees, are almost ceaselessly in motion, and feed to a large extent on the nectar of flowers. The great Epimache, or Long-tailed Paradise Bird (*Epimachus magnus*), 'has a magnificent tail, more than 2 feet long, glossed on the upper surface with the most intense opalescent blue. Broad brightly coloured plumes spring from the sides of the breast. The rifle-birds of North Australia (*Ptilorhis*), and the paradise oriole are not distinctly related to the birds of paradise.

These marvellously beautiful birds have some commercial importance. 'They are the monopoly of the chiefs of the coast villages, who obtain them at a low rate from the mountaineers, and sell them, to the Bugis traders.' The skull and feet are usually removed, the skin is wrapped up in palm leaves, and dried in a smoky hut. The colour is often half-spoiled in the process. That the feathers are used for head-dress decoration has been already noticed.

The scientific interest of these birds is centred in the relation of the beauty of the males to their highly developed art of courtship. Wallace gives a vivid description of the excitement and display at pairing time. They meet in what the people call 'sacaleli,' or 'dancing parties,' on wide-spreading forest trees, with large but scattered leaves. A dozen or twenty fully-plumaged males then display their beauty in every variety of attitude and motion. It is believed that the males were originally like the females, as they generally are when young. Changes in colour and form gave certain males a preference in the eyes of the selecting females. The more attractive became the more successful breeders, and thus the development of their beauty is laid to the credit of their courtship. The real origin of the colour in the mature males still requires elucidation; the theory of sexual selection only shows how changes once started might be gradually accumulated and enhanced.

The birds of paradise are restricted in distribution as above noticed. Their home (New Guinea) is rugged and mountainous, and in its recesses almost inaccessible. The people are savages. 'In such a country,' says Wallace, 'and among such a people, are found these wonderful productions of nature, the birds of paradise, whose exquisite beauty of form and colour, and strange development of plumage, are calculated to excite

the wonder and admiration of the most civilised and the most intellectual of mankind, and to furnish inexhaustible materials for study to the naturalist, and for speculation to the philosopher.' See A. R. Wallace, *Malay Archipelago* (vol. ii. 1869); Elliot, *Monograph of Paradisæide* (1873).

Bird's-eye Limestone (so called from the crystalline points disseminated through the rock) is a division of the Trenton group of the Lower Silurian of North America, apparently equivalent to the Llandeilo flags, and containing, besides the remains of brachiopods, many enormous orthoceratites.

Bird's-eye View is a term applied generally to modes of perspective in which the eye is supposed to look down upon the objects from a considerable height. In sketching or drawing a locality for military or economical purposes, this kind of perspective is always used. The great difficulty is to represent at the same time the relative heights of mountains and steepness of acclivities. But the more usual kind of bird's-eye view differs from the common perspective picture only in the greater height of the horizontal line.

Bird's-foot (*Ornithopus*), a genus of Leguminosæ, sub-order Papilionaceæ, deriving both its popular and its botanical name from the resemblance of the curved pods to birds' claws; the leaves are pinnate, with a terminal leaflet. The Common Bird's-foot (*O. perpusillus*) grows on dry sandy or gravelly soils, and is a small plant of little importance, although eagerly eaten by sheep. But *O. sativus*, an annual growing to the height of 2 or 3 feet, a native of Portugal, is cultivated in that country as green food for cattle, and is very succulent and nutritious. Like its British congener, it grows well on very poor soils. Its Portuguese name is Serradilla.

Bird's-foot Trefoil (*Lotus*), a genus of Leguminosæ, sub-order Papilionaceæ. The English name is derived from the resemblance of the clusters of pods to a bird's foot. The common species (*L. corniculatus*) is very abundant everywhere in Britain in pastures. It has a stem 6 to 12 inches in length, decumbent, and bearing umbellate heads of 8 to 10 yellow flowers, which have a rich honey-like smell. The plant has been sometimes regarded as



Bird's-foot Trefoil.

the Shamrock (q.v.) of Ireland. It is eaten with great avidity by cattle, and its deeply penetrating roots adapt it well for very dry situations.—A

larger species, otherwise very similar, with stem nearly erect, more compact heads of smaller flowers, and smaller seeds, is the Greater or Narrow-leaved Bird's-foot Trefoil (*L. major*), which also is a common native of Britain, generally found in moist, bushy places. The Winged Pea (*L. Tetragonolobus*), often separated as the type of a distinct genus on account of its quadrangular winged pods, is a native of the south of Europe, and was formerly cultivated in Sicily and Spain as an esculent; it is sometimes sown as an annual in flower-borders in Britain.

Bird's-nest is a name applied to two or more distinct plants, of similarly brownish colour and leafless habit, which are root-parasites, and grow more or less concealed under other vegetation. *Neottia* (*Listera*) *Nidus-avis*, the bird's-nest orchis, grows in dark woods, especially beech; *Monotropa Hypopitys*, a rare ericaceous plant, also grows in beech or fir woods. There is also a bird's-nest fern (*Asplenium Nidus*); and a group of Gasteromycete fungi, the *Nidularici* (Cyathus, Nidularia), from their cup-shape and egg-like spore-bearing masses, have also acquired the same popular name.

Birds of Prey, an order of Birds also known by the more technical names of *Accipitres* and *Raptores*. Vultures, eagles, hawks, falcons, and owls are familiar examples. The division belongs to an old classification, based as the terms suggest on likenesses of habit rather than similarities of structure. Unlike some of the other old orders, however, the birds of prey form a well-defined series, and correspond to the group *Acetomorphæ* in Huxley's anatomical classification. They feed for the most part on warm-blooded animals, which they catch alive and tear to pieces. They are in almost every respect exceedingly highly developed birds. Their senses are very acute, their flight strong and rapid, their size and strength above the average. The beak is very strong and sharp, the upper part slightly overhangs the lower, the margins are well adapted for cutting. The toes are armed with strong bent claws, and the feathers come down to the angle of the foot. The females usually do all the brooding, but the males keep up the food-supply for the young. Their nests are lofty. The distribution is very wide. Three families—Owls, Vultures, and Falcons—are commonly distinguished. See the separate articles.

Biretta (Ital. *berretta*; dim. of *birrus*, 'a hooded cloak'), a square cap worn by the clergy of the Roman Catholic Church, and by some ritualists in the Anglican Church. That of priests is black, of bishops purple, of cardinals red. Originally round, its present form, with straight, erect edges, and a tuft or button on the crown, dates only from the 17th century; but the low head-covering of English bishops was known as the *birettum* as early as the 13th century.



Biretta.

Birkbeck, GEORGE, M.D., distinguished for the leading part he took in founding mechanics' institutions and in the education of the working-classes, was born at Settle, in Yorkshire, in 1776.

He commenced his medical studies at Leeds, and pursued them at Edinburgh, where he made the acquaintance, among others, of Sydney Smith, Brougham, Jeffrey, and Horner. Appointed in 1799 to the chair of Natural Philosophy in the Andersonian Institution in Glasgow, he delivered his first free course of lectures to the working-classes in the following year. He took a leading part, along with Brougham, Bentham, Cobbett, and others, in the formation of the London Mechanics' Institute (1824)—the first of its kind in the kingdom. He was chosen its president for life, and it is called the Birkbeck Institution after him. In 1883-84 it was rebuilt on an adjoining site. Birkbeck died in London, 1st December 1841. See the Life by Godard (1884), and the article MECHANICS' INSTITUTES.

Birkenfeld, a German principality belonging to Oldenburg, but surrounded by the Prussian Rhine province, and intersected by the railway from Bingen to Saarbrück. It has an area of nearly 200 sq. m., with a pop. of (1881) 38,685; it has been connected with Oldenburg, 300 miles distant, since 1817. The capital, Birkenfeld, has a pop. of 2500.

Birkenhead, a market-town, seaport, and municipal and parliamentary borough of Cheshire, lies opposite Liverpool, on the left bank of the Mersey. Birkenhead owes its origin to the Benedictine Priory of *Byrkhed*, founded in the 11th century. Edward II. granted the monopoly of the ferries to its monks. The crypt and other portions of the priory still remain. Birkenhead has within the last few years risen from comparative obscurity to its present important position. No later than 1818 only a few straggling houses existed, and the population numbered 50. In 1821 it amounted only to 236. In 1836 it received the grant of a market, in 1861 obtained the privilege of returning a member to parliament, and in August 1877 was created a municipal borough. Besides the township of Birkenhead, the borough includes Claughton, Oxtou Tranmere, Rock Ferry, and part of Higher Bebington. The principal streets of Birkenhead are laid out with great regularity, crossing each other at right angles, and about 20 yards wide; but the back streets are narrow and the houses mean. One of the features of Birkenhead is the park, 180 acres in extent, laid out at a cost of £140,000. There is another park in Tranmere, called Mersey Park, of 29 acres and £33,000 cost, opened July 1885. The principal public buildings are the market-hall, the new town-hall, the new sessions and police courts, the borough hospital, the free library, and the public baths. A railway bridge over the Mersey at Run-corn, opened for traffic in 1869, shortened by 10 miles the distance between the Liverpool and Birkenhead docks; and the Mersey railway tunnel, 1230 yards long, was opened by the Prince of Wales on January 20, 1886. There is also communication with Liverpool by ferry-steamers. The idea of constructing docks at Birkenhead is due to the late Mr Laird, who with others in 1824 purchased from the Liverpool corporation, at a very low price, a large piece of ground on the borders of the Wallasey Pool. It was not, however, till 1847 that the first dock constructed by the Birkenhead Dock Company was opened. In 1857 the docks at Birkenhead were amalgamated with those of Liverpool, and vested in one public trust, called 'The Mersey Docks and Harbour Board.' Including the Great Float, an immense harbour, constructed on the site of Wallasey Pool, with an area of over 140 acres, they extend from Woodside to Seacombe, a distance of about a mile, the total area being about 170 acres, with 9½ miles of quayage. The Birkenhead docks are not in themselves remunerative. The corn-

warehouses at Seacombe constitute an immense pile of buildings, and a great deal of coal is shipped from the port.

Birkenhead has for some years been celebrated for its shipbuilding yards, some of the largest iron ships afloat having been built there by extensive firms. The too historical *Alabama* was built by the Messrs Laird, to whose enterprise, more than that of any other company, the town owes its present eminence. In the neighbourhood of the docks are the Canada Works for the construction of gigantic bridges, the Britannia Machinery Works, the Birkenhead Forge, and Messrs Cochran & Co.'s engineering and ship-building works. There are also oil-cake mills, extensive flour-mills, wagon-works, and several smaller engineering works. St Aidan's College, an Anglican theological college, is in the suburb of Cloughton. The population of the borough (3849 acres) in 1871 was 65,971, and in 1881, 84,006. In 1888 it had increased to probably about 100,000.

Birket-el-Hadji ('lake of the pilgrims'), a small lake 10 miles N.E. of Cairo, where the Mecca pilgrims assemble and separate.

Birmah. See BURMA.

Birmingham, a municipal and parliamentary borough, the chief town of the Midlands, and celebrated for its metallic manufactures throughout the world, stands near the centre of England, in the north-west of Warwickshire, with suburbs extending into Staffordshire and Worcestershire, 112½ miles N.W. of London. The name appears in *Domesday* as Bermingeham. On the attainder of Edward de Bermingham in 1527, it came into the possession of Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, and on the latter's attainder passed to the crown. During the Civil War the town supplied the Parliamentarians with swords, but it was taken by Prince Rupert in 1643. It suffered severely from the plague in 1665-66. The celebration by a number of Radicals, 14th July 1791, of the capture of the Bastille, was the occasion of a serious riot by the upholders of church and king, who attacked the house of the Unitarian minister, Dr Priestley, and destroyed his library. Subsequently it was prominently associated with the Chartist agitators, and within recent years it was the headquarters of what was known as the Liberal 'caucus.' It is picturesquely situated on the east slope of three undulating hills, on the Rea and the Tame, on a gravelly foundation over-lying clay and new red sandstone, and though rather irregularly built, with many narrow and winding streets, has been greatly improved in this respect within recent years, while its water-supply and sanitary arrangements are of the most satisfactory kind. Owing to its rapid growth the town is badly supplied with open spaces and recreation grounds in the central districts, but there are seven public parks, all situated in the suburbs. It possesses a large number of fine public buildings, among which may be mentioned the town-hall (1832-52), in the Corinthian style, erected at a cost of £50,000, the scene of the triennial musical festivals and the great political meetings for which the town is famous; the market-hall (1838); the municipal buildings (1874-78), in the Italian style, erected at a cost of nearly £200,000; the corn exchange (1847); the exchange buildings (1863-65), in the Gothic style; and the post-office. The water-works, originally established by a company in 1854 at a cost of £300,000, are now owned by the corporation.

The benevolent or reformatory institutions include the borough gaol, the lunatic asylum, and the general and Queen's hospitals. No town is better supplied with institutions for the promotion of education and the development of the arts and

sciences. These include Queen's College, incorporated by act of parliament in 1867, for the study of theology and medicine; the Mason Science College, the Birmingham and Midland Institute, the corporation museum and art gallery, the new school of art, the old library, the free library, King Edward VI.'s grammar-schools (entirely remodelled in 1878), and the blue-coat school. The Mason Science College was founded by Sir Josiah Mason, February 23, 1875, and was opened October 1, 1880. Its object is to promote 'thorough systematic education and instruction; specially adapted to the practical, mechanical, and artistic requirements of the manufactures and industrial pursuits of the Midland district, and particularly the boroughs of Birmingham and Kidderminster, to the exclusion of mere literary education and instruction, and of all teaching of theology, and of subjects purely theological.' Examinations for degrees in arts, science, and medicine, and for honours, exhibitions, and scholarships, conferred by the university of London, take place annually. The foundation of King Edward VI. consists of one high school for boys and one for girls in the centre of the town, accommodating respectively 350 and 200; together with three boys' grammar-schools, accommodating 850, and four girls' grammar-schools, accommodating 715, in various parts of the town. Elementary education of excellent quality in 39 schools, containing 109 departments, is already provided by the School Board for 37,464 children, and the provision is rapidly increasing. The board, through the generosity of its chairman, George Dixon, Esq., M.P., has also established a technical school.

Statues or memorials have been erected to Nelson (1809), Sir Robert Peel (1855), Thomas Attwood (1859), Joseph Sturge (1862), James Watt (1868); Prince Consort (1868), Dr Priestley (1873), Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, M.P. (1880), John Skirrow Wright (1883), Queen Victoria (1884), George Dawson (1885), Colonel Burnaby (1885); and Sir Josiah Mason (1886). Of the ecclesiastical buildings it must suffice to mention the parish church of St Martins, erected in 1873 at a cost of nearly £30,000, on the site of the old building, dating from the 18th century; and the Catholic cathedral of St Chad (Birmingham being the seat of a Catholic see), erected from the designs of Pugin, at a cost of over £30,000.

In Leland's *Itinerary* (1538) Birmingham is referred to as the abode of 'smiths and cutlers.' In cutlery goods it has been completely superseded by Sheffield, but in all other kinds of the finer metal manufactures it is unrivalled by any other town in the world. Iron and brass founding are carried on, and steam-engines and various kinds of machinery are made; but the principal manufactures are the finer kinds of gold, silver, copper, brass, steel, mixed metal, plated metal, glass, papier-maché, japanned and electrotyped articles, including fire-arms, ammunition, swords, metal ornaments, toys, jewelry, coins, buttons, buckles, lamps, pins, steel-pens, tools, arms, and locks. Over 500,000 gun-barrels were manufactured in 1886; and other specialties, of which an enormous quantity are manufactured, are steel-pens, buttons, nails, and screws. The term *Brummagem*, an old name for Birmingham, is colloquially used to denote anything sham or fictitious, such as cheap jewelry, which is largely made here. Near Handsworth, a little to the north of Birmingham, were the famous Soho Works, founded by Watt and Boulton, where steam-engines were first made. Handsworth Church has a statue of Watt by Chantrey, and a bust of Boulton by Flaxman.

Baskerville, the printer, carried on his business

in Birmingham; Hutton, the antiquary, author of the *History of Birmingham*, was a bookseller in the town. Wilmore and Pye, the engravers, and David Cox, the landscape-painter, were Birmingham men. Thomas Attwood originated the Political Union here, which greatly hastened the passing of the Reform Act of 1832, and the enfranchisement of Birmingham. Dr Joseph Priestley, natural philosopher and metaphysician, was for some time Unitarian minister in Birmingham, as was also the brilliant lecturer George Dawson. Birmingham has been remarkable in recent times for its 'school of politics.' Its leading principle may be justly described as 'government by the people for the people.' Birmingham was incorporated 31st October 1838, and on 26th June 1884 was constituted an assize town. In 1867 the number of parliamentary representatives was increased from two to three, and in 1885 it was divided into seven parliamentary districts, each returning one member. A resolution was agreed upon by the town council in January 1888, for enlarging the town boundaries, so as to include the suburban districts. The population in 1770 was 30,806, which by 1801 had increased to 60,822, by 1851 to 232,841, by 1871 to 343,787, and by 1881 to 400,774. It is now (1888) estimated to number about 510,000. See Hutton's *History of Birmingham* (1781); Langford's *Century of Birmingham Life* (2 vols. 1868); and Dent's *Old and New Birmingham* (2 vols. 1879-80).

Birmingham, the capital of Jefferson county, Alabama, and the most important seat of the iron industry of the southern states, is situated at the junction of several railways, 95 miles NNW. of Montgomery, with numerous foundries, mills, factories, and machine-shops. The development of the iron interests of its immediate vicinity has caused a marvellous growth of the city. In 1880 its population was scarcely more than 3000, and its land of little value. In 1887 the aggregate value of its property was estimated at over £5,000,000, and its population at about 30,000.

Birnam, a Perthshire hill 1324 feet high, near Dunkeld, commanding a splendid view of the valley of the Tay. Birnam Wood, forming part of an ancient royal forest, is immortalised by Shakespeare in *Macbeth*. Opposite Dunkeld is the pretty village of Birnam, the summer residence of Sir J. E. Millais.

Birni, a town of Bornu, Central Africa, about 100 miles W. of Lake Tsad, formerly the capital, but now almost completely in ruins. Its place has been taken by Kuka, close to the lake, with a pop. of about 60,000.

Biron, the title of a family that has given several marshals to France. The most distinguished of these are: (1) ARMAND DE GONTAUT, BARON DE, born in 1524, fought against the Huguenots at Saint-Denis and Moncontour, but early joined and rendered great service to Henry IV. He was killed at the siege of Epemay in 1592. His *Correspondance* was edited by Barthélemy in 1874. —(2) CHARLES DE GONTAUT, DUC DE, son of the preceding, was born in 1562. His intrepid valour gained him the affection of Henry IV., and the nickname of 'Fulmen Gallie;' but being convicted of a treasonable correspondence with Spain, he was beheaded in the Bastille in 1602. —(3) ARMAND LOUIS DE GONTAUT, DUC DE, born in 1753, fought with Lafayette in America, joined the Revolutionists in France, for whom he commanded several armies, and defeated the Vendéans at Parthenay in 1793. Accused, however, of oppression and falsehood by two fellow-generals, he was guillotined, 1st January 1794. His *Mémoires* (new ed. by Lacour, 1858) are valuable.

Biron, ERNEST JOHN DE, Duke of Courland, born in 1690, was the son of a land proprietor in Courland, of the name of Bühr. His person and intellect gained him the favour of Anna Ivanovna, niece of Peter the Great, when she ascended the throne of Russia in 1740. Biron was loaded with honour. He assumed the name and arms of the French dukes De Biron, and soon swayed all Russia through his royal mistress. Proud and despotic by nature, he hated every one who stood in the way of his ambition. More than a thousand persons were executed by his order, and a far greater number sent into banishment. Still by the strength of his character he introduced vigour and power into every branch of public administration. On the death of the empress (28th October 1740), Biron assumed the regency, and acted with great prudence and moderation. A secret conspiracy was, however, soon formed against him, and three weeks after he was arrested, and, along with his family, conveyed to Siberia. On Elizabeth's accession in the following year, he was recalled, and spent the remainder of his life in retirement. He died 1772.

Birr. See PARSONSTOWN.

Birs, a small Swiss stream which enters the Rhine near Basel. Its banks were the scene of two battles in the 15th century, in one of which 500 confederate Swiss died heroically, in 1444, in battle against the French; in the other, 6000 their countrymen gained a splendid victory over 15,000 Austrians in 1499.

Birs-Nimroud. See BABEL.

Birth is generally applied to the delivery of a living child, and not to the mere expulsion of an ovum, or fetus, or dead child. Numerous medical legal questions of importance may arise regarding the real or supposed birth of a child. Only a few points regarding the most common of these can be touched on here. (a) Has the supposed mother been delivered of a child? Was it at or about the time alleged? The fact of delivery is often concealed, sometimes it is falsely assumed. It is often for about eight or ten days after birth that, in the case of a healthy woman, physicians can determine certainly whether or not delivery has just taken place. It is however generally possible to determine whether or not a woman has had a child at so time or other; so that delivery which is feigned for the purpose of extorting charity, compelling marriage, or disinheriting other parties, can generally be detected by medical jurists. (b) Was the child mature when born? or sufficiently developed for it to live? A child reaches maturity about nine months after conception, when the head is covered with hair, and the finger nails are completely formed; the average length is 18 inches, and weight between 6 and 7 lb.; but wide deviations from these figures are met with. It is very rare for a child to live more than a few hours if born before the end of the seventh month from conception. (c) Was the child born alive? how long did it survive its birth? (see INFANTICIDE). With regard to questions of inheritance, a child is considered capable of taking and transmitting property if it has lived for an instant, although it may have cried or moved. See ABORTION, BASTARDY, INFANTICIDE, INHERITANCE, LEGITIMACY, PRENATAL; also VITAL STATISTICS; for Birthright see PRIMOGENITURE, SUCCESSION; and for Registration of Births, see REGISTRATION.

CONCEALMENT OF BIRTH is a criminal offence in the law of all civilised countries. In England under the Criminal Law Consolidation Act of 1863 every person who endeavours to conceal a birth or a secret disposition of the dead body of the child

is liable to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not more than two years; it is not necessary to prove whether the child died before, at, or after its birth. This law does not apply to the case of a woman being delivered of a foetus (see ABORTION). Concealment includes the case of the body being laid down in an unfrequented place though not hidden. Many cases dealt with are undoubtedly cases of murder through exposure. Accordingly, a verdict of concealment can be returned on an indictment charging murder.

In Scotland, from 1690 till 1803, concealment of birth was construed as presumptive of child-murder, and punished with death, in all cases where a woman concealed her being with child during the whole period of her pregnancy; where she did not call for, or make use of help or assistance in the birth; and where the child was found dead, or was amissing. The case of Tibby Walker (the 'Elfie Deans' of Scott's *Heart of Midlothian*) is a familiar instance. The capital penalty was first superseded by banishment; and now, by a statute of 1809, the woman is liable to imprisonment for a period not exceeding two years. Of course, this law does not apply to cases of premature birth, at least where the offspring cannot properly be called a child. In both England and Scotland, the law is dictated by a desire not to press charges of murder against unfortunate women. In England, only the secret disposition of the body is punished, which is often done by the paramour. In Scotland, if the child were born alive and shown to any one, no conviction could be obtained. It has been decided that disclosure by the mother to the putative father, or even conduct implying disclosure, or confession before a kirk-session, is a sufficient defence. The punishment usually awarded for this offence in Scotland is imprisonment from three to six, and in aggravated cases, from nine to eighteen months. See INFANTICIDE.

Birth, REGISTRATION OF. See REGISTRATION.

Birthday Books. These had their origin by the issue in 1866 of the *Birthday Scripture Text-book* by Mr W. Mack, bookseller, Bristol, who was also its joint-compiler. The success of the idea was immediate, and up till 1888 about a million copies of this book alone had been sold, in various sizes, besides the sale of about half a million of other kinds issued by him at a later date. His plan, which was soon widely imitated by other publishers, was to issue a daily Scripture text-book, and so to interleave it that there should be opposite each day sufficient space for the autographs of several friends. It thus served the double purpose of a reminder of the birthdays of friends and an autograph-book. A Shakespeare birthday book followed, and soon all the chief poets and prose-writers were laid under contribution for this purpose. The idea was extended to include illustrations, and the Princess Beatrice furnished fifteen water-colour designs for a birthday book, which were reproduced by chromo-lithography.

Birthwort. See ARISTOLOCHIA.

Biru', a kingdom of Soudan, Western Africa, bounded on the E. by the Niger. The capital is Walata.

Bisac'cia, a town of Italy, 60 miles E. of Naples. Pop. 6180.

Bisacqui'no, a town of Sicily, 27 miles S. of Palermo. Agate and jasper are found in the neighbourhood. Pop. (1881) 9588.

Bisal'nagar, a town of India, in the Gaekwar's territories of Baroda, 220 miles NW. of Mhow. It has a large transit-trade, and manufactures cotton cloths. Pop. (1881) 19,602.

Bisalpur, a town of India, in the North-west Provinces, 24 miles E. of Bareilly. Pop. (1881) 8903.

Biscacha. See VISCACHA.

Bis'cay, or VIZCAYA, the most northerly of the Basque Provinces of Spain, is bounded N. by the Bay of Biscay, E. and S. by its sister-provinces, Guipuzcoa and Alava, and W. by Santander (see BASQUES). It has an area of 833 sq. m., and a population of (1885) 201,700. Chief town, Bilbao (q.v.).

Biscay, BAY OF (Fr. *Golfe de Gascogne*), that portion of the Atlantic Ocean which sweeps in along the northern shores of the Spanish peninsula in an almost straight line from Cape Ortegal to St Jean de Luz, at the western foot of the Pyrénées, and thence curves northward along the west shores of France to the island of Ushant. Its extreme width is about 400 miles, and its length much about the same. The depth of water varies from 20 to 200 fathoms, being greatest along the north shores of Spain. The whole of the south coast is bold and rocky, and great parts of the French shores are low and sandy. The bay receives numerous unimportant streams from the mountains of Spain, and, through the rivers Loire, Charente, Gironde, and Adour, the waters of half the surface of France. Its chief ports are Santander, Bilbao, and San Sebastian, in Spain; and Bayonne, Bordeaux, Rochefort, La Rochelle, and Nantes, in France. Navigation of 'the bay' is proverbially trying to inexperienced voyagers, and is frequently rendered dangerous by the prevalence of strong winds, especially westerly ones. Rennef's Current sweeps in from the ocean round the north coast of Spain.

Bisceglia, a seaport town of Italy, on the Adriatic, 21 miles NW. by W. from Bari. Bisceglia has a cathedral, besides several other churches, a seminary, a hospital, &c. The neighbourhood produces good wine and currants. Pop. (1881) 21,675.

Bischof, KARL GUSTAV, a distinguished chemist and geologist, born near Nuremberg in 1792, in 1822 became professor of Chemistry in Bonn, where he died 30th November 1870. His writings include technical treatises on botany, chemistry, and geology, the chief being a Manual of Chemical and Physical Geology. Between 1837 and 1840 he began a series of important experiments on inflammable gases in coal-mines, and on safety-lamps.

Bischoff, MOUNT, a post-town of Tasmania, 60 miles W. of Launceston, which owes its existence to the discovery here in 1872, by Mr James Smith, of some of the richest tin mines in the world. Between 1884-86 more than 20,000 tons of tin ore had been raised. The yield of pure tin from the ore is from 70 to 80 per cent. The mount takes its name from the chairman of a land company (1828). There is railway communication with Emu Bay, 45 miles distant. Pop. of mining locality, over 2000.

Bischoff, THEODOR LUDWIG WILHELM, an eminent anatomist and physiologist, and more especially embryologist, was born at Hanover, 28th October 1807. He studied at Bonn and Heidelberg, becoming in 1836 extraordinary professor, and in 1843 ordinary professor of Anatomy and Physiology at Heidelberg. From 1844 to 1855 he filled the same chair at Giessen, where he founded a physiological institute and anatomical theatre, and from 1855 to 1878 at Munich. In the latter year he retired, and he died at Munich, 5th December 1882. Bischoff devoted his studies mainly to embryology and biology, and has left numerous treatises and papers of great value.

Bischweiler, a German town of Alsace, on the Moder, 17 miles N. of Strasburg. Its fortifications were dismantled in 1706. It has manufactures of earthenwares, coarse woollens, linens, oil, and soap. Pop. (1885) 6810.

Biscuit, if Pottery, is the name given to porcelain and other pottery after the first firing. See POTTERY.

Biscuits (Fr., 'twice-baked'), small, flat bread, rendered dry and hard by baking, in order to their long preservation. Biscuit-baking is rapidly becoming an industry in itself, and factories are rising up all over the country where biscuits are made in large quantities. In these factories the flour and other ingredients of which biscuits are made is never handled from the time it enters the works until it issues from them as a finished article. In the case of hard biscuits the various ingredients are run into a kneading-machine, where they are thoroughly incorporated into a stiff dough. This is then 'braked'—i.e. passed and repassed between rollers until pressed into long sheets with smooth surfaces. These sheets are then placed on a biscuit-cutting machine, which is provided with a pair of rollers set to compress the dough as it passes between them into the desired thickness. The dough is carried along by a woollen or canvas web, which delivers the dough underneath a block containing cutters which descend and cut the biscuits to the desired shape. As the block rises, the web carries the cut dough onwards, the scrap dough being collected; they next pass on to a wire frame travelling through a heated chamber or oven. The passage through the oven occupies about fifteen minutes, during which time they are completely baked. They are then carried to the packing-room, and when cool at once packed in tins. So rapidly is this operation conducted, that about 2000 lb. weight of biscuits are passed through one of these ovens every day of ten hours.

Biscuits are divided into two classes—the *unfermented* and the *fermented*. *Unfermented* or *unleavened* bread, generally known as *common sea-biscuits* or *ship-bread*, are made of wheaten-flour (retaining some of the bran), water, and common salt.

Captains' biscuits are prepared from wheaten-flour, water, with common salt, and butter, with an occasional small dose of yeast to cause partial fermentation. Milk is also sometimes employed. *Water biscuits* are made of flour and water; *hard biscuits*, of flour and water, with variable quantities of butter, spices, and sugar. *Soft biscuits* contain increased quantities of butter and sugar. *Yeast biscuits* are those the dough of which is mixed with a small quantity of yeast, yielding more porous biscuits. *Butter biscuits* are made with much butter and a little yeast.

In making fancy biscuits great care must be taken in the manipulative part of the process to incorporate the ingredients in a systematic manner. Thus, the butter is mixed with the flour in a dry condition, and then the water or milk added; and when eggs are used, they are thoroughly beaten up with the sugar (if the latter is required), and the egg-paste added to the dough, which has been previously prepared with or without butter. The various kinds of biscuits in the preparation of which yeast is employed, present a more spongy aspect than the unyeasted biscuits. Occasionally a little sesquicarbonate of ammonia (volatile salt) is added, to assist in raising the dough, and make a lighter biscuit. A great objection, however, to fermented biscuits is that they deteriorate very rapidly on keeping.

Soft or *spiced biscuits* are prepared from flour, with much sugar, a great many eggs, some butter, and a

small quantity of spices and essences. The eggs tend to give a nice yellow cream-colour to the biscuits.

The extent to which biscuits are now consumed may be learned from the fact that several of the largest biscuit-manufactories each prepare and throw into market every week from 30,000 to 50,000 lb. weight of biscuits of various kinds.

Of biscuits requiring special methods of manufacture, we may mention 'meat biscuits,' 'digestive biscuits,' 'charcoal biscuits,' and what is known as the 'perfect food biscuit.' The *meat biscuit* has not met with much favour as an article of food. It consisted of the usual ingredients of hard biscuit made up with a soup containing the soluble matters of beef. One of the objects of the meat biscuit—viz. the preservation of animal food of South America and Australia, has been attained by other preferable methods (see PRESERVED PROVISIONS). A coarse kind of meat biscuit is used for feeding dogs.

Digestive biscuits are prepared in such a manner that they may contain diastase, the nitrogenous transforming matter of malt; but whatever quantity of this substance they may contain in the condition of dough is destroyed in the process of baking.

Charcoal biscuits, originally introduced by Bragg, were once held in great repute as a kind of medicinal food. They contain wood charcoal incorporated in their substance. The wood charcoal usually acts as an absorbent of gases, but it loses this quality when saturated with moisture; and it is in this condition, of course, that it reaches the stomach, any benefit that may accrue therefore from the use of charcoal biscuits cannot be due to its absorbent powers. It may, however, be of some benefit by acting as a mild mechanical irritant.

The *perfect food biscuit*, invented by S. Henderson & Sons, is one whose composition is based on the proportion of chemical elements needed for a complete and perfect dietary—i.e. it is designed to contain all the food materials, and in the proper proportion, that physiology indicates as required for the nourishment and support of the human body.

Bish, BISHMA, or BIKH. See ACONITE.

Bishop. The word comes to us from the Anglo-Saxon *biscop*, an abbreviated form of the Greek *episcopos*—i.e. 'overseer.' In classical writers, from Homer downwards, it signifies an inspector or superintendent of any kind, though they also use it as a title of various officers with special and determinate functions—e.g. of commissioners sent by the Athenians to regulate the affairs of colonies and subject states, and of magistrates who superintended the sale of provisions in the market under the Roman empire. In the Septuagint the usage of the word corresponds, on the whole, to that in classical writers. Sometimes the sense is quite general, as when, for instance, in Job, xx. 29, it occurs as a name for God who watches over the conduct of men; but usually it denotes officers intrusted with the superintendence of some particular work, whether civil or religious. Had the history of the word ended here, it would never have come, as it actually has done, to form part and parcel of every language spoken by Christians of the East and West. It appears in Syriac and Arabic, in Spanish and German, and everywhere, even in the French *evêque*, the original Greek form may be recognised. While, however, the word itself has been retained, the sense attached to it has undergone a radical alteration. Throughout the New Testament *episcopos* is interchangeable with *presbyter*; both are synonymous titles of officers who direct the discipline and administer the affairs of a single congregation, but, from the latter part of the 2d century, it has assumed a widely different meaning, which it still retains. Instead of being synonymous

with presbyter, it implies superiority over a body of presbyters; instead of superintendence in a particular congregation, it suggests rule over a number of congregations united in a diocese. It has ceased to mark an office which may be held by many in the same place, and has been appropriated to one who is supreme over presbyters and laity within the confines of a diocese. A modern bishop occupies a position in his diocese which is unique. He alone ordains presbyters and consecrates churches. He exercises authority over clergy and laity alike. To him the duty of preaching and instructing, and of maintaining sound doctrine, is specially committed. A New Testament bishop or presbyter was the member of a council which watched over the government of a congregation. So far we are on secure ground. The proofs of the alterations which have affected the meaning of the term will be given further on. Meantime, it is enough to say that the fact is admitted by competent persons of every theological school, even by Roman Catholics, such as Dollinger, *First Age of the Church* (Eng. trans. p. 286), and is treated as probable by Estius on Philipians, and Petavius, *Ecclesiast. Hierarch.* lib. iv. cap. 2. 'The orders,' says Thomas Aquinas (on Philipians), 'were distinct, but not the names of the orders.'

The matter is indeed very different when we pass from the word 'bishop' to the history of the episcopal office. Thus, while the more learned Roman Catholics admit that the words 'bishop' and 'presbyter' are synonyms in the New Testament, they also allege that modern bishops are by divine right superior to presbyters, and are the successors, not of those who bear the same name in the New Testament, but of the apostles. The Council of Trent anathematizes those who deny that bishops are superior to presbyters, or assert that the episcopal power of ordination is common to the latter (Sess. xxiii. can. 7). True, Roman Catholic divines make some distinction between bishops and apostles, whose successors they are said to be. It is admitted that the apostles had jurisdiction throughout the world, whereas the bishop's power is restrained to a particular diocese. But the bishop, like the apostle, ordains priests, rules over them and over the laity, and this by divine and unalterable institution. The position of High Church Anglicans is much the same. They consider episcopacy as necessary, not only to the well-being, but to the being of a church. To Anglicans of the more moderate school, episcopacy is a venerable form of church government which descends from apostolic times, but they do not count it an essential matter, and they have no mind to unchurch the Protestant communities which have been formed on another model. Presbyterians, on the other hand, contend that the government of the church by presbyters has, and has alone, the sanction of the New Testament, and they reject modern episcopacy as a corruption of primitive Christianity. But at all times the Protestant churches, whether Episcopalian, or Presbyterian, or Congregationalist, have had men among them who could adopt none of these positions; who believed that the free spirit of Christianity inculcates no definite form of church government, and have regarded the varying shapes which it has assumed as things indifferent in themselves, good or bad according to circumstances, never so good as to compensate in any degree for the absence of spiritual life, never so bad as to preclude its existence. And just as there have been men who forgot disputes about church government in the interests of the spiritual life, so there have been in England, and still more in Germany, scholars who have investigated the history of episcopal power with a learning and impartiality which

is not to be found in the war of the churches. We may say, briefly, that the result of all real investigation has been to show how utterly unlike the state of the earliest churches was to anything which either exists or could be reasonably desired at the present day. An attempt will be made here to state and to arrange the facts without entering into sectarian controversy. It must be premised that the whole tradition of the church, from the close of the 2d century onwards, tells, on a *prima facie* view, for the Roman Catholic and High Church theory of apostolical succession. Each cause has enlisted consummate learning on its side. But the method chosen here has at least the advantages that it is less familiar to the mass of English readers, that it has commended itself to scholars even within the pale of episcopal communions, and that it enables us to exhibit, without prejudice to any theory, the data by which all theory must be tested and proved.

Our earliest and surest sources of information are the undisputed epistles of St Paul, and there it is significant that the word 'bishop' occurs once only, and that in the latest of his epistles (Philip. i. 1). But in one important passage the apostle makes a formal enumeration of the different positions or grades occupied by the members of the church. We use of set purpose language which is vague, because, as we shall see presently, the powers indicated are vague, at least so far as the government of the church is concerned. 'God,' he says, 'hath set some in the church, first apostles, secondly prophets, thirdly teachers, then miracles, then gifts of healing, helps, governments, divers kinds of tongues' (1 Cor. xii. 28). It will be observed that he speaks of divine appointment, not of popular choice, and the reason is plain, for 'powers,' 'gifts of healing,' 'tongues,' 'prophecy,' were obviously miraculous gifts, and the same holds good, though perhaps in a lower degree, even of teaching, as appears from 1 Cor. xiv. 26; while Paul himself is a conspicuous example of an apostle, sent neither from men nor through human instrumentality, but by God 'through revelation of Jesus Christ' (Gal. i. 1-17).

Still the question remains whether the apostolic included the later episcopal office, and to this question diverse answers are given. Roman Catholics and many Anglicans reply in the affirmative. Presbyterians and many independent scholars also urge that there is scarcely a single feature common to the two. It is only, they plead, in the teeth of history that the distinction can be reduced to one between universal and local jurisdiction. The apostles had no universal jurisdiction; and their nearest counterpart, though even that is wide of the mark, is to be found in the modern missionary. The name of 'apostle,' which occurs once only in Matthew (x. 2), and once in Mark (vi. 30), oftener in Luke, was first given to the twelve. They were sent to the twelve tribes of Israel, and they continued this work, after the death of Jesus, in Jerusalem, and then throughout Judaea. The same name was taken by Paul after he 'had seen the Lord.' Among the Jewish congregations it was extended to James, the Lord's brother (Gal. i. 19), who had seen the risen Christ (1 Cor. xv. 7), and no doubt at a very early date to others, for Paul distinguishes 'all the apostles' as a larger class from the restricted number of the twelve. In the churches beyond Judaea, Timothy and Silvanus (1 Thess. i. 1, ii. 6), Barnabas (1 Cor. ix. 5), Apollos (1 Cor. iv. 6-9), Andronicus, and Junias (Romans, xvi. 7), were all apostles. Certain conditions seem to have been required before a man was generally recognised by this title. He must have

seen the Lord (1 Cor. ix. 1), approved himself by signs (2 Cor. xii. 12) and visions (2 Cor. xii. 1). The appointment, then, of an apostle, and the qualifications according to this view were wholly different from the appointment and qualifications of a bishop. No less different are the powers in the one case and the other. The bishop is the supreme administrator within the diocese in which he is nominated, being invested therein with supreme disciplinary authority. An apostle had no authority except over churches which he had founded. Paul, believing in the truth of his gospel, was ready to proclaim it to all, but the position he adopts to the Romans is quite other than that which he adopts to churches which owed their faith to him. He will not build 'on another man's foundation;' if he hopes to impart some spiritual gift to the Romans, he adds that the benefit will be mutual (Romans, i. 12), and he almost apologises for writing to them at all (Romans, xv. 15). It was his converts who were the seal of his apostleship (1 Cor. ix. 2). Even within his own sphere there is scarcely a resemblance between the authority of an apostle and a bishop. That of the former is much greater and much less, much greater in moral influence, much less in legislative authority. Paul's rights over his converts were those of a father who had begotten them in the gospel (1 Cor. iv. 15; Gal. iv. 19): it was his duty to remind them of the gospel they had received, accompanied and attested by the gifts of the Spirit, and to admonish them in case they were unfaithful to it (1 Cor. iv. 18-21, xiv. 37; 2 Cor. xiii. 2). When he has a distinct command of the Lord, he lays down an absolute precept. 'Unto the married,' he says, 'I give charge, yea not I, but the Lord, that the wife depart not from her husband . . . and that the husband leave not his wife' (1 Cor. vii. 10, 11)—appealing no doubt to a saying of Jesus preserved in the tradition of the disciples. On other matters, and those most important, he distinguishes between his own decision and that 'of the Lord,' and does but give his 'judgment' as 'one that has found mercy' (1 Cor. vii. 10, 25). He also gives his own opinion as a spiritual man to whom the really spiritual will listen (1 Cor. xiv. 37, 38), and he refers to the general custom of the churches (1 Cor. xi. 16, vii. 17, 17). But the congregation administered its own affairs in a completely democratic manner. The story of the incestuous Corinthian is a crucial instance. Paul is sure of what will take place; he is present in spirit at the meeting of the believers, but it is the meeting itself which passes sentence of exclusion. 'St Paul's spirit,' as Bishop Ellicott puts it, 'with the associated power of Christ, is present with the convoked synod, and with that synod passes the authoritative sentence' (Comm. on 1 Cor. v. 3). The older apostles had just as little official authority, just the same scope for moral influence. When Paul met them at Jerusalem in 51 A.D., they did not decide for the believers generally, but for themselves and their own course. They gave Paul and Barnabas 'the right hand of fellowship' that 'they should go unto the Gentiles.' Again, Paul felt he had to do, not with a board of officials, but with men whose past gave them great moral weight. In the second chapter of Galatians he never once uses the name 'apostle,' but he does mention 'the men of repute,' 'those who were reputed to be pillars.' Peter and John owed their position in great measure to their personal character, and James also to the fact that he was the brother of Jesus.

It may be objected that, anyhow, some official government must have been required in the early Christian gatherings, and that Paul implies that

there were persons who presided in the Thessalonian Church (1 Thess. v. 12). To which the answer is, 'That no doubt government existed, but that it was the government of those who were marked out for it by supernatural or natural gifts, not of officials.' We have seen already, that 'governments' are classed among the miraculous gifts of the Spirit. Further, the first converts, or those in whose house the church met (Rom. xvi. 5; 1 Cor. xvi. 19), would naturally direct the others, and take the lead in the congregation. 'I beseech you, brethren (ye know the house of Stephanas, that it is the first-fruits of Achaia, and that they have set themselves to minister unto the saints), that ye also be in subjection unto such, and to every one that helpeth in the work, and laboureth' (1 Cor. xvi. 15). Here the ministry or deaconship is one with the episcopate or superintendence. All is spontaneous, nothing official. The profusion of miraculous gifts prevented any desire for official teachers, and would have thrown them into the shade had they existed. Nor, some would add, could the apostles have thought of providing the churches with a regular government to last after their own death, though even so early a writer as Clement of Rome attributes this design to them. The fact, it is said, that the apostles, like the other Christians, confidently expected the coming of the Lord in their own time, proves this theory untenable.

Philippi was the earliest of the European churches, and there St Paul, towards the close of his life, does salute 'the saints' with the 'bishops and deacons.' Possibly, even then, these titles were beginning to be attributed, the former, to those who were the acknowledged leaders of the congregation; the latter, to those who devoted themselves to furthering and helping on its work. In later books of the New Testament canon, there is frequent mention of bishops or presbyters and deacons. And in the Acts the origin of these offices is traced back to the apostles themselves, and to the very beginning of the gospel. We are as yet, however, a long way from the Presbyterian system, because the office of teaching and preaching is quite separate from that of the presbyter. He was not a minister or preacher, but an 'overseer' or 'shepherd' of the church (Acts, xx. 28). He replaced the presbyters of the Jewish synagogue who presided over its discipline. And we are still further from diocesan episcopacy. Never once, from the beginning to the end of the New Testament, is a 'threefold ministry' of bishops, priests, and deacons so much as hinted at. On the contrary, bishop and presbyter are two words for the same office. The presbyters of Miletus (Acts, xx. 17) are also its bishops (verse 28); so are the presbyters in Crete (compare Titus, i. 5 with 7). The author of 1 Tim. iii. 7 having described the qualifications of a bishop, passes straight to those of the deacon, knowing nothing of any third office. True, it has been suggested—e.g. by Rothe (*Anfänge der Christ. Kirche*, p. 173, seq.) and by Bishop Lightfoot—that diocesan episcopacy may have sprung up at the close of the apostolic age. But it was unknown to Clement of Rome about 120 A.D. 'In his epistle,' says Bishop Lightfoot, 'there is no mention of episcopacy properly so called, for bishop and presbyter are still synonymous terms (see Clem. *Ep.* i. 44-47).' Precisely the same argument may be drawn from the 'Teaching of the Apostles' (xv.), and the Shepherd of Hermas (*Via*, iii. 5). These authorities carry us well into the 2d century. An analogue to the diocesan bishop has been seen by some in the 'angels' of the Revelation. They are the guardian spirits of the churches, or possibly personifications of them, but not human rulers, as Bishop Lightfoot with others, before and since, has conclusively proved.

In the pastoral epistles, supposed by the more advanced critics to have been written in St Paul's name against the Gnostic heresies of the 2d century, we get closer to the point. There Titus and Timothy are certainly empowered to guard the faith, to appoint bishops or presbyters in every city, and to exercise authority over them. There is a tendency to identify the bishop or presbyter with the teacher or preacher, for the bishop is to be 'apt to teach' (1 Tim. iii. 2), but the identification is not yet complete, for it is taken for granted that only some bishops teach (1 Tim. v. 17). The recurrence of such phrases as 'sound doctrine,' and the position of Timothy and Titus, make us feel that we are already on the threshold of the Catholic Church with its rule of faith and its hierarchy. But even here much is lacking. Timothy and Titus are temporary delegates of the apostle, not diocesan bishops. It is in the Ignatian epistles that the Rubicon is passed, and here indisputably, in any case as early as the middle of the 2d century, the claims of bishops, in the modern sense, are insisted upon perpetually. It is useless to multiply quotations from writers of later date. By the time of Irenæus (190 A.D.), the diocesan episcopate was established throughout the Roman world. The old enthusiastic life of the early Christian meetings was replaced by the rule of the hierarchy. Even Ignatius had not reached the view which is familiar to Irenæus, and still more to Cyprian, that bishops are the successors of the apostles, and the channels through which primitive tradition is conveyed to successive ages. Thus, it is held by many, the Catholic Church arose, formed by a kind of necessity in the struggle against the exaggerated doctrines of the Gnostic sects, which threatened to dissolve Christianity in systems of fantastic and variable speculation. The canon or collection of New Testament books, with binding authority equal to that of the Old Testament, the episcopacy united with itself, the appeal to apostolic tradition, all arose from the same need, and on this triple foundation the Catholic Church was built.

Two other points, however, deserve notice. First, Jerome (died 420) (on Titus, i. 5; *Ep.* i. 46) and an earlier writer, whose works are printed with those of St Ambrose (on 1 Tim. iii. 8, 9, 10), perceived that bishops and presbyters had been originally one, and that the current distinction could claim no higher sanction than the custom of the church. Jerome's words, thus which nothing can be more clear and strong, were incorporated in the *Decretum*, the earliest medieval collection of canon law (*Dist.* xciii. c. 24; xcv. c. 5), and thus all through the middle ages the schoolmen retained some idea of the real history of the office. Next, even in the 4th century, the church had not reached the modern principle that a bishop alone can confer valid orders. Thus, the Council of Ancyra in 314 A.D. (canon 13) assumes that presbyters may ordain presbyters with the bishop's sanction. The fathers of the council recognised of course the episcopal authority, but they did not attribute any supernatural efficacy to the imposition of episcopal hands.

The foregoing is a statement of the opinions, and the arguments on which these are based, held by the less conservative New Testament scholars both in England and Germany. Their argument has been given the more fully as still being much less known in England than the time-honoured High Church view, which has been for centuries the consistent theory of the whole Catholic Church. That theory of course is a perfectly simple and intelligible position, and the attitude of believers towards it depends mainly on the view they hold as to the literal interpretation of Scripture. For

apart altogether from the much wider and more difficult question, how far the general development in dogma of the whole body politic of the church is itself the outward evidence and expression of Christ's promised presence and guidance to the end of the world, the High Church theory of the apostolical succession of bishops—the representatives of the apostles, and through them of the Lord himself—finds strong support from the plain words of Scripture and the unforced exegesis of the same.

We must content ourselves with a brief summary of the later history of the office; and here it will be convenient to begin with the Roman Catholic and Eastern churches. There the duties and power of bishops remain much as they were in the middle of the 3d century, except so far as they have been curtailed by the rise of the papal power in the West, by the institution of Patriarchates and the interference of the state in the East. The Council of Trent requires the bishop to preach the word of God, and to maintain purity of doctrine among clergy and people. He has to superintend divine worship, and is bound to visit all the churches of his diocese at least once in every two years. He approves priests, and gives them faculties to hear confessions. He makes laws for his diocese, without power, however, to alter the common law of the church; decides ecclesiastical causes in the first instance; can suspend his clerical or excommunicate his lay subjects; he collates to all benefices, except those reserved to the pope; he directs the administration of temporal goods belonging to the diocese; he can dispense from his own laws, and, within certain narrow limits, from the law of the church. Such is the jurisdiction or ruling power of a bishop, but he is by no means supreme or unfettered even in his own diocese. He is subject by divine law to the councils of the church, and, as Roman Catholics believe, to the pope, and by ecclesiastical law he is in subordination to patriarchs, metropolitans, &c. In respect of orders—i.e. in power of consecration and the like—he has no superior, nor do pope or patriarch pretend to higher power than that of a simple bishop. He alone can consecrate other bishops, and ordain priests, and he alone, according to the Roman Catholic theory, is the ordinary minister of confirmation.

He is now addressed in the Latin Church as 'Most Illustrious and Reverend Lord,' though once titles which have become peculiar to the pope—e.g. 'Most Holy, Most Blessed Lord,' 'Your Holiness,' 'Servant of the Servants of God,' were common to mere bishops. His insignia are the ring, pectoral cross, episcopal throne, mitre, pontifical vestments, gloves, and sandals.

Bishops were in the earliest ages chosen by the people, subject to a veto by the bishops of the province (Cyprian, *Ep.* lxxviii.). In 325 A.D. the first Nicene Council (canon 4) recommended appointment by the provincial bishops, subject to confirmation of their choice by the metropolitan. Greek canonists understood this canon as annulling the old form of popular election, and at present the Greek orthodox bishops are nominated by the patriarch, though in Russia the final nomination rests with the czar. In the West the canon was understood to leave the popular rights of election unimpaired, merely requiring the presence of the bishops of the province, and confirmation by the metropolitan. In the 11th century the right of election passed to the Cathedral Chapter, and the pope gradually engrossed the sole right of confirmation, till at last Clement V. and his successors claimed the right of nomination also, first in certain cases, and then absolutely. Since then the pope has restored the right of election to the chapters in Prussia, Hanover, the Upper Rhine, Switzerland, and the

Austrian archbishoprics of Salzburg and Olmütz, with their suffragan sees, the respective governments having a right of veto. In Austria, with the exceptions just mentioned, in Bavaria, France, Spain, Portugal, Brazil, and Spanish America, the head of the state nominates. The election is purely papal in Belgium, also in Holland, Great Britain and Ireland, North America, and other Protestant countries. A right of recommendation, however, is conceded to the Roman Catholic chapters in Belgium, Holland, and England, to chapters and parish priests in Ireland, to the bishops of the province in North America. The right of consecration, which used to belong to the metropolitan and two other bishops, is now reserved to the pope, or a bishop nominated by him. The *Gerarchia Cattolica* for 1886 enumerates 172 archiepiscopal and 729 episcopal sees in the Roman Catholic Church. In Ireland there were 4 archbishoprics, 23 bishoprics; in England, 1 archbishopric, 14 bishoprics; in Scotland, 2 archbishoprics, 4 bishoprics. Altogether there were 115 Roman Catholic sees in the British empire. In the United States there were 70. Besides these, there are the titular bishops, till the present pontificate called bishops *in partibus infidelium*. They have received episcopal consecration, but have no regular jurisdiction. They assist some other bishop, or are delegates of the pope where the hierarchy is not established.

Passing to the Reformed churches, we find the theory of the Anglican much the same as that of the Roman episcopate, except that in England the authority of the crown has replaced that of the pope. The Anglican bishop is said, though the statement is disputed by Roman Catholic controversialists, to descend in direct line of consecration from his predecessors in the middle ages. He alone can ordain, confirm, and consecrate churches. He institutes to benefices and licenses curates; he has the right to preach throughout the diocese, to inspect the churches and churchyards. He can withdraw the licenses of curates, who may, however, appeal to the metropolitan. He is *ex officio* president in the Consistorial Court. With regard to criminal clerks his power is very limited, not only because the final decision rests with the Queen in council, but also because the English law protects the interests of the inferior clergy with a zeal unknown to the modern canon law of the Roman Church. Thus, whereas the Council of Trent permits a bishop to decide in cases of certain grave charges against clerks 'without formal trial, having simply ascertained the truth of the fact,' an Anglican prelate has no such power. He may institute a commission of inquiry, and decide the case with three assessors, one of whom must be a barrister, or he may at once prosecute in the Superior Court. If he himself passes sentence, an appeal lies to the Court of Arches in the province of Canterbury, to the Chancery in the province of York, and ultimately to the Privy-council. If a bishop refuses to institute a clerk to a benefice, the appeal is first to the archbishop and then to the Privy-council. There are in England and Wales two archbishops and thirty-one bishops, besides four suffragan or assistant bishops, the archbishops and twenty-four of the bishops having seats in the House of Lords. There are two archbishops and eleven bishops in the disestablished Church of Ireland; seven bishops in the Episcopal Church of Scotland, one of whom is called Primus; seventy-one colonial, nine missionary bishops; and sixty-four bishops in the Episcopal Church of the United States.

The early Lutherans were singularly moderate and rational in their attitude to episcopacy. They denied its divine institution, but they were quite willing to tolerate it, when circumstances made it expedient to do so. In Germany the name of

bishop fell into disuse, or was retained as a merely civil title, or revived for a short time, and then allowed to drop; and the Lutheran superintendent is a mere shadow of a mediæval bishop. On the other hand, the Lutheran churches of Denmark and Scandinavia have always been episcopal. There are eight bishops in Denmark, nominated by the crown, one archbishop and eleven bishops in Sweden; six bishops in Norway, which last are chosen by the clergy. These Lutheran bishops have the sole right of ordination, but in Sweden their disciplinary power is exercised in union with a consistory, the majority of whose members are laymen.

For the early history of the office, see Lightfoot on Philipians; Rothe, *Anfänge der Christlichen Kirche*, p. 261 seq.; Ritschl, *Entstehung der Altkatholischen Kirche*, p. 339 seq.; Baur, *Christenthum und Kirche der ersten drei Jahrhunderte*, p. 260 seq.; Hatch, *Organisation of the Early Christian Churches*; Weizsäcker, *Apostolisches Zeitalter*, p. 606 seq. The historical canonists of the Roman Catholic Church, such as Thomassin, afford abundant and trustworthy information on the episcopate in later patristic and mediæval times. Dr Wordworth's *Theophilus Anglicanus* is a popular statement of the High Church theory by a divine of great learning; Döllinger's *First Age of the Church* (trans. by Oxenham) treats the subject in a masterly fashion from the Roman Catholic standpoint. For the Reformed churches recourse has been had to Blunt's *Church Law*, revised by Phillimore, and to the articles on the Danish and Scandinavian churches in Herzog and Plitt's *Encyclopædie für Protestantische Theologie*. See also the articles in this work on APOSTOLICAL SUCCESSION, ARCHBISHOP, ENGLAND (CHURCH OF), ORDERS, PRIEST, ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

Bishop, a beverage composed of red wine (claret, Burgundy, &c.) poured warm or cold upon ripe bitter oranges, sugared and spiced to taste, and drunk either hot or cold.

Bishop, SIR HENRY ROWLEY, composer, was born in London, November 18, 1786. His principal musical instructor was Francesco Bianchi, an opera composer settled in London. In 1806 Bishop was appointed composer of ballet music at the Opera. Among his 88 operatic entertainments were *Guy Mannering*, *The Miller and his Men*, *Maid Marian*, *Native Land*, and *The Virgin of the Sun*—all less remarkable for originality than for their flowing melodies and animated style. The opera *Aladdin* (1826) was a failure. The famous glee, 'The Chough and Crow,' is his; many of our most popular songs, such as 'Should He Upbraid,' 'My Pretty Jane,' are by him; and his, too, probably, is the setting of 'Home, Sweet Home' (see PAYNE). From 1810 to 1824 he was director of the music at Covent Garden Theatre, from 1825 to 1830 at Drury Lane, and for three years more at Vauxhall Gardens. One of the first directors of the Philharmonic Society, he for nine years conducted the concerts of Ancient Music. In 1839 he received the Oxford degree of Mus. Bac., in 1853 of Mus. Doc.; and from 1841 to 1843 he was Reid professor of Music in the university of Edinburgh. In 1842 he was knighted, and in February 1848 was elected professor of Music in the university of Oxford. In his later years he was in very necessitous circumstances. He died of cancer, April 30, 1855.

Bishop-Auckland, a town in the county, and 9½ miles SW. of the city, of Durham, stands on an eminence 140 feet above the confluent Wear and Gaunless. Its abbey-like palace of the bishops of Durham was founded about 1300 by Bishop Antony Bek, and rebuilt by Bishop Cosin shortly after the Restoration. The town-hall is a handsome edifice of 1863, with a spire 100 feet high. There are cotton-mills, engineering-works, and large neighbouring collieries. Pop. (1851) 4400; (1861) 6480; (1881) 10,097.

Bishop's Castle, a market-town of Shropshire, 22 miles SW. of Shrewsbury, and 9½ WNW. of Craven Arms junction by a branch line (1865). Till 1832 it returned two members to parliament. It is irregularly built on a hill slope. The bishops of Hereford had formerly a castle here. Pop. (1881) 1788.

Bishop-Stortford, a town of Hertfordshire, on the Stort, 12 miles ENE. of Hertford. It chiefly consists of two streets in the form of a cross. It carries on a trade in grain and malt. Bishop-Stortford was in Saxon times the property of the bishops of London. Pop. (1881) 6704.

Bishop's Waltham, a town of Hampshire, 9½ miles SE. of Winchester. It has been immemorially the property of the see of Winchester. There are remains of a castle, built in 1135 by Bishop Henry de Blois, and reduced to ruins during the civil wars of the 17th century. Pop. (1881) 1184.

Bishopweed, or GOUTWEED, also Goatweed, or Herb Gerard (*Egopodium Podagria*), an umbelliferous weed common in hedges and grass plots, and exceedingly difficult of extirpation on account of its creeping rhizomes. It is eaten by cattle, and the leaf stalks were formerly boiled and eaten as greens. The root-stock was long esteemed as a remedy for gout.

Bisigna'no, a town of South Italy, 10 miles N. of Cosenza by rail. It has a cathedral, a castle, and some trade in silk. Pop. 4255.

Biskra, a town of Algeria, 150 miles S. of Constantine, in an oasis watered by the Wady Biskra and by springs. Pop. 2001. Biskra was known to the Romans as *Zaba*, and under the Moors it became a large town. As many as 71,000 people died here of the plague in 1663.

Bisley, a market-town of (Gloucestershire, 3 miles E. of Stroud. Pop. of parish (1881) 5168.

Bismarck, a thriving town, since 1883 capital of Dakota, U.S., is situated in the centre of the territory on the east side of the Missouri, here crossed by the Northern Pacific Railway on an iron bridge which cost £200,000. It is named after the German Chancellor, has an opera-house, banks, park, government-house, university, and lunatic asylum. In 1882 over 32,000,000 lb. freight was despatched hence by steamers to the upper settlements of the river Missouri, which is navigable 1200 miles above Bismarck. Great sums have been spent by the government in digging out the sand bars from the river above the town. Pop. (1883) about 4500.

Bismarck Archipelago is the name officially given by Germany to New Britain, New Ireland, New Hanover, and several smaller adjoining islands in the South Pacific, since in 1884 they became a German dependency. See NEW BRITAIN, &c.

Bismarck-Schönhausen, OTTO EDUARD LEOPOLD, PRINCE VON, chancellor of the German empire, and foremost of statesmen, was born 1st April 1815, at Schönhausen in Brandenburg, of an old family, of which various members gained a reputation both as soldiers and statesmen. Bismarck received his university education at Göttingen, Berlin, and Greifswald, where he studied law and agriculture, but became more distinguished as a swordsman than as a reading man. After finishing his studies, he lived for a time on his estates. Before 1847 he was little heard of, but about that time he began to attract attention in the new Prussian parliament as an ultra-royalist, and a fierce but unsuccessful opponent of the constitutional demands resulting from the March revolution of 1848. He opposed the scheme of a German empire as proposed by the Frankfort parliament of 1849, for the reason that

the title to the imperial dignity offered to the king of Prussia was merely based on the popular will and not on the concurrent assent of the German sovereigns as well. His diplomatic career commenced in 1851, when he was appointed Prussian member of the resuscitated German diet of Frankfort. Here he began to manifest that zeal for the interests and aggrandisement of Prussia, which has since undeviatingly guided him, often regardless of the means. In the diet, he gave open expression to the long-felt discontent with the predominance of Austria, and demanded equal rights for Prussia. At Frankfort he remained till 1859, when he beheld in the approach of the Italian war an opportunity of freeing Prussia and Germany from the injurious dominance of Austria; but his views of energetic action being not yet shared by the cautious and pacific prince-regent, Bismarck was meanwhile recalled from the diet and sent as minister to St Petersburg. In the spring of 1862 King William, on the urgent advice of the Prince of Hohenzollern, transferred Bismarck as ambassador to Paris, in order to give him an insight into the politics of the Tuileries, before intrusting him with the direction of affairs at home. During his short stay at Paris Bismarck visited London, and had interviews with the leading politicians of the time, including Lord Palmerston and Mr Disraeli. In autumn, when the king's government could not obtain the consent of the lower house to the new military organisation, Bismarck was recalled, to take the portfolio of the ministry for foreign affairs, and the presidency of the cabinet. Not being able to pass the reorganisation bill and the budget, he closed the chambers (October 1862), announcing to the deputies that the king's government would be obliged to do without their sanction. Accordingly, the army reorganisation went on; and the next four sessions of parliament were closed or dissolved in the same way, without the government obtaining, or even caring to obtain, the sanction of the house. When the 'Conflict Era,' as it was called, approached a crisis, the death of the king of Denmark re-opened up the Sleswick-Holstein question, and excited a fever of national German feeling, which Bismarck was adroit enough to work so as to aggrandise Prussia by the acquisition of the Elbe Duchies, and reconcile his opponents to his high-handed policy by pointing to the success of the newly-modelled army. Throughout the events which ended in the humiliation of Austria at the battle of Königgrätz (1866), and the reorganisation of Germany under the leadership of Prussia (see GERMANY), Bismarck was the guiding spirit; and such is the magic of success, that, from being universally disliked, he now became the most popular man in Germany. It was Bismarck that negotiated the neutralisation of the Luxemburg territory (1867).

The action of France in regard to the candidature of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern for the throne of Spain gave Bismarck the opportunity of carrying into action the intensified feeling of unity amongst Germans. During the war of 1870-71, Bismarck was the spokesman of Germany; he it was that in February 1871 dictated the terms of peace to France. Having been made a count in 1866, he was now created a prince and chancellor of the German empire. Since the peace of Frankfort (10th May 1871) the sole aim of Bismarck's policy, domestic and foreign, has been to consolidate the young empire of his own creating, by rendering its institutions more beneficent, authoritative, homogeneous, and stable; and again by securing it, through alliances and political combinations, against attack from without. Thus, conceiving the unity of the nation and the authority of its government to be endangered by the Church of Rome, and

its doctrines of Papal Infallibility, he embarked on that long and bitter struggle with the Vatican, called the Kulturkampf, in the course of which the Imperial and Prussian parliaments passed a series of most stringent measures (Falk or May laws) against the Catholic hierarchy. But Bismarck had underrated the resisting power of the Romish Church, and motives of political expediency gradually led him to modify or repeal the most oppressive of the anti-papal edicts, leaving the Catholics virtual masters of the field. Otherwise, his domestic policy has been marked, among other things, by a reformed coinage, a codification of law, a nationalisation of the Prussian railways (as a preliminary step to Imperial state lines), fiscal reform in the direction of making the empire self-supporting (i.e. independent of 'municipal contributions' from its component states), repeated increase of the army and the regular voting of its estimates for seven years at a time (Military Septennate), the introduction of a protective tariff (1879), and the attempt to combat social democracy and its attendant evils by means at once repressive and remedial—among the latter being a lightening of the burden of direct taxation, the insurance of working men against suffering from accidents, indigence, and old age, with other economic experiments, which have caused Bismarck to be called the greatest state socialist of the age. With a view to improve the finances of the empire, Bismarck has repeatedly tried to establish various government monopolies, of tobacco, &c., but hitherto without success.

In 1884 Bismarck inaugurated the career of Germany as a colonising power, a new departure which brought him into sharp but temporary conflict with the England of Mr Gladstone. For the rest, his foreign policy has mainly aimed at isolating France and rendering her incapable of forming anti-German alliances. On the other hand, he gradually combined the central powers of Europe into a peace-league, aiming at counteracting the aggressiveness of Russia and France, separately or combined, on the Danube or the Rhine. The nucleus of this peace-league was formed in 1879 by the Austro-German Treaty of Alliance (published February 1888), which Italy formally joined in 1886, and which entitles Bismarck to be called the 'Peace-maker' and the 'Peace-keeper' of Europe, a character he first publicly acquired when, as 'honest broker' between Austria and Russia, he presided over the Berlin Congress in 1878. The phrase, 'man of blood and iron,' is based on 'the Iron Chancellor's' own use of the words in a speech in 1862.

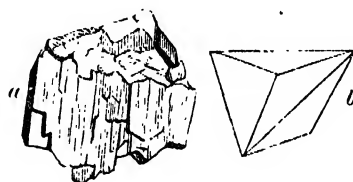
Bismarck's life has often been threatened, and twice actually attempted—once at Berlin in 1866, just before the Bohemian campaign, by Ferdinand Cohen (or Blind), a crazy youth who aimed at making himself the instrument of popular dissatisfaction with Bismarck, as the champion of absolutism and the fancied apostle of a fratricidal war; and again in 1874 at Kissingen, by a Catholic tinsmith named Kullmann, who was unquestionably a product of Ultramontane fury engendered by the May laws. In 1885 Bismarck's 70th birthday was celebrated as a great national event, when he was still a marvel of mental vigour and bodily strength—the recipient of all the honours which his sovereign could bestow. As a statesman he is imperious yet prudent, jealous, vindictive, and even unscrupulous—faults that spring from his fervid patriotism; but in private life he can be genial, witty, and entertaining. In his public speeches he wields the mother-tongue with trenchant vigour, as witness his great speech in the Reichstag in February 1888, supporting a measure for the addition of 700,000 men to the war-strength of the empire. In English, the only full and con-

nected account of his career is his *Historical Biography*, by C. Lowe (2 vols. Lond. 1886; 2d ed. 1888).

Bismark, a small Prussian town of 2000 inhabitants, 35 miles N. of Magdeburg: from it the Bismarck family derive their name.

Bismark, FRIEDRICH, COUNT OF, born in 1783 at Windheim in Westphalia, spent most of his life in the Würtemberg army, but from 1804 to 1807 was in the English service. He wrote many works on cavalry tactics and organisation, and died in 1860.

Bismuth (sym. Bi, eq. 210) is a brittle metal of a crystalline texture, and of a white colour tinged with a faint red hue. It is found native in Cornwall, France, Germany, Peru, Siberia, &c., but it is from Saxony that the largest proportion is obtained. It exists also in combination with oxygen, carbonic acid, lead, tellurium, &c., but the native impure metal is the ore usually resorted to in obtaining the metal. The process of separating it from the rock with which it is associated is extremely simple. The ore is placed in inclined iron tubes, and heat applied, when the metal melting and partly volatilising, runs down to the receivers, and when transferred to moulds, solidifies with a crystalline texture. Bismuth, although not of great technical importance, is essentially an interesting metal. When pure, it crystallises more readily than any other metal; and it exhibits the singular anomaly, that when it has been exposed to great pressure its



Bismuth:

a, example of native bismuth from Redruth, in Cornwall;
b, crystal of bismuth.

density becomes less. It may be distilled at a high temperature, and repels a magnet more than any other metal. Heated in the air, it burns with a blue flame, forming yellow fumes of oxide. Bismuth unites readily with other metals, forming Alloys (q.v.). The most remarkable of these is called fusible metal, consisting of 2 of bismuth, 1 of lead, and 1 of tin, the melting-point of which is 200·75° F. (93·75° C.), or 12° below the boiling-point of water. Spoons made of this alloy, therefore, readily melt when placed in boiling water; a favourite trick with amateur conjurers. A still more fusible metal is obtained by the addition of mercury; and this is used in forming moulds for toilet-soaps or in taking casts. Bismuth has a specific gravity of 9·83, and melts at 507° F. (264° C.).

Bismuth forms several compounds of service in the arts and in medicine; it combines with oxygen to form several oxides, of which the trioxide, Bi₂O₃, is the most important. It may be prepared by boiling together a solution of the subnitrate of bismuth, BiONO₃, and caustic soda, NaHO, when the oxide, in combination with water, is thrown down, and nitrate of soda remains in solution. It is employed in the porcelain manufacture as an agent for fixing the gilding, and for increasing the fusibility of fluxes, at the same time neutralising the colours which are often communicated by them. The ternitrate of bismuth is prepared by acting upon the metal bismuth with a mixture of one part of commercial nitric acid and

one part of water, and applying heat. The subnitrate or basic nitrate of bismuth receives the names of *Pearl White*, *Pearl Powder*, *Blanc de Fard*, and *Blanc d'Espagne*. It is used as a cosmetic, but is apt to become gray in tint, and even brown or black, when sulphuretted hydrogen, often evolved from sewers, cesspools, and drains, comes in contact with it. The subnitrate and subcarbonate of bismuth are used in medicine as very soothing, feebly astringent sedatives when applied to irritated mucous membranes, and are of great value in various forms of stomachic disease; while externally they are used as an application to scrofulous sores. The citrate of bismuth in combination with ammonia being very soluble, is more rapid and irritant in its action than the soluble salts last mentioned, but is of special use in cases of relaxation with excessive discharge. Bismuth salts sometimes contain arsenic, and must be used with caution. The 'bismuth breath' is a peculiar garlicky odour often felt in the breath of those who have taken bismuth preparations for some time. The cause of this is not clearly known, although at various times the presence of arsenic or tellurium as impurities has been blamed for it; but it would seem that it may be produced even when these are absent.

Bison (Lat. ; Old High Ger. *Wisund*), a genus of wild cattle, represented by two rapidly disappearing species in Europe and America. The European Bison (*Bos europæus* or *Bonassus*), wrongly confounded with the Aurochs (*Urus*), was common in Europe in Roman times, but has gradually been all but exterminated. It only persists in a dwindling herd 'in the imperial preserves of Lithuania, and in the wilds of the Ural and Caucasus.' The bison measures about 10 feet in length, stands about 6 feet high, and is extremely strong, especially in its fore-parts. Old bulls can knock down trees 5 or 6 inches in diameter, and can readily cope with wolf or bear. The most striking differences between a bison and an ox are the hump just behind the neck, the broader convex forehead, the longer limbs, the shaggier head and shoulders. There are also internal differences, such as the presence of an additional rib. The hump is due to the long spines of the backbone bodies in that region, and to the enormous muscles working the head. The horns are short and very far apart, a little curved inwards at the point, and fixed not at the ends of the top-most ridge of the head, but considerably in front of it. The long shaggy hair on head and breast is of a dusky brown colour, and is cast in summer. The females are not so large as the males, nor do they exhibit the same shagginess of the fore-parts. The bison is the largest quadruped now existing in Europe, although within the historic period there existed along with it an even larger ox (*B. primigenius*), the *Urus* of the ancients, abundant in the time of the early Roman emperors. The ancient *Bonassus* was apparently the still extant bison. The food of the bison consists of grass and brushwood, and the leaves and bark of young trees. Its cry is peculiar, 'resembling a groan or a grunt, more than the lowing of an ox.' It does not attain its full stature till after its sixth year, and lives for about thirty or forty years. The period of gestation appears to be the same as that of the ox. The bison has never been reduced to subjection by man, and the domestication even of individuals taken young, has been very partial. It generally shows a great aversion to the domestic ox. The bison is generally very shy, and can only be approached from the leeward, its smell being very acute. It is easily provoked, and is not approached without danger. It runs very swiftly, although it cannot long continue its flight, galloping with its head very low, so that the

hoofs are raised higher than the head. Few authorities derive any of the domestic breeds of cattle from the bison, but this theory has been recently proposed by Wilckens. It is usually supposed, however, that all have descended from *B. primigenius*.

There is no historical record that the bison ever existed in Britain; but remains of this, or of a very closely allied species, are found in pliocene freshwater beds in several parts of England, as well as on the continent of Europe. The most abundant fossil species is *B. prisceus*, but other closely related forms are also known (*B. sivalensis*, *latifrons*, *antiquus*).

The American Bison (*B. Americanus*) is interesting as the only living species of the ox family indigenous to America, except the Musk Ox (q.v.) of the subarctic regions. It is commonly called *Buffalo* by the Anglo-Americans, but must be distinguished from the true Buffalo (q.v.). The bison was within recent times very abundant in America, especially in the prairies beyond the Mississippi, and from 63° N. lat. to New Mexico. Even in the 19th century it was still found in Ohio. Now it is nearly extinct—a result of hard winters, cattle-ranching, railways, and immigration. In 1886 the Smithsonian Institute sent out emissaries to procure a few skins and skeletons. On inquiry it was found none were left save in the Yellowstone Park, and a few in Montana and in Texas,



American Bison.

the Montana herd comprising sixty head; twenty-five were secured for the institute. The Canadians preserve a herd or two. The bison used to congregate in large herds, and when migrating, travelled in solid columns of thousands and tens of thousands, which could hardly turn or arrest their progress for the pressure of the masses from behind on those in front. They were of the utmost importance to the Indians, who shot them in the chase, or drove them into great snow pounds, or frightened them over precipices, and in other ways killed them in enormous numbers.

The differences between the American and European bison are quite immaterial. The former is slightly smaller, shorter in limb, and blunter in horn. The fore-parts are still more shaggy, and retain most of their shagginess in summer. In their palmy days at least, the male and female American bison lived apart in separate herds, and the bulls, though usually pacific, were dangerous at the breeding or fighting time. The grizzly bear is said to be the only animal which could dare singly to attack a bison.

The economic importance of the bison was once great. The flesh, like coarse-grained beef, was tender and juicy, while the tongue and marrow bones and hump were specially prized. The hump formed pemmican; the fat, tallow; the skins, clothing or tent and canoe covers; the hair, cloth; and the dried droppings, fuel. But all this, and the noble animals themselves, will soon have receded from life into history. See J. A. Allen, *American*

Bisons, Living and Extinct (Cambridge, Mass. 1876).

Bissa'gos Islands, a group of small volcanic islands, about 30 in all, off the west coast of Africa, opposite the mouth of the Rio Grande. The islands are inclosed by a reef, and, with a few exceptions, are thickly wooded; many of them densely peopled. There are several fine ports, but the climate is excessively dangerous for Europeans. The principal islands belong to the Portuguese, whose governor resides at Bolama.

Bissão, an island and Portuguese station closer to the African coast than the Bissagos.

Bissen, WILHEM, a Danish sculptor, was born in Sleswick in 1798, and from 1823 to 1833 studied in Rome under Thorwaldsen, who, in his will, commissioned him to complete his unfinished works. In 1850 he was made director of the Academy of Arts, Copenhagen, where he died 10th March 1868. Among his masterpieces are the 'Valkyrie,' 'Cupid sharpening his Arrow,' and 'Moses;' his 'Orestes,' and a frieze 134 feet long, perished in the burning of the Christiansborg at Copenhagen (1884).—See the life by Plon (2d ed. Paris, 1871).

Bistort (*Polygonum bistorta*), a perennial plant, 1 to 1½ feet high, with a simple stem, ovate subcordate and wavy leaves, the radical leaves tapering into a long footstalk, and one dense terminal cylindrical spiked raceme of flesh-coloured flowers. The root is about the thickness of the little finger, blackish-brown externally, reddish within, and tortuous (whence the name bistort, and probably also the other popular name of Snake-root). The whole



Bistort (*Polygonum bistorta*):

a, b, c, flowering stem and root stock; d, a flower; e, a fruit.
(From Bentley & Trimen.)

plant is astringent, containing much tannin; the root is one of the strongest vegetable astringents, and was formerly much employed in medicine, both internally and externally, in hemorrhages and many other complaints. Bistort is a native of meadows in Europe, and is found in Britain, but is by no means common. In times of famine the root has been used after washing as a source of starchy food. See POLYGONUM.

Bistre is a pigment of a warm brown colour, prepared from soot, especially the soot of beech-wood.

Bistritz, a town of Transylvania, beautifully situated on the Distritza River, 50 miles NE. of Klausenburg. Pop. (1880) 8063.

Bisutun. See BEHISTUN.

Bit. See BRIDLE.

Bitche (Ger. *Bilsch*), a German town of Lorraine, in a wild and wooded pass of the Vosges, 49 miles NNW. of Strasburg by rail. Its citadel crowns a precipitous and isolated rock in the middle of the town. The Prussians under the Duke of Brunswick attempted to surprise it in 1793, but failed. It resisted the Germans for seven weeks in 1815, and did not surrender till three weeks after the close of the war of 1870-71. Pop. (1885) 2849.

Bithur, a town in India on the Ganges, 12 miles NW. of Cawnpore. It is particularly devoted to the worship of Brahma, has numerous pagodas, and is a favourite resort for pilgrims. The stronghold of the infamous Nana Sahib, it was captured by Havelock in 1857. Pop. (1881) 6685.

Bithynia, an ancient division of Asia Minor, separated from Europe by the Propontis (Sea of Marmora) and the Bosphorus, and bounded N. by the Euxine. It contained the famous Greek cities or colonies of Chalcedon and Heraclea; and at later periods, Nicomedia, Nicæa, and Prusa were flourishing cities of Bithynia. The Bithynians were supposed to be of Thracian origin. The country was subdued by the Lydians, and afterwards became a part of the Persian dominion under Cyrus. But during the decline of the Persian empire, it became an independent kingdom under a dynasty of native princes, who made Nicomedia their capital. The last king, Nicomedes III., made the Romans his heirs, and with a large addition from the Pontic kingdom, Bithynia became a province of the empire (74 B.C.). Under Trajan, Bithynia was governed by Pliny the Younger. The Emperor Diocletian made Nicomedia his habitual residence. In 1298 Osman the Turk broke into the country; and in 1326 Prusa, or Brusa, then the chief town of Bithynia, became the capital of the kingdom of the Osmanli.

Bitlis, a town of Turkish Armenia, 120 miles SE. of Erzerum. It is situated at an elevation of 5470 feet above the sea, in a deep ravine traversed by the river Bitlis, one of the head-streams of the Tigris. Bitlis is a straggling, irregular place, covering a large surface of ground, and surrounded by bare limestone mountains, rising 2000 feet above the valley, which is filled with orchards and gardens, and watered by numerous streams and springs. The population numbers about 15,000, of whom two-thirds are Mohammedans and one-third Armenians. The Persians defeated Solymán the Magnificent near Bitlis in 1554.

Bitonto (ancient *Butuntum*), a town of Italy, 10 miles WSW. of Bari. It is situated in a fruitful plain about 5 miles from the sea, is well built, and has a fine cathedral and a theatre. In the vicinity the Spaniards gained a great victory over the Austrians on the 25th of May 1734. Pop. (1881) 22,726.

Bittenfeld. See HERWARTH.

Bitter Cress. See CRESS.

Bitter King (*Souramea amara*), a shrub or small tree of the natural order Simarubaceæ (see QUASSIA), a native of the Moluccas and Fiji Islands, which has received its name from its intense bitterness.

Bittern (*Botaurus*), a genus of birds nearly related to the herons (Ardea). Bitterns are chiefly distinguished from herons by the long, loose plumage on the front and sides of the shorter neck, and by the greater length of their toes, the middle one being as long as the shank. The feathers can be erected so as greatly to increase the apparent size of the bird. The back of the neck is downy or almost bare.

They are almost all solitary birds, inhabiting reedy and marshy places, where they lie hid during the day, and will almost allow themselves to be trodden upon before they take wing. They feed during the night, and then often rise to a great height in the air, making the night noisy with loud resounding cries. Their food consists chiefly of frogs, and partly, also, of fish, lizards, water-insects, &c., and even of small birds and quadrupeds. The claw of the middle toe is serrated on the inner edge, probably to aid in securing slippery prey. The Common Bittern (*B. stellaris*) is distributed very widely over the Old World, being found in almost



The Common Bittern.

all, at least of the temperate, parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa, which are sufficiently marshy for its manner of life. It is now rare in Britain, owing to drainage; but was formerly more common, and in the days of falconry, was carefully protected on account of the sport which it afforded. Its flesh also was in high esteem, not being rank and fishy, like that of the herons generally. In size it is rather less than the common heron; the sharp bill is about 4 inches long, the feathers on the crown of the head are greenish black, and the plumage in general of a dull yellow colour, beautifully and irregularly marked and mottled with black and reddish brown.

The bittern makes a rude nest of sticks, reeds, &c. in its marshy haunts, and lays four or five greenish-brown eggs. It has a peculiar bellowing or booming cry, especially insistent at the breeding-season. This has earned for it such English provincial names as Mire-drum, Bull of the Bog, &c., and many of its appellations in other languages, perhaps even its name Bittern (*Bitour*, *Botur*, *Botaurus*). Some naturalists used to assert that the booming cry of the bittern was produced by the bird inserting its bill into a reed; that notion, however, has long since been exploded. The animal is sluggish, and its flight is neither swift nor long sustained. When assailed, it fights desperately with bill and claws; and it is dangerous to approach it incautiously when wounded, as it strikes with its long sharp bill, if possible, at the eye.—The Little Bittern (*B. minutus*) is common in some parts of Europe, but rare in Britain. Its whole length is only about 13 inches. The American Bittern (*B. lentiginosus*), a species almost equal in size to the common bittern, and very similar to it in habits and voice, has occasionally been shot as a straggler in Britain. It is common in many parts of North

America, migrating northward and southward, according to the season. The crown of the head is reddish brown, and the colours and markings of the plumage differ considerably from those of the common bittern. The Least Bittern (*B. exilis*) is another North American species, of very small size, which is also migratory, and somewhat social in its habits. The Australian Bittern (*B. australis*) is generally diffused throughout Australia, wherever marshes or sedgy rivers occur. In habits it closely resembles the bittern of Europe. The head and upper parts generally are purplish brown, except the wings, which are buff, conspicuously freckled with brown; the throat, breast, and belly mottled brown and buff.

Bittern. BITTER LIQUID, or SALT OIL, is an oily liquid obtained during the preparation of common Salt (q.v.). When the mother-liquor of the evaporating pans ceases to deposit crystals of common salt, there is left behind in the boilers the material called bittern. It consists principally of a strong solution of common salt, along with the chlorides of magnesium and calcium, to which the bitter taste is due; but it also contains the bromides of sodium and calcium, which are valuable sources of the element Bromine (q.v.). The bittern obtained from the salt-works at Epsom was at one time the source of the sulphate of magnesium (hence called Epsom salts), but at present this salt is obtained in other ways.

Bitter Root Mountains. See ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

Bitters are prepared from an infusion of herbs containing bitter principles. Formerly the name was limited to a favourite household remedy prepared from the Garden Angelica (see ANGELICA). The roots or seeds, or both, were placed in water, and allowed to simmer for several days, when the bitter infusion was strained off for use. Coincident with the disuse of these bitters, the term assumed a wider significance, embracing all bitter infusions, and having distinctive names attached to it, indicating the origin of the bitter, as Angostura, Quassia, Gentian, or Orange Bitters. An aerated beverage, called tonic bitters, flavoured with chiretta, calumba, quassia, or gentian, is esteemed by many. The medicinal properties of bitters are mainly those of a mild tonic and pungent aromatic stimulant, and hence they are serviceable as a stomachic in cases of weakness of the digestive organs. When taken in excess, the more powerful of them are apt to do more harm than good, the tone of the stomach being undermined by the excessive stimulation. The most widely used bitter is that of the hop, to which, in part at least, are due the tonic properties of beer. The medicines known as hop bitters must not, however, be supposed to derive any virtues they possess from the hop, their nature being rather that of a purgative.

Bittersweet, or WOODY NIGHTSHADE (*Solanum dulcamara*), a plant found in hedges and thickets in Britain, and throughout the palaearctic region, also introduced into North America. The root is perennial and creeping; the annual stems climbing and trailing, 4 to 6 feet in length; the leaves acuminate with 2 lateral pinnae, the upper halbert-shaped; the flowers purple, in drooping corymbs, much resembling those of its congener, the potato, but much smaller, followed by ovate red berries of tempting appearance, which, although by no means approaching in poisonousness to those of the true nightshade (see BELLADONNA), contain an apparently variable quantity of alkaloid, and seem sometimes to have been the cause of accidents, particularly to children; although some physiologists have administered it without bad

effects. The twigs, collected in autumn after the leaves are fallen, are still occasionally used in medicine, a decoction being given in rheumatic or



Bittersweet (*Solanum dulcamara*):
a, a flower; b, fruit.

cutaneous affections. It is in the stems rather than in the fruit that the peculiar succession of tastes, to which the plant owes its name, is best observed.

Bitter Vetch. See OROBUS.

Bitterwood, a name given to certain species of *Xylopia*, a genus of Anonaceae, trees and shrubs remarkable for the bitterness of their wood, particularly the West Indian *X. glabra*. Furniture made of this wood is safe from the attacks of insects. —The fruit of some of the species, particularly *X. sericea*, is highly aromatic and pungent like pepper. *X. sericea* is a large tree, a native of Brazil; its bast tissue is used for making cordage, which is excellent.

Bitterwood is also the name of *Picramnia excelsa* (formerly *Quassia excelsa*), a tree of the natural order Simarubaceae (q.v.), a native of Jamaica, the wood of which is now alone used in medicine, as *Quassia* (q.v.), owing to the scarcity of the *Quassia amara*, to which the name was first given. It is, botanically, very nearly allied to the true quassia, and possesses very similar properties, containing the crystallisable bitter principle called Quassite or Quassin. The wood, which is intensely bitter, is a very useful stomachic and tonic; an infusion of it is a well-known and useful fly-poison; and it appears to act as a powerful narcotic on many quadrupeds.

Bitu'men, a mineral substance, remarkable for its inflammability and its strong peculiar odour; generally, however, supposed to be of vegetable origin. The name, which was in use among the ancient Romans, is variously employed, sometimes to include a number of the substances called Mineral Resins (see RESINS), particularly the liquid mineral substances called Naphtha (q.v.) and Petroleum (q.v.) or Mineral Oil, and the solid ones called Mineral Pitch, Asphalt (q.v.), Mineral Caoutchouc, &c.; sometimes in a more restricted sense it is applied by mineralogists only to some of these, and by some mineralogists to the solid, by others to the liquid ones. All these substances are, however, closely allied to each other. Naphtha and petroleum consist essentially of carbon and hydrogen alone, 84 to 88 per cent. being carbon; the others contain also a little oxygen, which is particularly the case in asphalt, the degree of their

solidity appearing to depend upon the proportion of oxygen which they contain, which amounts in some specimens of asphalt to 10 per cent. Asphalt also contains a little nitrogen. It seldom occurs quite pure, but is usually mixed with sand or other inorganic ingredients. Not infrequently it is found impregnating sandstone, limestone, shales, clay-slates, &c. Such is the character of the so-called fetid sandstones and limestones. From certain shales, marls, and slates, mineral oil is distilled in large quantities (see SHALE and MARL). Asphalt occurs plentifully on the shores and floating on the surface of the Dead Sea. It is met with in mass in many other places, as in Trinidad, at Limmer in Hanover, at Lobsan in Alsace, at Val de Travers in Switzerland, &c. Now and again it occurs also, in small quantities, in mineral veins or lodes, where it is often mistaken for anthracite. Closely related to asphalt are the pitch-like minerals called Grahamite and Albertite, which occur in fissures in the Carboniferous system of North America. The latter mineral has likewise been met with in Scotland. Some authorities also include the well-known Boghead Coal (q.v.) under the general head of Bitumen.

One of the most interesting of the bituminous minerals is that called Mineral Caoutchouc or Elastic Bitumen, and for which the new name of Elaterite has been devised, as if to support the dignity of its exaltation to the rank of a distinct mineral species. It is a very rare mineral, only three localities being known for it in the world — the Odin lead-mine in Derbyshire; a coal-mine at Montrelais, near Angers, in France; and a coal-mine near South Bury, in Massachusetts. It is elastic and flexible like caoutchouc, and may be used, like it, for effacing pencil-marks. It is easily cut with a knife. Its colour is blackish, reddish, or yellowish-brown; and its specific gravity is sometimes a little less, and sometimes a little more than that of water. It has a strong bituminous odour, and burns with a sooty flame, its composition being $C_{12}H_{10}$. Several substances occur in nature with a similar composition. Of these the best known is the mineral called Ozokerite. It is brownish, yellowish, or greenish in colour, streaked or spotted, and occurs in rudely fibrous masses, as at Stanik and Boryslaw in Galicia. It dissolves with difficulty in alcohol and ether. Various other natural products have been described as Ozokerite, to which they closely approach in chemical composition, and from which they seem to differ chiefly in their ready solubility in ether.

Bitzins, ALBERT, better known under the *nom de plume* of Jeremias Gotthelf, a popular Swiss author, bepraised by Ruskin, was born at Murten, in the canton of Freiburg, 4th October 1797. He studied theology at Bern, and became in 1832 pastor of Lützelflüh, in Emmenthal, which office he retained till his death, 22d October 1854. A monument was reared to him in 1887. Bitzins has assured himself lasting popularity by his masterly delineations of Swiss popular life. His stories are characterised by rare simplicity and truth, lightened by delicate humour and graceful fancy. The best and most popular of his stories are *Kathi, die Grossmutter* (1847); *Uli, der Knecht* (1841), and its continuation, *Uli, der Pächter* (1849); and *Erzählungen und Bilder aus dem Volksleben der Schweiz* (5 vols. 1852-55). In his later years he wrote several pamphlets against the German democrats, without, however, violating those popular sympathies and liberal convictions which pervade his writings, and which at an earlier period led him vehemently to oppose the Bernese aristocracy. Complete editions of his works appeared at Berlin in 12 vols. (1856-57) and in 24 vols. (1861). A selection was edited by his son in 3 vols. (Berlin,

1878).—See Brockhaus, *Jeremias Gotthelf, der Volkschriftsteller* (1876).

Bivalves form a class of shelled animals or molluscs in which the shell consists of two limy plates or valves, lying one on each side of the body. Mussel, oyster, cockle, and clam are very familiar examples. Compared with the other two great classes of Molluscs—the snails (Gastropods) and the cuttle-fish (Cephalopods)—the bivalves are markedly quiet and passive. The great majority live a sessile life except during their youngest stages. With this inactivity certain characters are directly associated, of which the most marked are: (1) the undeveloped structure of the head; (2) the absence of head eyes; (3) the absence of biting or prehensile organs; (4) the marked development of large plate-like gills producing nutritive as well as respiratory currents; and (5) the presence of thick limy shells which exhibit most manifold variations within comparatively narrow limits.

History and Nomenclature.—Aristotle included bivalves among other shelled forms of very diverse structure in his great group of hard-skinned animals or Ostracodermata. Linnaeus was content to refer them to an equally heterogeneous group of worms. Cuvier defined them more exactly as a subdivision of molluscs, and gave them the title of headless (Acephala), which they still frequently receive. To Owen is due the designation Lamellibranchiata, which refers to the plate-like character of their gills, and it is by this title that they are now generally known. The term Lipocephala is a yet more modern one referring to the undeveloped nature of the head, and the absence of the rasping tongue which is found in other molluscs (Glossophora). Bivalve shells are exhibited by other animals besides Lamellibranchs, and especially by the small class of lamp-shells or Brachiopods, but in the latter the structure of the animal is not in any sense that of a mollusc, and the position of the valves is ventral and dorsal, instead of lateral. The Brachiopods are therefore excluded from this article, in which the title bivalve is regarded as equivalent to Lamellibranch.

Structure. (a) The body of the bivalve can usually be split along the middle line into similar halves; it is bilaterally symmetrical. It is usually compressed from side to side, the breadth or thickness being small in proportion to the other dimensions. (b) The ventral surface of the animal—i.e. where the valves gape, is usually produced into a very characteristic ploughshare-shaped

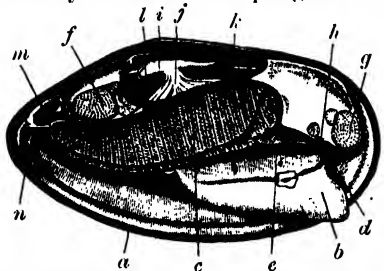


Fig. 1.—Longitudinal Section through a Fresh-water Mussel (after Marshall & Hurst, *Practical Zoology*):

a, edge of mantle; b, foot, with position of ganglion indicated; c, gills; d, mouth; e, tentacles or palps; f, posterior adductor muscle; g, anterior adductor; h, head-ganglion; i, ventricle of heart; j, auricle of heart; k, rectum; l, kidney; m, exhalant aperture; n, inhalant aperture.

muscular organ called the *foot*, which is used in boring and in locomotion, but tends to degenerate in the forms which are most inactive. From a gland frequently present in the posterior part of the foot, a viscid secretion is exuded in the form of threads (byssus) by which the attachment of

the bivalve is effected. (c) From the middle line of the back—i.e. from the hinge of the shell—a flap of skin falls down each side of the body, covering the animal entirely with a double cloak, and closely adhering to the valves of the shell. These two *mantle-shirts* meet one another by their free margins on the ventral side when the shell is shut, but are of course separated when the foot is protruded through the gaping aperture. They are in the closest connection with the shell, which they in fact produce. The shell is an organic growth, and consists of three layers: (a) soft and cuticular, (b) prismatic, and (c) mother-of-pearl. The growth takes place on the internal surface, and at the margin of the mantle. The concentric lines and the modifications of colour remain as indices of the rhythm of growth. In many forms the mantle is drawn out into a pair of lips forming a double tube or siphon. Through this the water, circulated by the gills, passes in and out. Many forms lie buried in the mud with the open ends of the siphons protruded. In Peeten, Lima, and others, the margin of the mantle bears numerous tentacle-like processes. (d) Between each mantle-skirt and the side of the body proper, lie the large and prominent *gills*, which are covered with ciliated cells, causing currents of water which not only purify the blood spread out upon the plates, but whip minute food-particles to the inconspicuous mouth. They are indeed more nutritive than respiratory. (e) There is seldom any marked difference between the head and tail end of the animal; in the middle line in front lies the *mouth*, and the food-canal ends in a similar position behind. The canal itself lies mainly in the plane dividing the body into halves, but exhibits more or less looping in the region of the foot. A large gland (the so-called liver) is situated far forward near the stomach expansion. Still further forward, in the region of the pharynx, there often is a blind pocket containing a curious clear cylinder (the crystalline style), which some regard as the equivalent of the rasper found in other molluscs. Flat tentacles occur on each side of the mouth and look like small gills. They are richly supplied with blood-vessels and nerves. (f) The shell is opened by the action of a passive tendinous band (*ligament*) which lies at the dorsal meeting-place of the two valves, and acts like

a piece of india-rubber squeezed into the hinge-line of a closed door: the shell is shut by one or two great muscles (*adductors*) which run across from valve to valve. There are also muscles, more or less powerful according to habit, for working the foot. The marks made by the insertion of the muscles on the shell are readily seen inside the empty valves. (g) The *nervous system* consists of three chief pairs of ganglia, the anterior cerebral pair being united by connectives to a pair in the foot (*pedal*), and to a posterior pair called

parieto-splanchnic or *visceral*. From these three centres numerous nerves are given off to the body generally. An auditory sac (*otocyst*) is found in close association with the pedal ganglia, and a

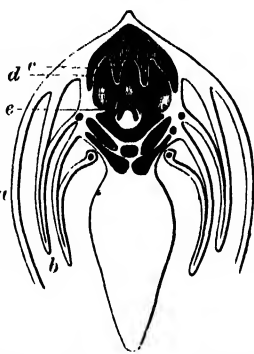


Fig. 2.—Vortical Section through a Fresh-water Mussel:

a, mantle; b, filaments of gills; c, ventricle of heart; d, auricle of heart; e, gut grown round by ventricle.

patch of smelling or water-testing cells (*osphradium*) occurs at the base of the gills. Though eyes are never present on the reduced head, they sometimes occur in extraordinary abundance (to the number of many hundreds) along the margin of the mantle (e.g. *Pecten*, *Arca*). (h) The heart lies just below the hinge, and consists of a contractile median ventricle driving the blood to the body, and of two auricles symmetrically placed on each side, receiving purified blood from the gills. The ventricle usually grows round the gut, which thus appears to run right through the heart. The whole organ is inclosed in a special portion of the body-cavity known as the pericardium, and this is in indirect communication with the exterior by means of two (i) *kidney-tubes* (nephridia) which lie below the heart, and open externally on the sides of the body. (j) A pair of *reproductive organs* lie in the foot, and their ducts open laterally near the apertures of the kidneys, with which they are occasionally united. The sexes are generally separate, but may be united, and both those forms may occur within one genus (e.g. oyster).

Habit.—The majority of bivalves are marine forms, but not a few occur in fresh water. Between the rapidly swimming *Lima* and *Pecten*, and the entirely quiescent oyster, intermediate degrees of activity and passivity occur, but most decidedly incline towards the extreme illustrated by the oyster. In *Lima* and *Pecten* the valves are opened and shut with great rapidity, and swimming thus effected; in the razor-shell (*Solen*) water is forcibly squirted outwards from within the mantle-cavity, and the animal moves backwards; in the cockle (*Cardium*) the foot is vigorous enough to enable the mollusc to take small jumps; in many cases (*Teredo*, *Pholas*, *Lithodomus*, *Xylophaga*)

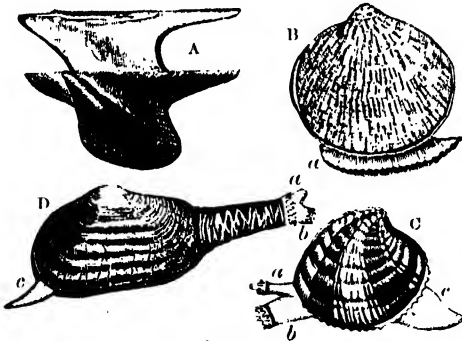


Fig. 3.—Several Forms of Bivalves:

A, *Avicula*; B, *Pectunculus*, with extended foot (a); C, *Venus*, with respiratory siphons (a, b) and extended foot (c); D, *Mya truncata*, showing respiratory siphons (a, b) and foot (c).

a permanent hole is bored in wood or stone; in the majority the foot is used for a slow creeping progression along the sand. From the nature of the nutrition, by the inwashing currents produced by the gills, it is evident that the food must consist of minute organisms. Algae, Diatoms, Infusorians, minute Crustacea, and the like form the principal diet.

Life-history.—In almost all cases the eggs are fertilised within the mantle-cavity. There they remain for some time sheltered in the gills, or even within special brood-chambers (*Cyclas*). In rare cases (*Galeomma*, *Kellia*) the larvae issue as such from the genital apertures, but in the vast majority the eggs are developed as above noted within the mantle-cavity. The larvae very generally enjoy a period of free-swimming life before

settling down, but in some cases even this seems to be suppressed. In the Fresh-water Mussel (q.v.) (*Anodonta*) the larvae are not liberated by the mother except in the presence of certain fishes such as sticklebacks. On the gills of the latter the larvae become temporarily parasitic, and undergo very considerable metamorphosis.

Classification.—The Lamellibranchiata are usually classified according to the development of the closing muscles of the shell.

ORDER I.—*Isomya*. Anterior and posterior adductors approximately equal:

Sub-order I.—*Integripallia*, where the line attaching the lower margin of the mantle to the valve is a continuous curve and not inflected—e.g. *Arca*, *Trigonia*, *Unio*, *Anodon*, *Lucina*, *Astarte*, *Tridacna*, *Chama*, *Cardium*, *Cyclas*, *Cyprina*.

Sub-order II.—*Sinupallia*, where the line attaching the lower margin of the mantle to the valve is not a continuous curve, but inflected to form a sinus—e.g. *Tapes*, *Venus*, *Tellina*, *Mactra*, *Mya*, *Saxicava*, *Aspergillum*, *Pholas*, *Teredo*.

ORDER II.—*Heteromya*. Anterior adductor decidedly smaller than posterior—e.g. *Mytilus*, *Modiola*, *Lithodomus*, *Mulleria*.

ORDER III.—*Monomya*. No anterior adductor, and no siphons—e.g. *Cardiola*, *Avicula*, *Ostrea*, *Lima*, *Pecten*.

Distribution.—Bivalves are found all over the world, though only a few species like *Mytilus edulis* and *Saxicava arctica* can be described as cosmopolitan. The marine forms occur from the shore level down to great depths, and the same species is not unfrequently found at the most diverse depths. Historically, the bivalves appear in the Cambrian strata, though only to a slight extent. In the Lower Silurian they are still far from numerous, but Barrande enumerates 1100 species from the Upper Silurian of Bohemia alone. The *Heteromya* at first preponderate. From the Upper Silurian onwards, bivalves are exceedingly abundant, and the satisfactory preservation of their shells makes them of great value as index fossils in determining the age of given strata. Among Lamellibranchs occur some of the best instances of types persisting throughout long periods.

Pedigree.—The bivalves must be regarded as a group which has developed along a line entirely different from that of the other molluscs. From an ideal ancestral mollusc like that sketched by Ray Lankester, two lines of progress have been followed. On the one hand, the shell has remained single, the head has not been reduced, the buccal apparatus has developed, and the life has been relatively active. This path has been followed by Gasteropods, Pteropods, and Cephalopods. On the other hand, along the other line, the mantle has become bilobed, the shell double, the gills large, plate-like, and nutritive, the head much reduced, and the life relatively passive. This path has been followed by the Lamellibranchs.

Economic Importance.—Many bivalves (oyster, mussel, cockle, clam, &c.) are used for food. Others are largely utilised as bait in sea-fishing. Pearls and mother-of-pearl are obtained from *Meleagrina* and other forms. The valves of *Placuna* are sometimes used for window-panes. *Venus mercenaria* and other types have been used by savage tribes for coinage. Larger shells are occasionally calcined for lime. The boring bivalves have an important destructive influence on piers and ship timber, but the custom of ensheathing in metal now renders their attack less effectual. See CONCHOLOGY, MOLLUSCS, OYSTER, &c., and Huxley's *Anatomy of Invertebrated Animals* (Lond. 1877).

Bivouac (through Fr. from Ger. *beiwache*: *bei*, 'near,' and *wachen*, 'to watch') is the encampment of soldiers in the open air, without tents, where

every one remains dressed in his place, and with his weapons by him. It has always been necessary for opposing armies thus to pass the night before a battle; but the French revolutionary armies first introduced the practice of dispensing with tents throughout the campaign, thus greatly lessening their baggage-trains and increasing the celerity of their movements. No European army now carries tents for its combatant troops. At a distance from the enemy they are cantoned (see BILLETING) in the villages on the line of march. When an engagement is imminent they bivouac. Each battalion, or other unit, has its allotted space, in the centre of which the arms are piled in quarter column. Round the piles of arms each company has its sleeping-ground marked out. A bivouac would, if possible, be placed under the shelter of trees, or so as to be protected from wind by hedges. Improvised screens of straw, heather, &c. would be used, and large fires lighted. But the health of troops always suffers if bivouacked constantly in bad weather. In India and other hot countries it is found necessary to carry tents still, and the bivouac is never resorted to if it can be avoided.

Bixa. See ANNATTO.

Bizerta, or BENZERTA, a fortified seaport of Tunis, at the head of a bay of the Mediterranean, and at the mouth of a lagoon, united to the bay by a narrow channel. It is the most northerly town in Africa, being 38 miles NW. of Tunis. Its port, formerly one of the best in the Mediterranean, has been suffered to fill up, and the town is falling into decay. The tunny, mullet, and coral fisheries are very productive. Pop. about 10,000. The ancient *Hippo Diarrhytus* or *Zaritus*, Bizerta was founded by the Tyrians, was fortified by Agathocles in 307 B.C., and under the Romans was a free city. Since 1881 it has been held by the French.

Bizet, GEORGES, a French composer, was born 25th October 1838 at Paris, and studied at the Conservatoire under Halévy, and in Italy. His earlier operas, *Les Pêcheurs de Perles* (1863), *La Jolie Fille de Perth* (1867), showed Wagnerian sympathies and had little success; but his music to Daudet's *L'Arlésienne* was popular, and his comic opera *Carmen* (1875) was not more remarkable for its originality and dramatic effectiveness than for its success. He had just begun to taste the sweets of popularity when on 3d June 1875 he died of heart-disease.

Bizura. See MUSK DUCK.

Bjela, a town in the Russian-Polish government of Siedlce, on the Krzna River, has a palace of the Radziwill princes, and a trade in corn. Pop. (1880) 19,500.

Björnson, BJÖRNSTJERNE, a celebrated Norwegian writer, was born 8th December 1832, at Kvikne, in Österdalen, where his father was pastor. After studying at the university of Christiania from 1852, and then for a year at Copenhagen, he returned to Norway in 1857, and published his beautiful tale *Synnöve Solbakken*, which at once attracted universal attention, and is still regarded as having marked an epoch in the recent literature of Norway. Immediately afterwards he was appointed manager of the Bergen Theatre by its proprietor Ole Bull, and in 1858 he published the tale *Arne* and the drama *Halte-Hulda*. In 1859 he left Bergen to be editor of the newspaper *Aftenbladet* at Christiania, but his stay there was cut short by the violent controversies in which he soon became involved; and in consequence he withdrew the next year to Copenhagen, where he collected a number of his shorter tales, and

brought them out, together with the drama *Mellem Slagene*, under the title of *Smaastykker*. From 1860 to 1862 he lived in Rome, where he wrote several lyrical poems, the drama *Kong Sverre* (1861), and the trilogy *Sigurd Stenbe* (1862); and on his return to Norway in 1863 the Storting awarded him a yearly pension. In the next two years he produced two plays, *Marie Stuart in Skottland* and *De Nygifte*, for the theatre at Christiania, of which he was director from 1865 to 1867, at the same time editing the *Norsk Folkeblad*; but, resigning these appointments in 1867, he again lived abroad from 1872 to 1876, when he returned to Norway, and settled for some years in the country near Lillehammer. Björnson held the highest place in popular favour as a political orator, and took an active part in the movement which led to the victory of parliamentary government in Norway. Though he settled in Paris in 1883, he still made his influence felt in Norwegian politics as a leader of the 'Peasants' Party.' Björnson has also written the tales *En Glad Gut* (1860), *Jernbanen og Kirkegården* (1866), *Fiskerjenten* (1868), *Brudeskatten* (1872), *Magnhild* (1877), *Kaptein Munsana* (1879), and *Det flager i Byen og paa Havnen* (1884); the plays *Sigurd Jorsalfar* (1872), *En Faldit og Iedaktøren* (1875), *Kongen* (1877), *Leonarda* and *Det nye System* (1879), *En Hanske* and *Over Øerne* (1882); a volume of *Digte og Sange* (new ed. 1880); and numerous pamphlets on political and religious questions of the day. A number of his tales have been translated into English and German, and several of his plays have secured a footing on the German stage. Both as a poet and a novelist Björnson stands in the first rank among living Scandinavian writers. Some of his songs are among the chief favourites of his countrymen; and his tales, which have been compared to the old sagas for their terse and vigorous diction, are strikingly vivid pictures of Norwegian peasant-life. See Brandes, *Björnson og Ibsen* (Copenhagen, 1882).

Björnstjerna, MAGNUS, COUNT, a Swedish Liberal statesman, born in 1779, in 1809 was sent on a secret embassy to Napoleon, in 1813 fought at Leipzig, and subsequently in Holstein and in Norway, where in 1814 he concluded the treaty that united that country with Sweden. In 1826 he received the title of count; and from 1828 till 1846 was ambassador to Great Britain. He died at Stockholm, 6th October 1847. Besides some political writings, he published a work on the Hindu Theogony (1843).

Black may be considered as the negation of colour, resulting from the absorption of the rays of light by certain substances. Painters produce it approximately by an unequal combination of red, blue, and yellow (see COLOUR; also DYEING). In mediæval art, black was symbolical of evil, error, and woe; and is still a usual funereal colour (see MOURNING). For its use in Heraldry, see HERALDRY, SABLE.

BLACK PIGMENTS, used in painting, are derived principally from animal and vegetable substances. The most important are: *Lamp-black*.—The finer kinds are prepared from the soot of burnt resin or resinous woods. The coarser varieties are made from the soot of an oil obtained from gas-tar and other cheap bodies. This black is much used by painters, and it is also employed for making printing ink.—*Blue-black* consists of levigated charcoal from vine twigs. It is also a very serviceable black for artistic work.—*Bone-black* and *Ivory-black*, as their names imply, are simply animal charcoal, and consequently possess the power of absorbing colour from animal and vegetable solutions. Therefore they cannot be safely mixed with other organic

colours in water-colour painting. The above pigments are, of course, prepared either with oil or gum, according as they are to be used in oil or water-colour work.—*Indian Ink* (q.v.) is a black prepared from a vegetable carbon, and so far resembles lamp-black, but it is not very suitable for mixing with other colours. For black dyes, see DYEING.

Black, ADAM, publisher, was born in Edinburgh, 20th February 1784, and, trained as a bookseller there and for two years in London, he with a nephew established the Edinburgh business of Adam and Charles Black. The two enterprises which, above all else, gave position, fortune, and success to the firm, were the purchase of the copyright of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* in 1827 after Constable's failure; and that of Scott's novels from Cadell's representatives in 1851 for £27,000. A seventh and eighth edition of the *Britannica* was issued during Black's business connection with the firm, while Scott's novels had a large and steady sale. Black was long a prominent and useful citizen of Edinburgh; was twice Lord Provost; and was Liberal M.P. for Edinburgh (1856-65). He died 24th January 1874. A statue was erected in Edinburgh in recognition of his services in 1877. See *Memoirs* by Nicolson (1885).

Black, JOHN, journalist, was born near Duns, Berwickshire, in 1783. Left an orphan ere he had reached his twelfth year, Black, after filling posts in the offices of a Duns writer and an Edinburgh accountant, in 1810 went up to London, and was engaged as a parliamentary reporter for the *Morning Chronicle*, of which from 1817 he assumed the editorship. Under him the paper was celebrated for its independence and fearless advocacy of progress—a fearlessness which led to his duel with Roebuck in 1835. Charles Dickens was one of his reporters and contributors, and James Mill helped him with almost daily advice. John Stuart Mill has described him as 'the first journalist who carried criticism and the spirit of reform into the details of English institutions.' He retired from the editorship in 1843; an annuity of £150 a year was bought for him by his friends; and, until his death on 15th June 1855, he lived in a pleasant cottage at Snodland, near Maidstone. Black was author of a *Life of Tasso* (1810), and the translator of works from the German, French, and Italian.

Black, JOSEPH, an eminent chemist, was born in 1728, at Bordenaux, where his father was engaged in the wine-trade. Both his parents were of Scotch descent, but natives of Belfast, to which city their son was sent for his education in 1740. In 1746 he entered the university of Glasgow, and studied chemistry under Dr Cullen. In 1751 he went to Edinburgh to complete his medical course, and in 1754 took his degree. In his famous graduation thesis (1756) he showed that the causticity of lime and the alkalies is due to the absence of the carbonic acid present in limestone and in what are now called the carbonates of the alkalies. To this he gave the name 'fixed air,' which gave way before that of 'carbonic acid,' first used by Lavoisier in 1784. The book was a distinct contribution to chemical science, and by Brougham and Robison is placed second only to Newton's *Optics* as a model for scientific investigation. Black pointed out the path afterwards followed by Cavendish, Priestley, and Lavoisier. On the removal of Cullen in 1756 to Edinburgh, Black succeeded him as professor of Anatomy and Chemistry in Glasgow, but soon after exchanged duties with the professor of the Institutes of Medicine, and lectured on the subject for ten years, practising the while as a busy physician, yet finding time for original investigation.

Between 1756 and 1761 he evolved that theory of 'latent heat' on which his scientific fame chiefly rests, and which formed the immediate preliminary to the next great stride in discovery by his pupil and assistant, James Watt. In 1766 he succeeded Cullen in the chair of Medicine and Chemistry in Edinburgh, and henceforward he devoted himself chiefly to the elaboration of his lectures, in which he aimed at the utmost degree of perspicuity, and with perfect success. His class became one of the most popular in the university; it occasioned, however, some disappointment that one so capable of enlarging its territory made no further contributions to chemistry. Though of an extremely delicate constitution, he prolonged his life, by care and temperance, to the age of seventy-one. He died on December 6, 1799. His lectures were published in 1803 (2 vols. Edin.), edited by Professor Robison.

Black, WILLIAM, novelist, was born in 1841 in Glasgow, where he received his education, and studied art at a government school with the view of becoming a landscape-painter. Instead, however, he adopted journalism, having written for the *Glasgow Weekly Citizen* prior to his removal to London in 1864. During the Prusso-Austrian war of 1866 he was employed as special war correspondent on the staff of the *Morning Star*; and in a novel, *Love or Marriage* (1868), he utilised some of his experiences. *In Silk Attire* (1869) and *Kilmeny* (1870) proved more successful than the previous work; but it was *A Daughter of Heth* (1871) that established his reputation with the novel-reading public. *The Strange Adventures of a Phanton* (1872) is founded on an actual driving excursion between London and Edinburgh. *A Princess of Thule* (1873) is the best perhaps of all his many romances, with its vivid transcripts of Hebridean scenery, its quaint Gaelic-English, above all, its exquisite heroine. Among its successors are: *Three Feathers* (1875); *Madcap Violet* (1876); *Green Pastures and Piccadilly* (1877); *Macleod of Dare* (1878); *White Wings* (1880); *Sunrise, a Story of these Times* (1880); *Shandon Bells* (1882); *Yolande* (1883); *Judith Shakespeare* (1884), with Shakespeare himself for one of the characters; *White Feather* (1886); *Sabina Zembra* (1887); and *In Far Lochaber and The Strange Adventures of a House Boat* (1888). Assistant-editor for four or five years of the *Daily News*, Mr Black in 1874 abandoned journalism. In 1876 he visited America.

Black Acts are a collection of the acts of the Scottish parliament from 1424 to 1594, originally undertaken in 1566 on the suggestion of Bishop Lesley. They were so called because they were printed in Black-letter (q.v.). The name was also given to an Act of George I., passed in 1723, containing provisions like those of the Irish Whiteboy Acts, as regards poachers who disguised their faces in black for the purpose of committing outrages. The matter is alluded to in White's *Natural History of Selborne*.

Black Art. See MAGIC.

Black Assize, the popular name commemorative of an extraordinary and fatal pestilence which broke out at Oxford at the close of the assizes, July 6, 1577. It was popularly interpreted as a divine judgment on the cruelty of a sentence passed by the court. From the 6th of July to the 12th of August, 300 persons in Oxford and the neighbourhood are said to have died of this terrible malady, among whom were the chief officials who sat on the assize, most of the jury, and many members of the university. Women, poor people, physicians, visitors, and children are said to have escaped the infection. A similar event is recorded as having taken place at Cambridge at the Lent Assizes in 1521.

Black-band Ironstone is an ore of iron found very extensively in Scotland and elsewhere. It occurs in the Carboniferous system in regular bands or layers, and is generally associated with coal and limestone. It is mainly a carbonate of iron with much coaly matter. The black-band ironstone is easily reduced. It does not, however, yield a first-class iron when smelted by itself, and is therefore generally mixed with a small quantity of hematite (red iron ore), which communicates strength and hardness to the iron obtained.

Black Beer. See SPRUCE BEER.

Black Beetle, at once a popular and a scientific term—popular when applied widely to all sorts of forms, from Blaps (q.v.) to the Cockroach (q.v.), which is not a beetle at all; scientific when restricted to a great family of beetles known as Melanosomata in the Heteromerous sub-order of Coleoptera. The possible extent of the term will be evident when it is noted that even when restricted to these Melanosomata, it may be applied to 600 genera and about 4500 species. These Melanosomata (Gr., 'black-bodied') have short strong upper jaws, the eyes to the sides, the feelers usually with 11 joints, the uppermost joints of the legs almost always separate (the anterior pair spherical and sunk in sockets, the posterior lying transversely), the wing-covers often fused, and in these cases without wings, the abdomen with five free joints. They love dark damp places, though a few less dismally coloured, for the prevalent black is sometimes relieved, get out into the open. They mostly have a bad smell. The larvae are very long and narrow. The familiar Blaps, the Bolitophagus of fungus, the very abundant Hypophleus, living under the bark of old trees, the Tenebrio, with its larva the *Meal-worm*, so much used in feeding birds, are some of the commonest genera of Melanosomata or black beetles.

Blackberry. See BRAMBLE.

Blackbird, or MERLE (*Turdus merula* or *Merula vulgaris*), a well-known species of Thrush (q.v.), common in all parts of Britain, and throughout Europe generally; found also in the north of Africa, and in the Azores. In Asia, it gives place to a closely allied species, *Turdus pacificus*. In size, the blackbird is intermediate between the



Blackbird.

missel-thrush and the song-thrush or mavis. The plumage of the adult male is wholly of a deep black colour, the bill and orbits of the eyes yellow; the female and the young are dark brown above, paler on the throat, and rusty brown on the breast, with brown bill, yellow, however, in spring-time. Very old blackbirds have the feathers on the back of the neck tipped with fine hairs. White, cream-coloured, and other variations occasionally occur. The blackbird frequents hedges, thickets, and woods; is shy, restless, and vigilant, keeping much under cover of

evergreens or shrubs; and when disturbed, takes wing with a vociferous clattering of alarm, seeking refuge in some neighbouring thicket. Its food consists of worms, snails, insects, berries, seeds, &c. Its fondness for fruit makes it often annoying to the gardener; but probably it would in general be better to protect cherries and pears by nets than to shoot the bird, which is of great use as a destroyer of insect larvae. Like some of the other thrushes, it also devours (especially in winter) great numbers of small snails, dexterously breaking the shell against a stone. When searching for food, it jumps about with characteristic alacrity; when disturbed, it flies off with a somewhat magpie-like chuckle; its familiar flight along the hedges is 'wavering and fitful,' and in the breeding-season the female especially moves by a succession of starts. It is not usually a gregarious bird, although great flocks sometimes appear upon the British coasts in winter, on their passage from more northerly to more southerly countries. Otherwise, the blackbird is not in Britain a bird of passage. It pairs very early in spring; the male and female are indeed very often seen together during winter; it builds its nest early, and generally has two broods in the year. The nest is usually placed in some thick bush; it is of ruder workmanship than that of the song-thrush, which, however, it resembles, and is usually formed of strong stems of grass, with a finer lining of dry grass inside, and a massive plastering of clay outside. The inside and outside of the nest are kept very clean, and a male has been seen to remove the dropping of a young bird from the vicinity of the nest. The male aids in the work of feeding the young. The eggs are four or five in number, of a pale blue colour, generally speckled with brown. A female blackbird and a male thrush have been known to pair. The voice of the blackbird is very powerful, and its song more mellow than that of the thrush, but with 'much less variety, compass, or execution.' The blackbird is often kept as a cage-bird, and would be much more frequently so, but for the too great loudness of its song; it is readily trained, exhibits considerable powers of imitation, and has even been taught to articulate.—The Ring Ouzel (q.v.), sometimes called the Ring Blackbird, is a nearly related species (*T. torquatus*).—The Crow, the Redwing, and other blackbirds of America are entirely different.—The Savanna Blackbird of the West Indies is also of a different family. See CROTOPHAGA.

Black Book, an interesting collection of English Admiralty Law in the 14th century, first edited by Sir Travers Twiss (4 vols. 1871-76). It indicates the pretensions of the civil law as regards trial without jury, torture, &c., which afterwards led to legislation in vindication of the position of the Common Law courts.—BLACK BOOK is also a usual term for the reports presented to parliament in 1536, on which the legislation for the dissolution of the monasteries and the secularising of their revenues proceeded. These reports probably never existed as a book (fabled to have been burnt in Queen Mary's reign); such of them as remain are to a large extent extravagant and malicious accusations without any evidence (see *Letters and Papers of the Reign of Henry VIII.*, edited by James Gairdner, vol. x. 1888; F. A. Gasquet, *Henry VIII. and the English Monasteries* (vol. i. 1888)).—A list of habitual criminals, first published in 1877, has been also so called.

Black-bully, BALLY-TREE WOOD, or SAPODILLA PLUM (*Sapota Müllerii* or *Achras Sapota*), a South American tree, belonging to the Sapotaceae. Its wood, which is greenish and very durable, is used for shipbuilding. The bark is febrifugal,

whilst the seeds are diuretic and aperient. The inspissated milky juice is largely imported from Berberis as gutta-percha.

Blackburn, a town of Lancashire, 21 miles NNW. of Manchester, and 9 E. of Preston. It stands on a stream from which it appears to derive its name, a branch of the Ribble. The surrounding district, formerly known as *Blackburnshire*, or *Blagbournshire*, was long very wild and dreary, but now is densely populous. Coal was formerly plentiful, and lime still abounds in it. Blackburn had acquired some importance as a market-town in the 16th century. Its manufacturing prosperity can be traced back at least to the middle of the 17th century, when it was noted for the production of a kind of linsey-woolsey known by the name of *Blackburn Checks*, afterwards superseded by the *Blackburn Grays*, so called from their being printed unbleached. In the course of the 18th century the cotton manufacture became the chief industry of the town, which is now the largest and most important cotton manufacturing town in the world, the number of cotton-factories being very great, and many of them employing from 1000 to 2000 operatives. Great improvements in machinery for the cotton manufacture have been made in Blackburn, among which the first place in importance as well as in date must be assigned to the invention of the spinning jenny by James Hargreaves (q.v.), a native of the town, in 1767. His invention, however, was regarded with so much dislike, that he was compelled to remove from the town, and it was not till the beginning of the 19th century that it came into general use. The growing importance of Blackburn is seen best in the increase of its population from 36,629 in 1831 to 63,126 in 1861, and 104,014 in 1881, of whom 51,008 were returned as 'industrial.' The chief public buildings are the town-hall (1856), an Italian edifice built at a cost of £30,000, the Gothic exchange (1863), the infirmary (1862), and St Mary's Church, of very ancient foundation, but almost entirely rebuilt (1826-57). There is a corporation park of 50 acres, part of which is 700 feet above sea-level, and commands a wide view; a new Queen's Park of 35 acres was opened on Jubilee day, 1887. The grammar-school was established by Queen Elizabeth in 1567; in 1888 the Prince of Wales laid the foundation-stone of the technical school. Blackburn has returned two members since 1832; and it received its municipal charter in 1851. See Abram's *History of Blackburn* (1878).

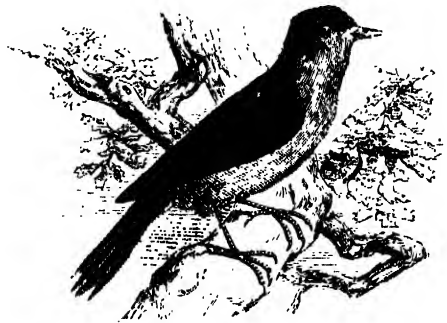
Blackburne, FRANCIS, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, was born at Great Footstown, County Meath, 11th November 1782, and in 1798 entered Trinity College, Dublin. Called to the English bar in 1805, to the Irish in 1822, he was appointed Attorney-general for Ireland in 1830 and again in 1841, Master of the Rolls in 1842, Chief-justice of the Queen's Bench in 1846, and Lord Chancellor of Ireland in 1852 and 1866. He thus served under both Whig and Tory governments, and was brought into close connection with the leading politicians on either side; whilst at different times he had the duties imposed on him of prosecuting O'Connell, and judging Smith O'Brien. In 1867 he declined an offer of a baronetcy, and for some years he was Vice-chancellor of Dublin University. He died 17th September 1867. See the Life by his son (1874).

Black Canons. See AUGUSTINIANS.

Black Cap, the cap worn by English judges as a part of full dress, and so put on by them when a prisoner is condemned to death.

Blackcap, BLACKCAP WARBLER, or BLACKCAP FAUVETTE (*Sylvia atricapilla*), a bird of the great family of the Sylviadae, or Warblers. It is regarded as the sweetest song-bird in Britain, or

indeed in Europe, except the nightingale, to which it is said to be even superior in 'its shake or trilling note.' Very often, however, the strain is desultory, and of short continuance; but it is loud, rich in tone, and has a 'great variety of sweet and gentle modulations.' The song is especially joyous during and after rain. White says, in his *Natural History of Selborne*, that while the Blackcap warbles, its throat is wonderfully distended. It is a rather smaller bird than the nightingale; the female is larger than the male. The general colour is gray,



Blackcap (*Sylvia atricapilla*).

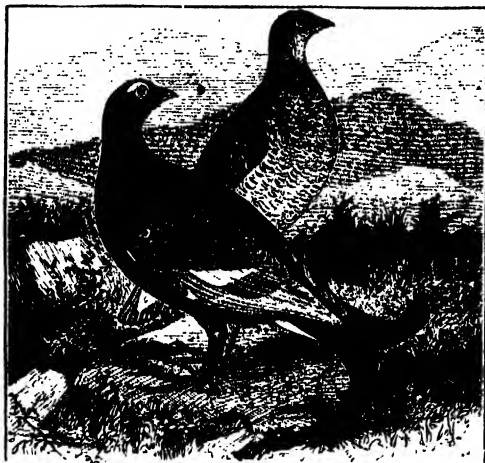
with an olive tinge above, and becoming white below. The upper part of the head in the male is jet-black; in the female, of a rusty-brown colour. The feathers of the head, both in the male and female, are somewhat erected, giving the bird a hooded appearance, on account of which it is called, in Germany, 'the monk.' In Britain, the Blackcap is only a bird of passage, arriving early in spring, and retiring in September. It is most frequent in the southern counties of England, but is found even in Scotland; on the Continent, it extends its migrations as far north as Lapland. In the south of Europe, it is found both in summer and winter, and especially frequents bushy places. Its beautiful song, sometimes spoilt by successful mimicking, and its lively affectionate habits, make it a favourite captive. See WARBLER.

Blackcap Titmouse, or CHICKADEE, a North American bird. The Marsh Titmouse, a British bird, is sometimes called Blackcap, or Blackcap Titmouse. See CHICKADEE and TITMOUSE.

Black Chalk. See CHALK, BLACK.

Blackcock, HEATH-FOWL, or BLACK GROUSE (*Tetrao tetrix*), a species of Grouse (q.v.), abundant in Britain wherever there are moors of considerable extent, and more particularly where there are bogs and morasses with rank herbage, or adjacent to the moors, natural woods or young plantations of pine and fir. Comparatively rare in the south of England, the blackcock becomes more common towards the north, and is very plentiful in the mountainous parts of Scotland. It is found in some of the Hebrides, but not in the Orkney or Shetland Isles. The only other British species, the Capercaillie (q.v.) or Wood-grouse, became some time ago virtually extinct in Britain, but the noble bird has now been reinstated. On the continent of Europe it occurs both in mountainous and marshy countries, as on the Alps and in Holland; it is found as far south as the Apennines, and as far north as the forests of Lapland; it abounds in most parts of Scandinavia, where it is carefully protected, the males only being killed, but these in great numbers for the London market; it is diffused over almost all parts of Russia, and is found in Siberia. Its range is restricted to the

Eurasian continent. The male is much larger than the female, sometimes weighing as much as 4 lb., while the female weighs only about 2 lb. They also differ very much in plumage. The male is of a shining bluish-black colour, with a conspicuous white bar on the wings below the ends of the great wing-coverts, and a mixture of black and white on the legs; there is a piece of bare scarlet skin above the eye; the outer feathers on either side of the tail are elongated and curve outwards, giving it a very peculiar appearance. The female, called the *Gray Hen*, is of a rusty-brown colour, darkest on the



Blackcock (Male and Female).

upper parts, everywhere barred and mottled with a darker colour; the tail is straight and only slightly forked at the end. The young males resemble the females in plumage. The shank in this species is feathered, but not the toes. The flight, though heavy, is strong and rapid, and the birds can also run with much agility. It is a gregarious bird, but in winter the sexes generally keep in separate flocks. In spring the males resort to elevated and open spots, where they crow, and also make a sound which has been likened to the whetting of a scythe, thus inviting the females to repair to them; they strut and trail their wings like turkey-cocks, and fierce contests often take place among them. They are polygamous, and pay no attention to the females during incubation, nor do they take any part in rearing the young. The nest is of the simplest construction, a few straws or the like, placed together among tall heath, or under the shelter of a low thick bush. The eggs, six to eight in number, are yellowish-white, speckled with orange-brown, and about 2 inches long. The usual food consists of the seeds of rushes and other plants, berries, insects, worms, the tender shoots of heath, leaves, &c. But the blackcock sometimes visits cornfields and stubbles to feed on corn, is frequently to be found in turnip-fields near plantations in hilly districts, and, at least in winter, eats the young shoots of pines, firs, birches, and alders. It is highly esteemed for the table. The shooting season is from 20th August to 10th December.

Hybrids between different species of grouse, and even between grouse and pheasant, are said to exist, but not much reliable information is available. Thus it is probable that the bird called *Tetrao hybridus* or *medius*, sometimes found in the Scandinavian peninsula and other parts of Europe, is a hybrid between the Black Grouse and the Capercaillie, *Tetrao urogallus* (q.v.). The Ptarmigan (q.v.) or Brown Grouse are nearly allied.

Black Death is one of the names given to a fearful epidemic which desolated the world from China to Ireland in the 14th century. It raged in England and the rest of Europe in 1348-49, again in 1361-62, and in 1369; and at the time was usually called in England the 'Pestilence' or the 'Great Pestilence.' It is now believed to have been a specially severe visitation of the oriental plague (see **PLAGUE**), with some special symptoms, mainly boils or buboes on the thighs and arms, and putrid inflammation of the lungs, with vomiting of blood. Its black spots (whence the name) and tumours were the seals of a doom that medicine had no power to avert. In most cases the victims died in two or three days, and sometimes the very day they were stricken.

The pestilence seems to have originated in China, and is said to have been preceded, if not, as was believed, in some measure caused, by strange convulsions of nature—earthquakes, droughts, famines, floods, and swarms of locusts; while its westward course was accompanied by dense and awful fogs, and an apparent inversion of the order of the seasons. There had been a visitation of the ordinary plague in 1342; but it was in 1348 that Europe was terrified by the approach of a wholly unparalleled scourge. In China 13,000,000 were reported to have perished, and 24,000,000 elsewhere in the East. By the northern coast of the Black Sea and Constantinople, the contagion reached the seaports of Italy and Southern France, whence Germany and England were infected. The first English victims succumbed in Dorsetshire in August 1348; but it was not till winter that it reached London by way of Gloucester and Oxford. The havoc was almost incredible, but is well attested. Towns were stripped of their inhabitants; religious houses lost nine-tenths of the inmates. In London 100,000 died, 50,000 being buried in a plot of ground now covered by Smithfield; and Norwich mourned 60,000 deaths. Careful investigators have come to the conclusion that the victims of this one visitation must have comprised one-third if not one-half of the total population of England, which is estimated to have then been from 3,000,000 to 5,000,000 in all. For a time Scotland enjoyed immunity, and spoke of the 'foul death of the English;' but ere long, like Ireland, it was also severely visited.

The mortality caused by the plague was only one startling consequence. Religious excitement led to extravagances of fanaticism, especially in Germany, to that of the Flagellants (q.v.); all natural bonds of human society were loosened, so that friend deserted friend and mothers fled from their stricken children, and the demoralisation showed itself in many cases in reckless debauchery. Elsewhere perverted Christian zeal led to frightful persecutions of the Jews, as at Mayence, where 12,000 Hebrews were believed to have been massacred.

But it is only in modern times that the extent of the economic and social consequences of this plague has been fully understood; the black death forms a great economic turning-point in English history. The dearth of labourers caused wages in England to be nearly doubled; law after law was passed to prevent the inevitable rise in the payment of labour; and the ill-feeling thus engendered between landholder and tiller of the soil led to numerous social changes and the rebellion of Wat Tyler. Old methods of culture disappeared; farms on lease largely took the place of great estates managed by bailiffs.

The great pestilence is referred to by Chaucer and Langland; Boccaccio's *Decameron* gives a singularly vivid view of its ravages in Florence;

but for a detailed description see Hecker's *Epidemics of the Middle Ages*, for its medical side the article *PLAGUE*, and for its economic aspects Thorold Rogers' *History of Agriculture and Prices in England* (1866-88).

Black Draught, a popular purgative medicine, consisting of an infusion of senna with sulphate of magnesia.

Black Earth (*Tchernozem* of Russian geologists) is the name given to a deposit which covers vast areas in South Russia, extending over the steppes and low-lying plateaus that border on the Black Sea, and the depressed area to the north of the Caspian, with a breadth from north to south of from 200 or 300 to nearly 700 miles. It closely resembles the Löss (q.v.) of Central Europe in texture and structure, for it is fine grained, and is usually devoid of stratification. It varies in colour, however, from dark brown to black, and in thickness from a foot or two up to 6 or 7 yards, occasionally reaching, it is said, even to 60 feet. It is composed chiefly of siliceous sand (about 70 per cent.), alumina and other ingredients (23 per cent.), and organic matter (about 7 per cent.). But the composition is variable, the organic matter sometimes exceeding 10 per cent. It appears to be unfossiliferous. It bears the same relation to the glacial accumulations of Russia that the löss of the Rhine, the Danube, &c. does to those of Central Europe, and is probably the fine-grained silt derived from the torrents and flooded rivers that escaped from the melting snows and glaciers of the glacial period. According to some geologists, however, it may owe its origin to the action of the wind. It is supposed by them to be simply an accumulation of wind-blown dust—the finely sifted material being fixed by the abundant grasses of those steppe regions.

Black Eye. See *BRUISE*.

Blackfeet Indians, a tribe of friendly aborigines, generally Roman Catholic, now living in Montana and British America. Those in the United States number about 7200.

Black-fish (*Centrolophus pompius*), a bony fish of the family Stromateidae, in the division with spinous rays (*Acanthopterygii*). It is nearly allied to the beautiful *Coryphæna* (q.v.), so frequently called dolphins. Though found in the Mediterranean, on the western coasts of Europe, and occasionally on the southern coasts of Britain, it is everywhere rare, perhaps because it is an inhabitant chiefly of deep waters. It is known to attain a length of more than 30 inches, and a weight of 14 lb. The general form is not unlike that of a perch; there is a single elongated dorsal fin with short rays; the dentition is very feeble; the body is covered with minute scales; the skin is tough and can be stripped off like that of an eel; there is no air-bladder. The colour is black, that of the fins intensely so. It is remarkable for great strength and velocity, and as an article of food is described as delicious. Another British species (*C. britannicus*) is also recorded, and the genus *Stromateus* is closely allied. The name is locally given to various species of fish, and even to small whales and dolphins.

Black Flux is prepared by heating in a covered crucible ordinary or crude cream of tartar, the bitartrate of potash, $\text{KHC}_4\text{H}_4\text{O}_6$, when the tartaric acid, $\text{H}_2\text{C}_4\text{H}_4\text{O}_6$, is decomposed, and charred, forming carbonic acid, CO_2 , which remains in combination with the potash as carbonate of potash, K_2CO_3 , accompanied by much free carbon. This very intimate mixture of carbonate of potash and carbon, otherwise called black flux, is a fine black powder of great service in the fluxing of metallic ores, as of Lead (q.v.), and the separa-

tion of the metal therefrom. In the preparation of black flux it is usual to add to the cream of tartar half its weight of nitre, while *white flux* is produced when twice its weight of nitre is used. The black flux is likewise employed as the raw material from which, on the application of heat in iron vessels, the metal potassium can be obtained.

Black Forest (Ger. *Schwarzwald*), a wooded mountain-chain in Baden and Württemberg, running parallel with the course of the Rhine after its great bend near Basel, and often only a few miles distant from it. The Rhine also bounds it on the south, and the level country between the Enz and the confluence of the Neckar with the Rhine borders it on the north. The chief rivers rising in the Black Forest are the Danube, Neckar, Murg, Kinzig, Elz, Enz, and Wieschen. Of these, the valley of the Kinzig divides the southern and loftier portion from the northern district. The chain attains its greatest elevation in the bare and round-topped Feldberg (4903 feet high), above celebrated Hölenthal, a narrow valley known in connection with Moreau's retreat in 1796. The great mass called the Kaiserstuhl (Emperor's Chair), situated near Breisach, is quite isolated. As to the geological character of the mountains, primitive granite and gneiss form their core, porphyry occurs on their sides, and sandstone in the north and east. Silver, copper, cobalt, lead, and iron are found in greater or less quantity in the principal chain, which is luxuriantly wooded, its name Schwarzwald being derived from the dark-tinted foliage and immense number of its fir-trees. The district is also rich in mineral waters—e.g. the baths of Baden-Baden (q.v.) and Wildbad (q.v.). On the Rhine side the descent is precipitous, but towards the Danube and the Neckar it is gradual. Among its numerous valleys, the Murgthal is the most famous for its natural beauties; but, indeed, the whole of the country is here rich in picturesque scenery, gemmed with cascades and deep mountain-lakes, around which cluster the legends of many centuries. The climate is healthy, but severe, although the western slopes are studded with vineyards. Summer rye, oats, and potatoes are cultivated in some parts, but with difficulty, the rearing of cattle being attended with much greater success. This, and the manufacture of articles of wood, forms the chief industry of the inhabitants. The making of wooden clocks and other kinds of timepieces employs about 40,000 persons; and not less than 600,000 articles of this kind, including musical boxes, are exported annually to all parts of the world. A railway starting from Pforzheim makes the complete circuit of the mountains, which are now crossed by a line from Offenburg to Singen, and by numerous shorter lines. The Black Forest railways have been difficult engineering enterprises. The line between Freiburg and Neustadt rises 2000 feet in 22 miles, and at some parts has rails on the rack system. See Seguin's *Black Forest, its People and Legends* (2d ed. 1886).

Black Friars. See *DOMINICANS*. The old Dominican monastery in London, dating from 1276, stood near the north end of Blackfriars Bridge.

Black Friday is a name given to the 11th May 1866, from a commercial panic then at its height, caused by the stoppage of Overend, Gurney, & Co., London.

Black Guard is a term used in the 16th century for the lowest menials of a noble house, the scullions who cleaned pots and pans. It was also used of the hangers-on of an army, camp-followers, then a rabble, vagabonds.

Black Gum. See *TUPELO*.

Black Hawk, a famous chief of the Sac and Fox Indians, born in 1767. He joined the British in 1812, and opposing the removal west of his tribe, fought against the United States in 1831-32. He died in 1838. There are *Lives* by Patterson (1834) and Snelling.

Blackheath, a high-lying open common in the county of Kent, 7 miles SE. of London, near Greenwich Park. It commands a fine view, and is a healthy tract, though now not more than 70 acres in extent, many villas having encroached upon its margin. It is a favourite holiday resort for Londoners. The Roman road to Dover crossed it. Blackheath was the first place in England where the ancient Scottish game of golf was introduced, most likely in 1608. On it stands Morden College, founded in 1695 by Sir John Morden for decayed Turkey merchants. Of schools innumerable, the chief is the Proprietary, established in 1830. Blackheath was formerly the scene of several insurrections, including those of Wat Tyler (1381), of Jack Cade (1450), and of the Cornishmen under Lord Audley (1497). Here, too, the Danes encamped in 1011; the Londoners welcomed Henry V. from Agincourt; and Charles II. on his way from Dover met the army of the Restoration. Blackheath was also a noted place for highwaymen. See Dr Drake's *History of Blackheath* (1886).

Black Hole, an appellation familiarly given to a dungeon or dark cell in a prison, and associated in the public mind with a horrible catastrophe in the history of British India—viz. the cruel confinement of a party of English in the military prison of Fort William, since called the 'Black Hole of Calcutta,' on the night of 19th June 1756. The garrison of the fort connected with the English factory at Calcutta having been captured by Siraja Dowlah (Sirāj-ud-Daula), the nawab of Bengal, he caused the whole of the prisoners taken, 146 in number, to be confined in an apartment 18 feet square. This cell had only two small windows, and these were obstructed by a veranda. The crush of the unhappy sufferers was dreadful; and after a night of excruciating agony from pressure, heat, thirst, and want of air, there were in the morning only 23 survivors, the ghastliest forms ever seen on earth. One of them, Mr Holwell, published a narrative in 1758; see also Macaulay's essay on Clive.

Blackie, JOHN STUART, a versatile writer, born in Glasgow in 1809, was educated at Aberdeen and Edinburgh, and in 1829 went to the Continent, where he continued his studies at Göttingen and Berlin, and afterwards at Rome. In 1834 he published a good metrical translation of Goethe's *Faust*, and in the same year passed as advocate at the Edinburgh bar. But the practice of his profession failed to wean him from literary pursuits, and he soon began to make himself known by his articles on German subjects contributed to the magazines of the time. In 1841 he was appointed to the chair of Humanity in Marischal College, Aberdeen, which he held until 1852, when he was elected to the Greek chair in the university of Edinburgh. After he became professor he took an active part in promoting educational reform, and in the movement that led in 1859 to the remodelling of the Scottish universities. His incessant activity in lecturing and writing letters to the newspapers showed his marvellous vitality and the breadth of his sympathies. He always figured as the patriotic champion of Scottish nationality and its characteristic features, and advocated with equal ardour the preservation of things as dissimilar as old south-country customs and the Gaelic language. During the years 1874-76 he advocated throughout the country with great enthusiasm the found-

ation of a Celtic chair in Edinburgh University, and was successful in raising upwards of £12,000 for its endowment. He resigned his chair in 1882 to become a kind of peripatetic philosopher, expounding throughout Scotland alternately wit and wisdom, and the inalienable rights of the Highland crofter. He published a fine verse translation of *Æschylus* in 1850, another of the *Iliad* in ballad metre in 1866, as well as several volumes of verse. His prose works embrace moral and religious philosophy, the method of history, the land laws, and a short life of Burns (1888). His principal philological papers were collected in *Horæ Hellenicæ* (1874). In the same year he published *Self Culture*, a book full of ripe wisdom, perhaps his best work.

Blacking is the material employed for producing a black glazed shining surface on leather. The main ingredient in the various kinds of blacking is Bone-black (q.v.), which is mixed with an oil, some sugar, and a little sulphuric acid. The materials in Day & Martin's blacking are finely powdered bone-black ground with sperm-oil, raw sugar or molasses, a little vinegar, and some concentrated sulphuric acid (specific gravity 1.843). The substances are incorporated together one by one in the order in which they are stated, and the action of the sulphuric acid is to convert much of the lime in the bone-black into sulphate of lime, which causes a thickening of the mixture, and a tenacious paste results. This paste, diluted with weak vinegar, is put, whilst warm, in stoneware bottles, and is then ready for the market. For harness the blacking consists mainly of beeswax, softened with turpentine, and mixed with ivory-black, Prussian blue, and copal varnish.

Black Isle is the common name for the peninsula in Easter Ross, lying between the Beaully and Moray Firths and Cromarty Firth. See ROSS-SHIRE.

Black Lead (or BLACKLEAD), GRAPHITE, or PLUMBAGO, a mineral consisting chiefly of carbon, but containing also more or less of alumina, silica, lime, iron, &c., to the extent of 1 to 47 per cent., apparently mixed rather than chemically combined. Black lead is the popular name, and that by which it is generally known in the arts, though no lead enters into the composition of the mineral; graphite is that generally preferred by mineralogists. It sometimes occurs crystallised in flat hexagonal tables; but generally massive, and more or less radiated, foliated, scaly, or compact. It is of a grayish-black colour, with a somewhat metallic lustre, and a black and shining streak, and is perfectly opaque. It is greasy to the touch, and is a perfect conductor of electricity. It occurs in beds and masses, laminae or scales in the schistose rocks (gneiss, mica-schist, clay-slate, &c.), and is sometimes in such abundance as to give its name to the schist (graphite-schist) in which it appears. It occurs also now and again in fissures in granite, or in scattered scales in various other igneous rocks, as in syenite in Norway, in porphyry in the Harz, &c. Thick vein-like masses of black lead are met with in Siberia, Spain, Canada, New Brunswick, United States (mines at Ticonderoga, N.Y., supplying almost the whole output), Ceylon, and elsewhere; the once extensive supplies of Borrowdale in Cumberland are now exhausted. It is far more incombustible than even anthracite (or *blind-coal*), burning with much difficulty even before the blowpipe, on which account it is much used for the manufacture of crucibles or 'melting-pots,' which withstand a great heat. These are not, however, made of mere black lead, but of black lead in powder, mixed with half its weight

of clay. Black lead is employed for making Pencils (q.v.). It is also extensively employed to give a black gloss to iron grates, railings, &c., and to diminish the friction of belts, machinery, and rifle cartridges.

Black Leg. See BLACK QUARTER.

Black Letter (~~Black Letter~~), the name which came into use about 1600, and is now commonly applied in this country to the types that on the Continent are most generally known as Gothic. The first printed books imitated every peculiarity of the contemporary manuscripts; and as printing was first practised in Germany and the Netherlands, the first types were copies of the letters in use in those countries in the middle of the 15th century. Two sorts of letters have been employed in the writings of Western Christendom. What have been called *Roman* letters prevailed from the 5th to about the close of the 12th century, when they gradually began to pass into what have been called *Gothic* letters, which continued till the 16th century, when, in most European countries, they were superseded by Roman letters. The first types, as has been said, were Gothic, and they spread with the art of printing into various European states. In France and Italy they were slightly modified by cutting off some of their rougher points; and when thus trimmed, they came to be known in the former country as *lettres de somme*, being so called, it is said, from their use in an edition of the *Summa* of St Thomas Aquinas. The classic taste of Italy could not long tolerate the Gothic character even of the *lettres de somme*; and they were still further modified, until they assumed the shape to which the name of Roman letters has since been given. The first works printed with these new types were two beautiful editions of Pliny's *Natural History*: the one by John of Spines at Venice in 1469; and the other by his disciple, Nicholas Jenson, also at Venice, in 1472. Another Venetian printer—the first Aldus Manutius—attempted in 1501 to supersede the Roman letters by what have been called *Aldine* (q.v.), or Venetian, but are best known as *Italic* characters. These can scarcely be said to have come into much more than temporary or exceptional use; but the Roman letters in no long time spread from Venice all over the west of Europe. Although thus supplanted in general use, the Gothic or black letter was long retained for special purposes, such as, in this country, the printing of Bibles, prayer-books, proclamations, and acts of parliament. Books in black letter being the earliest, are highly prized by antiquaries and bibliomaniacs, who are hence sometimes spoken of as 'black-letter devotees.' A form of the black letter still continues in general use in Germany; but about half of the books printed there are now in Roman letters. See PRINTING. The *Black-letter Saints' Days* of the Anglican calendar were so called from being printed in old calendars in black or ordinary letters, whereas the greater feasts were usually printed in red (hence Red-letter Days).

Black List. Such is the name familiarly applied to printed lists connected with insolvency, bankruptcy, and other matters affecting the credit of firms and individuals, which are circulated for the private guidance of the mercantile community. These lists are for the most part published in London weekly; but some are bi-weekly. In their contents are embraced the English bankruptcies and liquidations by arrangement under the Act of 1882; the bankruptcies of Scotland and Ireland; Scottish registers of protested bills; decrees in absence; judgments for debt in the Irish courts; offers of composition; dissolutions of partnership; warrants of attorney and cognovits; judges' orders;

bills of sale, &c. The legality of issuing information of this kind has been challenged, even when not freely sold, but limited to regular subscribers, on the ground that it amounts to a slander of the credit of the merchant whose name is given. In the case of the *Scottish Mercantile Society's Record* in 1848, it was found by the House of Lords that 'such publication' was not slanderous. In point of fact, the lists are only extracts from public registers, as are the ordinary lists of bankruptcies in the newspapers. The idea of furnishing to subscribers private lists of a more searching kind is due to Mr Thomas Perry of Cornhill, the proprietor of the 'Original Bankrupt and Insolvent Registry Office, for Protection against Fraud, Swindlers, &c. ; and similar lists are prepared by the Scottish Trade Protection Society, Edinburgh. Stubbs' is the best known publication of this kind. In the United States, the vast system of the mercantile agency and other similar institutions provides information of this kind; and printed lists of forgeries of bank-notes are issued. In one of these *Counterfeit Detectors* may be counted some thousands of varieties of forged bank-notes in circulation.

Blacklock, THOMAS, D.D., the blind poet, was born of humble parentage at Annan in 1721, and lost his sight through smallpox before he was six months old. After going through the necessary course of academic study in Edinburgh, he was licensed as a preacher of the Established Church in 1759, and in 1762 was ordained minister of Kirkcubright. The congregation objected strongly to the appointment, and in 1764 he resigned the charge in consideration of a small annuity. After this, he took pupils to board with him in Edinburgh till his death on 7th July 1791. It was a letter of his that arrested Burns on the eve of his departure for the West Indies, and thus, to all human appearance, saved from oblivion the greatest lyricist that the world has seen. The first volume of his own poor poems appeared in 1746; and a collected edition was published in 1793.

Blackmail, a rent or tribute formerly exacted by freebooting chiefs from the people in the Border counties of England and Scotland, and along the Highland border. It was a kind of compromise with robbers, and bought immunity from the attacks not only of others, but also of those to whom it was paid. It is mentioned in Archbishop Hamilton's *Catechisme* (1552) and in Maitland's *Thievis of Liddesdale* (about 1561), and it continued to be exacted along the Highland border until about the middle of the 18th century. The celebrated Rob Roy was about 1730 a notable levier of blackmail in the southern Highlands and adjacent Lowland districts, while a little later, Coll M'Donnell of Barrisdale, a cadet of the Glen-garry family, was equally noted farther north.

Black Monday, Easter Monday, 14th April 1360, so called from the extraordinary darkness and the fatally bitter cold.

Black Monks. See BENEDICTINES.

Blackmore, SIR RICHARD, court physician to William III. and Queen Anne, is remembered as the most heavy and voluminous of poetasters. Born at Corsham in Wiltshire, he was educated at Westminster and Oxford, taking his B.A. in 1674. He was first a schoolmaster, then a London physician (1687–1722), and died at Boxtel, Essex, in 1729. He seems to have been a good and well-meaning man, and the merciless ridicule of contemporary wits was due, in some part at least, to the moral and religious tone of his works, and to his free censures of the libertinism of the time. But the worthlessness of the poems has been amply confirmed by the judgment of posterity. *The Creation*, considered his best, Addison pronounces

'one of the most useful and noble productions in our English verse;' but few modern readers are likely to examine the grounds of this judgment, still less to agree with it. Blackmore wrote six epics in sixty books (choosing always the loftiest themes), besides versions of various books of the Bible, and theological, medical, and miscellaneous treatises.

Blackmore, RICHARD DODDRIDGE, a well-known novelist, was born at Longworth, Berkshire, in 1825, and educated at Blundell's School (Tiverton), and Exeter College, Oxford. He graduated in 1847, afterwards studied law, was called to the bar at the Middle Temple in 1852, and practised for a time as a conveyancer. He has long united the pursuit of literature with a passion for gardening, and consequently in his books plant-life is reproduced with all the force and fidelity of truth. His first publications were *Poems by McLanter* (1854), *Epullia* (1855), *The Bugle of the Black Sea* (1855), followed by *The Fate of Franklin* (1860), and a translation of the first and second books of Virgil's *Georgics* (1862). Other volumes of verse have followed these, as well as a complete translation of the *Georgics* in 1871. His first novels were *Clara Vaughan* (1864) and *Cradock Nowell* (1866), but his first distinct success was *Lorna Doone, a Romance of Exmoor* (1869), which reached a 22d edition in 1884. *Lorna Doone* is almost a great novel. The plot is good and well developed; the style has the quaint and pleasing flavour of its age, the time of James II., with Sedgemoor for its point of highest interest; and the figures have much more life and movement than in any other of his novels. His plots are usually defective in construction, and the human interest in his books is a much weaker element than that rare insight into and sympathy with inanimate life in which he stands alone among English novelists. He has described for us with absolute truth the Devonshire farmer as he lives and speaks; and many of his women, if somewhat shadowy in outline, are yet figures of rare tenderness and grace. His other novels are: *The Maid of Sker* (1872), perhaps his second-best story; *Alice Lorraine* (1875); *Cripps the Carrier* (1876); *Erema* (1877); *Mary Anerley* (1880); *Christowell, a Dartmoor Tale* (1882); *Tommy Upmore* (1884); and *Springhaven* (1887).

Blackpool, a flourishing watering-place of Lancashire, on the coast of the Irish Sea, between Morecambe Bay and the estuary of the Ribble, 18 miles WNW. of Preston. The population has risen from 1664 in 1851 to 3506 in 1861, 6100 in 1871, and 14,229 in 1881; but the numbers who resort here during the bathing-season far exceed the permanently resident inhabitants, for Blackpool is one of the most frequented watering-places in the west of England, the sands being excellent, the views delightful, and the climate bracing. There are two fine piers, one of them with a splendid pavilion; a promenade 3 miles long, with electric trams; winter-gardens, an aquarium, a free library, theatres, and several large hotels. Blackpool was constituted a municipal borough in 1876.

Black Prince, the popular title conferred upon Edward (1330-76), eldest son of Edward III. (q.v.). It is said, but not proved, that the name was given from the colour of the armour worn by him.

Black Quarter, also called Black Spald, Black Leg, Quarter Evil, Blood Striking, Symptomatic Charbon, Chabert's Disease, is a contagious and infectious disease of cattle due to the presence of a specific organism, which usually exerts its malignant influence upon the tissues immediately

beneath the skin. It is caused by rich pasture on stiff, retentive, and undrained soil; or by sudden changes from poor to rich keep, particularly with animals in good health, thriving well, and putting on beef. It is a disease which affects animals of all ages, from six months to six years old, though by far the largest number of victims is in those ranging from nine months to two years old. The malady occurs chiefly in spring and autumn, though seen at all periods of the year.

The premonitory signs are often overlooked. The animal may be observed with a sleek coat, voracious appetite, quick staring look, suddenly to stop feeding; the eyes become bloodshot; there is slight salivation or foaming at the mouth; and in the very great majority of cases there is lameness in one of the limbs, the cause of this lameness being the rapid formation of a tumour at the top of the limb. This tumour is at first hot and painful to the touch, but soon becomes dead in its centre, and the skin covering it becomes crackling, and crepitates. Occasionally the tumour may form in the head, neck, dewlap, the joints, or in the body itself, but usually in the withers and loins. The animal's temperature rises to 103°, or as high as 107° F. The pulse becomes rapid and weak; the pain is excessive. Animals in this state are costive at first, but occasionally violent diarrhoea supervenes, and the excrement is tinged by black extravasated blood, tumour rapidly increases in size, the lameness becomes more intense, fits supervene, and death usually occurs in from four to forty-eight hours, though some cases prove lingering. The disease is almost invariably fatal, and no treatment is of any avail.

Post-mortem Appearances.—Owing to decomposition taking place even before death, the first thing noticed is the great swelling of the body, due to the evolution of gases, not only under the skin, but also in the stomach and bowels. The blood is found to be red, and to coagulate readily, so showing that the disease is not a form of anthrax, as had always been supposed until quite recently. The lungs are congested, all the viscera are spotted with red patches, and are more or less congested. The specific lesions are found in the region of the tumour, which is indistinctly divided into three zones. Microscopic examination of a portion of the outer or middle zones reveals the presence of large numbers of micro-organisms, known as the Bacteria of Chauveau, which often contain one or more spores, and which, if introduced under the skin of healthy cattle, will produce black quarter.

Prevention is of two kinds. First, to render the pastures unfit to propagate the poison, by deep draining, whereby many pasture-lands, after having repeatedly ruined tenant-farmers, have been rendered perfectly safe from losses by black quarter; and, secondly, to render the system of the animal innocuous to the poison by protective inoculation. The method of inoculation which has met with the greatest success, both in England in a small way, and in France in tens of thousands of cases, is as follows: Take from an animal just dead of the disease a portion of the middle zone of the tumour, cut into small pieces, mix in a mortar with three times its weight of distilled water, then triturate; remove from mortar, and roughly strain through a piece of muslin; then carefully strain through three folds of fine muslin. Of the clear fluid so obtained take from 5 to 10 minims in a small syringe specially made for the purpose (Pravaz's), and inject it into the jugular vein of the healthy animal. The animal must be carefully secured before the operation. The needle of the syringe is then pressed through the skin into the vein, and then the piston of the syringe slowly pressed upon. During this part of the operation an assistant

should pour on the part some solution of boracic acid, so as to destroy any of the virus which might escape. The great difficulty of this operation is, that if the very slightest particle of the virus, instead of entering the circulation, should come in contact with any part of the wound, black quarter will be the result, and not protection. The second method is to take small pieces of the tumour and desiccate at a high temperature, and to introduce some of the dust so obtained under the skin of the healthy animal—a method which has not proved very certain or successful.

Black Rod, GENTLEMAN-USHER OF THE, an officer of the House of Lords, appointed by letters-patent. He is chief gentleman-usher to the sovereign, and usher of the order of the Garter, at the chapter-meetings of which he keeps the door. He has charge of all arrangements for maintaining order in the House; takes into custody any peer guilty of breach of privilege; and (himself, or by his deputy the yeoman-usher) summons the House of Commons to the Peers when the royal assent is given to bills, or when royal speeches are read. If the sovereign is personally present in the Lords, he *commands*, but if royalty is represented by Lords Commissioners, he only *desires* the attendance of the Commons. The appointment of messengers, door-keepers, &c., rests with Black Rod. His title is derived from his wand, surmounted by a gold lion, which he carries instead of the mace.

Black Rod of Scotland. See HOLYROOD.

Black Sea, or EUXINE (the *Pontus Euxinus* of the ancients), is an inland sea lying between Europe and Asia, extending from 41° to 46° 38' N. lat., and from 27° 30' to 41° 50' E. long. Its greatest length from east to west, on the 42d parallel, is 720 miles; its greatest breadth, near the west end, 380 miles; and its area, exclusive of the Sea of Azov, is 163,711 sq. m., according to Strelbitsky. On the south-western extremity it communicates by the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, and the Dardanelles, with the Mediterranean, and on the north-east by the Straits of Kertch, or Yenikale, with the Sea of Azov. The Black Sea drains nearly one-fourth of the surface of Europe, and also about 114,000 sq. m. of Asia. Throughout its whole extent it has but one island, and that a small one, lying opposite the mouths of the Danube, called *Adass*, or Isle of Serpents, on which is a lighthouse. In the centre its depth ranges between 1000 and 1070 fathoms, and as there are no shoals along the shores, except at the entrance of the Bosphorus, the navigation of the sea ought to be particularly easy and safe. It is so in summer; but in winter, being inclosed on every side, it becomes the scene of conflicting winds, and of storms which, though of short duration, are terrible while they last.

All the coasts are high, with good harbours, except between the mouths of the Danube and the Crimea; there the land is low, and the danger of navigation greatly increased in winter by the presence of floating ice; for, from the many large rivers which flow into this sea and that of Azov (Danube, Dniester, Bug, Dnieper, Don, Kuban, and Rion, in Europe; and the Kizil-Irnak and Sakaria, in Asia), the waters are fresher, and consequently more easily frozen than those of the Mediterranean. The specific gravity of the water of the Black Sea is 1014 (fresh water being = 1000), while that of the Mediterranean is 1028. The shores from Odessa to the Crimea are ice-bound during January and February; and although the harbour of Odessa is never frozen up, yet the drift-ice frequently renders the entrance to it dangerous.

There is no tide in this sea, but the large rivers

flowing into it give rise to currents, which are particularly strong in spring when the snows melt. There is a strong flow out through the Bosphorus.

The most important ports on the Black Sea are those of Kustendji, Sulina, Odessa, Nikolaiev, Kherson, Enpatoria, Kertch, Sebastopol, Pöti, Batoum, Trebizond, Samsun, Sinope, and Varna.

The depth of the water is unfavourable to the extensive establishment of fisheries, but sturgeon are caught in the Straits of Yenikale, and other fish are abundant.

The ancients believed that the Euxine was at one time much more extensive, and that it had no connection with the Mediterranean, until the Thracian Bosphorus had been burst through by an earthquake, or by the great deluge known as the Deucalion deluge, which inundated Greece.

The sea has been navigated from a very early period. Its original Greek name was *Axeinos*, or 'inhospitable' sea, afterwards changed euphemistically to *Euxeinus*, 'the hospitable.' In the time of Xerxes, large quantities of corn were exported from its ports to Athens and the Peloponnesus. The Romans and Byzantines, and also the Genoese, had large traffic on the sea. From the fall of Constantinople (1453), all but Turkish vessels were excluded from its waters, until the treaty of Kainardji (1774), when the Russians obtained the right to trade in it. Ten years after, Austrian ships were privileged to trade here; and by the Peace of Amiens in 1802 British and French ships were admitted. It was entered by the allied fleets, at the requisition of the Porte, in January 1854, and a dreadful storm in November of the same year caused great loss of life, shipping, and stores. By the Treaty of Paris (1856) it was opened to the commerce of all nations, and closed to ships of war, while the erection of arsenals was forbidden; but this article was repudiated by Russia in 1870, and in the following March, at a conference in London, the neutralisation of the sea was abrogated. Since then both Russia and Turkey have kept fleets in its waters. The Bosphorus and Dardanelles are still closed to other ships of war, but the sultan can open them at need to allies.

Black Snake (*Bascanium constrictor*, see COLUBER), a species of snake common in the United States of America from Louisiana to Connecticut. Barring the white throat, it is of an almost uniform leaden colour, is one of the largest serpents in North America, and is remarkable for its great agility. It moves along the ground with a swiftness equal to that of a horse, glides over bushes, and climbs trees. It feeds on small quadrupeds, birds, frogs, &c.; frequently plunders poultry-yards of eggs; and enters dairies, to drink milk or cream. A persistent enemy of the rattlesnake, it is generally the conqueror in a struggle, enveloping its venomous foe in its coils and crushing it to death. It has no poison-fangs, but is not slow to bite. It is easily tamed.—The commonest Australian snake (*Pseudochis porphyricus*), found in marshy places, and somewhat cobra-like in its actions, is also called the Black Snake. The back is glancing black, the sides carmine, the belly red; the neck is not dilat-able. It may measure over 6 feet in length. It is very venomous, belongs to the family Elapidae, and is nearly allied to the Cobra (q.v.).

Blackstone, SIR WILLIAM, commentator on English law, was the posthumous son of a silkmere in London, and was born there 10th July 1723. In 1738 he obtained a scholarship from the Charterhouse to Pembroke College, Oxford; in 1741 entered the Inner Temple; in 1744 was elected a fellow of All Souls; and in 1746 was called to the bar, but failed to attract either notice or practice. In 1749 he succeeded an uncle

as recorder of Wallingford, in Berkshire; and in 1753 he delivered a course of lectures at Oxford on the law of England. Three years later, a Mr Viner having left £12,000 to endow a chair of English Law at Oxford, Blackstone was in 1758 appointed first Vinerian professor. Next year he returned to Westminster; and as the doctrines which he had taught as a lecturer had commended him to the Tory government of that day, he was made a king's counsel in 1761, in the same year becoming member for Hindon, in Wiltshire, and shortly after principal of New Inn Hall, Oxford. Other honours followed fast, and in 1763 he was made solicitor-general to the queen. In 1765-69 he published the four volumes of his lectures, which form his celebrated *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, and which brought him in £14,000. His practice, too, continuing to increase, he resigned in 1766 his Oxford appointments. Four years later he declined the solicitor-generalship, and, having been knighted, was made a justice of the Court of Common Pleas. He died 14th February 1780, and was buried at Wallingford.

Blackstone's fame rests wholly on his *Commentaries*. His seventeen other literary works, which included some youthful poetry, were inconsiderable, and his merits as pleader or judge were not of themselves such as to have made his reputation outlive him. As a commentator, he had many excellences. His style is in general clear and gracefully ornate, his illustrations are pleasing and felicitous. While he confined himself to exposition -- to the accurate statement in scholarlike English of what had heretofore lain buried in the embrous language of lawyers like Littleton -- Blackstone was unsurpassed, and rendered an important service to the country. But he was ambitious of combining with this exposition the higher task of explaining the reasons of law, as well as its merits and defects. For this survey of law from the legislator's point of view, he had not the requisite qualifications; his knowledge of English history was superficial, his study of the philosophy of law had been imperfect. With the works, indeed, of Montesquieu and Beccaria he was acquainted; but the mode in which he quotes them shows that he had imbibed nothing of their spirit. The method followed in the *Commentaries* was as unscientific as could be imagined, and had not even the merit of originality. It was taken with little alteration and no improvement from Sir Matthew Hale's *Analysis of the English Law*. Possibly the haste with which the *Commentaries* must have been composed, being originally in the form of lectures, may have led to some of their imperfections. Since Blackstone's death the *Commentaries* have been very frequently reprinted, having reached a 23d edition in 1854, not to speak of various American editions and abridgments, such as Wait's (1875) and Ewell's (1883).

Blackthorn. See SLOE.

Blackwall, a suburb of London, in Middlesex, at the junction of the Lee with the Thames, 3½ miles ESE. of St Paul's. It has foundries, shipbuilding yards, and the East and West India Docks.

Black Watch (Gaelic *Frisicadan Dubh*), the first of the Highland regiments, had its origin in a commission granted to John, second Earl of Athole, in 1668, 'to raise and keep such a number of men as he shall think fitt' to be a constant guard for securing peace in the Highlands. The term *black* arose from the dark colour of their tartan uniform, which distinguished them from the regular troops, called the *Saighdean Dearg*, or 'red soldiers.' From 1704 till the Union,

there were three companies in existence directly dealt with by the Treasury in regard to pay and clothing, and wholly armed with firearms. In 1729 the companies were six in number -- three comprising 100 men each, commanded by captains, and three of 70 men each, commanded by captain-lieutenants. The body was raised chiefly from the Whig or loyal clans -- Campbells, Grants, Munros, &c. The duties of the Black Watch were to enforce the disarming act, to prevent political meetings of a seditious kind, and to check depredation. After being of considerable use for these local purposes, the whole of the companies were formed into the 42d Regiment, under the command of the Earl of Crawford, in 1739; and in 1743 the regiment joined the troops in Flanders, and first went into action at Fontenoy, since when it has been one of the most distinguished corps in the British army. As it was embodied under a Lowlander, it was necessary to adopt an arbitrary pattern of tartan, which has ever since been known as the 42d or Black Watch tartan. In 1872 the officers of the corps erected a monument in Dunkeld Cathedral in memory of those who had fallen in battle from the creation of the regiment till the close of the Indian Mutiny in 1859; and a memorial cairn, raised by public subscription, was unveiled, 13th November 1887, in the field near Aberfeldy, where the regiment first assembled in 1739. When in 1881 the numerical designations of the British foot regiments were dropped, the former 42d and 73d Regiments were made respectively first and second battalions of the 'Black Watch (Royal Highlanders).' See HIGHLAND REGIMENTS, TARTAN; also Ross's *Old Scottish Regimental Colours* (1885).

Black Water, RED WATER, MUIR-ILL, or HÆMO-ALBUMINURIA, is a dietetic disease of cattle, which is diagnosed by the following symptoms: Loss of condition, loss of appetite, obstinate constipation, dicrotonous and weak pulse, yellow mucous membranes, staring dry coat, and frequent passage of urine of a red-brown or almost black colour, and having a strong odour of rotten turnips. It is a rapidly fatal disease, and most frequently seen in ill-fed animals, or animals grazing on badly drained, poorly cultivated land. The cause of the disease is a want of proportion in the quantity and quality of the food, and particularly in a lack of albuminoids, and an increase in the watery constituents. The result of this bad food is to cause indigestion and constipation, which are then followed by a breaking down of the blood constituents, and elimination of the broken-down blood by the kidneys, the consequence being that the animal really succumbs from loss of blood or blood constituents. Examination of the urine reveals the presence of albumen, and also blood and bile pigments. Its specific gravity is increased to about 1040. On post-mortem examination, one finds great pallor and wasting of the tissues and organs, emptiness of the blood-vessels, dark-coloured urine in the bladder, engorgement of the liver, and distension of the gall-bladder with thick bile, and generally the appearance of bloodlessness.

The disease should be guarded against by draining the land, growing good grasses and turnips, and feeding the animals with food containing sufficient albuminoids. When animals become affected, administer a quart of oil, to remove any bad food from the stomach and bowels, and follow with twelve eggs and a quart of good ale night and morning, and warm clothing, linseed and cotton cake, port wine, drachm doses of sulphate of iron, or ounce doses of turpentine. A special form of this disease occurs in parturient cattle, which exhibits the same symptoms, but is induced in

weak animals by parturition, and manifests itself a week or so after parturition.

Blackwater, the name of numerous rivers and rivulets in Great Britain and Ireland, of which the longest are: (1) The Blackwater of Munster, 100 miles in length, which enters the sea at Youghal harbour; (2) the Blackwater of Ulster, 50 miles long, which falls into the south-west corner of Lough Neagh; and (3) the Blackwater of Essex, 40 miles long, which falls into the North Sea.

Blackwell, ALEXANDER, adventurer, seems to have been born in Aberdeen about the beginning of the 18th century, and to have been a younger son of the Rev. Thomas Blackwell (1660-1728), principal of Marischal College. He may, or may not, have studied medicine under Boerhaave at Leyden; anyhow, about 1730, he was a printer in London, and becoming bankrupt in 1734, was supported in prison by his wife, who published a *Herbal* (2 vols. folio, 1737-39) with 500 cuts of plants, drawn, engraved, and coloured by herself, her husband adding their Latin names, with a brief description of each. Next, in 1742, Blackwell turns up in Sweden, where, having cured the king of an illness, he was appointed one of the royal physicians, and undertook the management of a model farm. While still in the full enjoyment of court favour, he was charged with being concerned in a plot against the constitution, and after being put to the torture, was beheaded, August 9, 1747, protesting his innocence to the last.

Blackwell, ELIZABETH, the first woman that obtained a medical diploma in the United States, was born at Bristol in 1821. Her family emigrated to the States in 1832, and six years later the father died, leaving a widow and nine children. Elizabeth helped to support the family for some years by teaching, steadily devoting her leisure the while to the study of medical and anatomical books. After making many fruitless applications for admission to various medical schools, she was permitted to enter that of Geneva, in New York State, and to graduate in 1849. She next visited Europe to prosecute her medical studies, and after much difficulty was admitted into the extensive *Maternité* hospital at Paris, and St Bartholomew's Hospital in London. In 1851 she returned to New York, and there established herself in a successful practice. In 1869 she returned to England, where she took an active part in connection with questions of social reform and the position of women. She has lectured frequently, and is author of several popular books on the laws of health, especially for girls.

Blackwell, THOMAS, scholar, a brother most likely of Alexander Blackwell (q.v.), was born at Aberdeen in 1701, and took his M.A. in 1718. In 1723 he was appointed professor of Greek in Marischal College, and in 1748 its principal. He died at Edinburgh, 8th March 1756. He was author of *Inquiry into the Life and Writings of Homer* (1735), *Memoirs of the Court of Augustus* (3 vols. 1752-64), and two or three other works.

Blackwood, WILLIAM, a distinguished Edinburgh publisher, the originator of *Blackwood's Magazine*, was born in Edinburgh, November 20, 1776. After serving his apprenticeship to the book-selling business in his native city, and prosecuting his calling in Glasgow and London, he settled in Edinburgh as a bookseller—principally of old books—in 1804. In 1817, having six years before become a publisher on his own account, he issued the first number of *Blackwood's Magazine*. The literary ability displayed in this periodical was so much in advance of the monthly magazines then existing, that from the first it was a great success. Its

remarkable popularity was sustained by the papers of Wilson ('Christopher North'), Lockhart, Hogg, and other spirits, whom Blackwood had the liberality and tact to attract to his standard. Overwhelming its political and literary opponents, now with the most farcical humour, and now with the bitterest sarcasm—sometimes with reckless injustice—the magazine secured for itself a prodigious reputation, more particularly among the Tories, of whose political creed it has always been a resolute adherent. William Blackwood himself, who added literary tastes and acquirements to his profession of a bookseller, was the chief manager of his magazine, and conducted the whole of the correspondence connected with it until his death, which took place September 16, 1834. His place was filled, between 1834 and 1852, by his sons, Alexander and Robert, the early death of the former cutting short a career of great promise. Under John (1818-79), the third son, who was editor from 1852, *Magu* not only sustained but increased its reputation; and the places of its old contributors are still supplied by many of the most distinguished writers in the country. The publishing business has been greatly extended since the days of the founder of the house, 'George Eliot's' novels having all but one issued hence.

Bladder (urinary) is a hollow bag for the reception of the urine. When moderately distended it has a capacity of about a pint, but under various conditions it is capable of holding far more. Thus, the bladder of a drunkard has been seen so dilated that it held twenty pints, and when completely paralysed there is no limit to its distension. Instances of very large bladders are not infrequent in females, but this is probably the result of over-distension, and not due to the female bladder being naturally larger than that of the male. Indeed, competent authorities state that the reverse is the case.

In all young animals possessing a bladder, it is elongated in form, indicating that originally it was a tube. In an infant it is pear-shaped—the condition which is permanent in quadrupeds; but as man gradually assumes the erect attitude, the lower part expands under the weight of the urine. In the adult, its size, shape, position, and relations to surrounding organs vary according to its state of collapse or distension. When empty it sinks deeply into the pelvis, and appears flattened above and below; when moderately full its form is rounded, but still it remains within the pelvis; when completely distended it projects above the brim of the pelvis, becoming an abdominal organ, and having an ovoid or egg-shaped outline. It now presents a *base* or larger end directed backwards, an *apex* or *summit*—the smaller end—directed upwards and resting against the lower part of the anterior abdominal wall. At the front of the base, the *urethra*, which leads off the urine, commences abruptly in a thickened portion named the *neck*. At this point the bladder is fixed to the walls of the pelvis by fibrous bands named *true ligaments*. In all other directions it is freely movable, although receiving support from surrounding parts such as rectum or vagina, according to the sex, also to a slight extent from blood-vessels and the two ducts from the kidneys (ureters), and lastly from the peritoneum, which, on account of its various reflections from the organ, forms folds known as the *false ligaments*. The wall of the bladder consists of several layers or coats, in which blood-vessels and nerves ramify. The *outer coat* is formed of peritoneum, which only partially invests the bladder, being found on its upper and posterior half. The *next coat* consists of bundles of muscular fibres arranged in various directions. Between this and the lining membrane there is a well-marked layer consisting of areolar tissue, in which the

blood-vessels ramify, and named the vascular or *submucous coat*. The lining membrane (*mucous coat*) is soft and smooth. It is continuous with the lining membrane of the ureters and that of the urethra. Being loosely attached, it is nearly everywhere thrown into wrinkles, which disappear as the bladder is distended. If an imaginary line be drawn between the openings of the ureters, and from each end of this line others be drawn to the orifice of the urethra at the neck of the bladder, a triangular portion of the base will be mapped out, having its apex pointing forwards, and each side measuring about an inch and a half. Within this area, to which the name *trigone* is applied, there are never any wrinkles, even when the bladder is empty, because the mucous coat adheres more closely to subjacent parts. This area has a greater number of blood-vessels and nerves than other parts of the bladder, and therefore possesses more acute sensibility. As the urine accumulates in the bladder, its pressure on the trigone gives rise to the feeling of a full bladder and the necessity for micturition. The intense pain produced by stone in the bladder is due to the same cause (see CALCULUS). As the bladder becomes distended, its muscular walls begin to contract periodically upon the fluid contents; so do the muscular fibres which surround the outlet of the bladder - viz. the urethra. As long as the pressure within the bladder is not very high, the latter is able to resist the former, as is seen during sleep; but after a certain stage of distension is reached, the contractions of the bladder wall overcome those of the fibres, closing the urethra, and the bladder is emptied. This process occurs naturally in young children, but as age advances the fibres surrounding the outlet of the bladder come under the control of the will, and thus the urine can be voluntarily retained or expelled. The bladder is liable to catarrhal inflammation of the coats, to paralysis, and other affections. Rupture of the bladder by accident is usually fatal. For incontinence of urine and retention of urine, see URINE. There is no urinary bladder in birds (see BIRD).

In general *zoological* usage, the term bladder is applied (1) to that outgrowth from the dorsal surface of the gut which forms the Air- or Swim-bladder (q.v.) of many fishes, and serves in a few cases as an incipient lung; and (2) to the urinary bladder. It is necessary to note, however, that the latter may have a very different origin in different animals. (a) In the gristly fishes the terminal extremities of the so-called 'Wolffian ducts' coalesce to form a urinary cloaca, which opens into the general cloacal chamber. (b) In the bony fishes the urinary bladder is a dilatation at the exit of the ureter. (c) In amphibia the bladder arises as an outgrowth from the hind-gut, and represents the allantois of higher animals. (d) In reptiles the stalk of the allantois dilates to form a permanent urinary bladder, which is absent in birds. (e) In mammals the stalk of the allantois again dilates to form the bladder.

Bladder Campion. See *SILENE*.

Bladder-cherry (*Physalis alkekengi*). See WINTER-CHERRY.

Bladder Green is derived from the Buckthorn (q.v.).

Bladder-nut (*Staphylea*), a very widely distributed genus of deciduous shrubs or small trees of rather elegant appearance, usually referred to the order Celastraceae (see SPINDLE-TREE). The Common Bladder-nut (*S. pinnata*) is frequently planted in shrubberies, as is also the North American *S. trifoliata*. The wood of both is firm and white, well suited for the purposes of the turner. The seeds yield a good oil, and may be eaten, but act as a mild aperient. The flower-buds are

pickled as capers. The name bladder-nut has reference to the curious inflated membranous



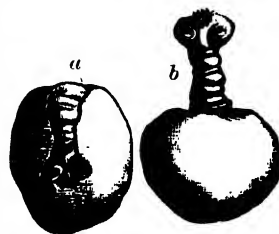
Common Bladder-nut (*Staphylea pinnata*):
a, a flower; b, fruit.

capsule, and the hard bony *testa* of the seed. The name *Staphylea* is from the Gr. *staphylē*, 'a bunch of grapes,' and has reference to the racemed flowers.

Bladder-seed (*Physospermum cornubiense*), an umbelliferous weed, noted for its inflated fruit.

Bladder-senna (*Crotalaria arborescens*), a leguminous tree of Southern Europe, occasionally planted in sheltered shrubberies. It owes its name partly to the dry inflated pod, partly to the tradition of the use of its leaflets for adulterating senna.

Bladder-worm, the asexual stage of a tapeworm or cestode. It is found encysted in a host which is likely to be eaten by the final host of the tapeworm. The stage owes its name to the bladder-like form resulting from the encysted embryo. Within the bladder a 'head' is developed (a in fig.), which is eventually turned outwards, and retains the bladder as a sort of appendage (b in fig.). In exceptional cases (see *Echinococcus*) the bladder buds off internally, not one head but many. On passing to the final host the bladder-worm loses its bladder, and the head or scolex, becoming attached to the gut, buds off the familiar chain of 'joints,' which gradually become sexually mature. Before the life-history of cestoid parasites was understood, the bladder-worms were described



Bladder-worm.

as separate organisms, but they are now known to be simply the asexual stages of an 'alternation of generations.' Thus the *Cysticercus cellulosae* or bladder-worm of the pig becomes the *Taenia solium* or tapeworm of man; the *C. mediocanellata* of ox, the *T. saginata* of man; the *C. fasciolaris* of the mouse, the *T. crassicolis* of the cat; the *Cenurus cerebralis* of the sheep, the *T. caninus* of dog; the *Echinococcus* of man, the *T. echinococcus* of dog, and so on. The bladder-worm is more passive, vegetative, and entirely asexual; the tapeworm

joint is more active, its nutrition probably more stimulating and variable, its reproduction sexual. See CESTOID WORMS, TAPEWORM.

Bladderwort (*Utricularia*), a genus of Lenticulariaceae, which like its congener the Butterwort (q.v.) is remarkable for its carnivorous habit. The one hundred and twenty species are often aquatic or floating, the leaves frequently floating, and divided, the flowers generally yellow. The stems and leaves bear the characteristic insect-catching pitchers. See INSECTIVOROUS PLANTS.

Bladensburg, a village of Maryland, on the east branch of the Potomac, 6 miles N.E. of Washington by rail. It was here that the battle which decided the fate of the capital was won by the British on the 24th August 1814.

Blaeberry. See WHORTLEBERRY.

Blae, a Scottish miners' name for the shale of the coal-measures, originating apparently from the 'blae' or bluish colour sometimes noticed in the shale. The term is occasionally used by geologists.

Blacu (spelt also *Blacur* and *Blaur*, Lat. *Cesius*), WILLEM JANSZON, a map-drawer and printer, was born at Alkmaar, Holland, in 1571. His Terrestrial and Celestial Globes excelled in beauty and accuracy everything that had preceded them; as also did some of his maps. He died in 1638. --His son, JAN (died 1673), commenced business on his own account at Amsterdam in 1637, but afterwards entered into company with his brother, Cornelis (died 1650). His *Atlas Major*, in 11 volumes, is a remarkable work, with many curious plates; and the maps are extremely valuable from the light they throw on local history. Besides six maps of Ireland, the volume on Scotland contains forty-nine maps of that country, prepared by Timothy Pont (q.v.), and a great amount of local details by Sir John Scott. He further published a series of topographical plates and views of towns. Jan left three sons, two of whom carried on the business with success until about 1700. Some of their classical publications, especially Cicero's *Orations* (1699), are highly prized.

Blagovestschensk, a town of the Amur province of Russian Asia, at the confluence of the Amur and Sejur rivers. Till 1882 it was the capital of the province (see AMUR). Pop. 7975.

Blaine, JAMES GILLESPIE, American journalist and statesman, born at West Brownsville, Pennsylvania, 31st January 1830, graduated at Washington College in 1847; and became a teacher in a military institute in Kentucky, and afterwards in the Pennsylvania institution for the blind. In 1854 he settled as a journalist at Augusta, Maine, and served in the state legislature from 1858 to 1862; from 1862 to 1876 he sat in congress, being Speaker in 1869-74. In the Republican nominations of 1876 and 1880 he was defeated by Hayes and Garfield. Appointed United States Senator for Maine in 1876, he served till 1881, and acted as Secretary of State under Garfield, but resigned on his assassination. The Republican candidate for the presidency in 1884, he was defeated at the polls by Cleveland. He is the author of *Twenty Years of Congress* (2 vols. 1884-86).

Blainville, HENRI MARIE DUCROTAY 'DE, zoologist and anatomist, was born in 1778, near Dieppe, studied medicine and the physical sciences at Paris, and in 1812 was appointed assistant-professor of Comparative Zoology, Anatomy, and Physiology, in the university, as well as professor of Natural History at the Athenaeum; in 1825 a member of the Institute; and in 1832 successor of Cuvier in the chair of Comparative Anatomy in the Museum of Natural History. He died May 1,

1850. Blainville achieved great success, not only as a teacher, but as the author of *Faune Française* (1821-30), *De l'Organisation des Animaux* (1822), *Cours de Physiologie Générale et Comparée* (1833), *Ostéographie* (1839-64), &c.

Blair, HUGH, was born at Edinburgh in 1718, and in 1730 entered the university, where his *Essay on the Beautiful* gave his preceptors a high idea of his ability and taste. In 1741 he was licensed as a preacher, and after occupying the churches of Collessie in Fife, Canongate, and Lady Yester's, he was promoted in 1758 to one of the charges of the High Church, Edinburgh. His discourses, which display little power or originality of thought, and which derived nothing from the delivery of their author, were greatly admired by 'persons of the most distinguished character and eminent rank' in Scotland on account of their polished style. In 1759 he commenced a series of lectures on *Composition* to classes in the university; and in 1762 he was appointed to a new regius chair of Rhetoric and Belles-lettres, with a salary of £70 a year. He resigned this post in 1783, and in the same year published his *Lectures*, which obtained a reputation far beyond their merits, and one that time has by no means confirmed. His *Sermons* (1777) enjoyed the approval not only of Dr Johnson, but of George III., who showed his appreciation by bestowing on Blair in 1780 a pension of £200 a year. Blair also published three other volumes of *Sermons*, and a fourth appeared after his death, which took place December 27, 1800. They were all as successful as the first. Opinion about their merits has much changed since the date of their publication; they are now considered as moral essays rather than sermons. Blair's critical acumen was not great; he strenuously defended the authenticity of Ossian's poems.

Blair, ROBERT, author of *The Grave*, was born in 1699 at Edinburgh, where his father was a clergyman. There and in Holland he was educated for the church, and in 1731 he was ordained minister of Athelstaneford, Haddingtonshire, where he lived in easy circumstances till his death 4th February 1746. He was an accomplished and thoughtful man, devoted considerable attention to natural science, particularly botany, and corresponded on friendly terms with several eminent contemporaries, among others, Watts and Doddridge. To them in 1742 he submitted the MS. of his poem, which Watts offered to two publishers. They thought it too heavy for the times, and it did not appear till 1743. It speedily attained an honourable place in the esteem of those capable of appreciating a masenline, though somewhat gloomy force of thought and imagery, applied to a profoundly suggestive and serious theme. In William Blake it found a congenial illustrator. Blair was succeeded in his ministerial charge by Home, the author of *Douglas*. His third son, Robert Blair, of Avontoun (1741-1811), became Lord President of the Court of Session.

Blair-Athole, a Perthshire village, situated at the confluence of the Garry and Tilt, 20 miles NNW. of Dunkeld. Blair Castle, the seat of the Duke of Athole, dates in its oldest part from the 13th century, and as restored in 1872 is a fine baronial structure. It has many memories of sieges and royal visits, from Queen Mary's days to Queen Victoria's. Claverhouse was buried in the old church of Blair.

Blairgowrie, a town of Perthshire, very picturesquely situated on the right bank of the Erich, 20 miles NNE. of Perth by a branch line (1855). It has flax spinning and weaving factories driven by the Erich. Pop. (1831) 1593; (1881) 4537.

Blaize. See BLASIUS.

Blake, ROBERT, next to Nelson the greatest of English admirals, was born at Bridgewater, the eldest of the twelve sons of a merchant there, in August 1599. From the grammar-school of his native town he passed in 1615 to St Alban's Hall, and shortly afterwards to Wadham College, Oxford, where he remained till 1625. He seems next to have continued his father's business, and to have prospered, but may from time to time have himself made voyages to distant seas, as prosperous merchants at that time very often did. He led the life of a quiet country gentleman until he had reached his fortieth year, and was returned for Bridgewater to the Short Parliament of 1640, that precluded the Civil War. He cast in his lot with the parliament without hesitation, but did not become a member of the Long Parliament till 1645. An ardent Republican, and a man of blunt, straightforward manners, singularly devoid of fear, and of inflexible character, he was much respected by Cromwell, but he never became personally very intimate with him. He served under Popham in Somersetshire, and attracted notice by his conduct at the siege of Bristol, and his obstinate defence of Lyme, in Dorsetshire, in 1644 against Prince Maurice. His defence of Taunton for nearly a year against overwhelming odds, when the town was little more than a heap of ruins, covered him with fresh glory, and proved a turning-point in the war.

In 1649 he was appointed with two others to command the fleet, at that time in a state of disaffection and weakness. Before two years he had blockaded Lisbon, destroyed the squadron of Prince Rupert, and forced the royalists to surrender the Scilly Isles and Jersey, their last stronghold. Early in 1652 began the struggle with the Dutch for the supremacy of the seas, and Blake found himself pitted against such redoubtable seamen as Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt. In the first engagement on the 19th May, though his fleet numbered over forty ships to Blake's fifteen, Van Tromp retreated under cover of darkness with the loss of two ships. It is right to add that the English ships were larger than the Dutch, and their artillery superior. On the 28th September Blake gave battle to De Ruyter and De Witt off the mouth of the Thames, both fleets about sixty-five ships in number. The fight ended with the flight of the Dutch next day. On the 29th November a fleet of eighty vessels under Van Tromp encountered Blake with scarcely forty off the Goodwin Sands. After a two days' hotly contested fight, victory remained with the Dutch. Blake lost six of his ships, but brought the remainder in a sadly shattered state into safety. In his report to the council of state he complains of the 'baseness of spirit, not among the merchantmen only, but many of the state's ships.' Van Tromp now scoured the Channel in triumph, and to this period belongs the apocryphal story of his having tied a broom to his mast-head. Blake asked to be released from his command, but by the middle of February 1653, he was again at sea with nearly eighty ships. On the morning of the 18th Van Tromp was sighted near Portland with about an equal force. A long running fight at once began, and lasted from Portland to Calais. Blake was severely wounded, but gained a complete victory, sinking five ships and capturing four, as well as over thirty merchantmen in Van Tromp's convoy. His ill-health prevented him from taking part in the engagement of the 31st July, which finally shattered the naval supremacy of Holland. In September 1654 he sailed with a fleet to the Mediterranean, where he soon made the English flag respected at Cadiz, Naples, and Leghorn alike. In April 1655 he sailed under the guns of Tunis, a nest of pirates, and burned a fleet of nine ships. He next sailed to Algiers, where the dey in terror

submitted to his terms. At the approach of winter he returned to England, but early in the spring of 1656 was cruising again off Cadiz. In September, Stayner, one of his lieutenants, fell in with the Plate fleet and captured it—a loss to Spain of nearly two millions in treasure alone.

But the crowning exploit of Blake's career was his last. Hearing early in April 1657 that a fleet from America had arrived at Santa Cruz de Teneriffe, he at once sailed thither, and on the morning of the 20th arrived in the bay where there were sixteen ships lying at anchor, 'moored close along the shore, which lies in a semicircle, commanded as far as the ships lay by the castle, and surrounded besides with six or seven forts.' Before night he completely destroyed the fleet and the town, and contrived to draw off, owing to a favourable change of wind, with a loss of 50 slain and 120 wounded. The wonderful daring and success of this exploit excited the utmost enthusiasm throughout England, and admiration throughout Europe. But it was the last of the great admiral's glories. With health fast failing, he returned homewards to die just as his ship entered the harbour of Plymouth, 7th August 1657. Cromwell honoured his memory by a stately funeral, and caused him to be interred in Westminster Abbey, whence the body was ousted at the Restoration. A window to his memory was placed in St Margaret's, Westminster, in 1888. Blake's skill and courage were equalled only by his disinterested patriotism, sterling honesty, and love of justice; he not only gained a decided superiority over England's mightiest naval opponent, but, by the boldness and novelty of the tactics he introduced, taught English seamen to attempt every enterprise, however difficult and doubtful, with the same reckless and easy daring. See Hannay's *Admiral Blake* (1886) in 'English Worthies.'

Blake, WILLIAM, engraver, painter, and poet, was born in London on the 28th of November 1757, the son of a hosier. He was a dreamy boy, addicted to drawing and verse-making, and fond of solitary rambles in the country, during which he believed that he saw visions of angels in the sky and among the trees. At the age of ten he began to study art in Parr's Academy in the Strand, and four years later he was apprenticed to James Basire, the engraver, in whose antiquarian prints he assisted, and for whom he executed drawings from the ancient monuments in the churches of London and its neighbourhood. His apprenticeship ended in 1778; and, after studying in the Antique School of the Royal Academy, he began to produce water-colour figure-subjects, and to engrave illustrations for the *Ladies' Magazine*, and, after Stothard, for the *Nocturnists' Magazine*. His first picture exhibited in the Royal Academy was 'The Death of Earl Godwin,' shown in 1780. His leisure had from early years been devoted to the composition of poems, of which the first volume, the *Poetical Sketches* by W. B., published in 1783, is full of true pastoral feeling and of an exquisitely spontaneous lyrical power. This work, with the *Songs of Innocence* (1789), and the *Songs of Experience* (1794), include the finest examples of Blake's poetry, for the so-called 'Prophetic Books'—the *Book of Thel* (1789), the *Marriage of Heaven and Hell* (1791), the *French Revolution* (1791), the *Song of Los* (1795), and many others—are strangely mystical and unintelligible, and owe most of the interest to the imaginative designs which are usually interwoven with their text.

All his poetical works, with the exception of the *Poetical Sketches* and the *French Revolution*, were produced in a method peculiar to the

artist himself, a method which, he related, was communicated to him in a vision by the spirit of a deceased brother. Their text, with its illustrative designs and decorative marginal enrichments, was inscribed upon copper-plates with a kind of stopping-out varnish, and the surrounding metal was then bitten away with acid, the result in each case being a plate in relief, which was printed on paper with ink of various tints, the impressions being finally coloured with extreme beauty and elaboration by the artist's own hand. His innumerable designs of poetic and imaginative figure-subjects were usually executed in washed monochrome or in water-colours. They include a superb series of 537 coloured illustrations to Young's *Night Thoughts*, of which 43 subjects were engraved by Blake and published in 1797, and 12 designs to Blair's *Grave*, which were etched by Schiavonetti and published in 1808. In his paintings Blake used a method which he was accustomed to style 'fresco'—in reality a process of tempera upon a ground prepared with glue and whiting. Among the most important of such works is 'The Canterbury Pilgrims,' purchased by Sir William Stirling-Maxwell of Keir, Perthshire, which the artist himself engraved, a picture quaint in conception, and showing the errors and exaggerations of form common in the artist's productions, but full of character and individuality; 'The Spiritual Form of Pitt guiding Behemoth,' now in the National Gallery, London; 'Jacob's Dream,' shown in the Royal Academy of 1808; and 'The Last Judgment,' one of his latest paintings, executed for the Countess of Egremont. It is, however, in his engravings from his own designs that Blake's finest artistic work is to be found; and among these the 21 'Illustrations to the Book of Job' hold the first place. They were the production of the artist's old age, published in 1826, when he was verging upon seventy. In imaginative force and visionary power they are unequalled in modern religious art and unsurpassed in the art of the past, while the directness and spirit of their method recalls the works of Durer and the other great painter-engravers of the 15th and 16th centuries. They were followed by the illustrations to Dante, upon which Blake was employed at the time of his death. He is also known as a wood-engraver by his series of 17 cuts contributed to a now very scarce edition of Thornton's *Virgil*. Though rude in execution, these prints are full of the very spirit of idyllic poetry, and their technique shows a remarkable perception of the true direction and special capabilities of the special artistic method.

During his life Blake met with little encouragement from the public. The exhibition of his works, which he held in 1809 in Broad Street, was a complete failure; his name was unknown to ordinary picture-buyers, and even at the end of his life, when he was producing his immortal 'Illustrations to the Book of Job,' he occupied, with his ever-faithful wife, a single small room in Fountain's Court, Strand. Yet he had his own little circle of true-hearted friends. The poet Hayley rendered him not ineffectual aid; Flaxman was his friend from youth; among his disciples in age were Samuel Palmer and John Linnell, and the generous assistance of the latter rendered his last days free from pecuniary anxiety. And all through his life he was upheld by the most real and vivid faith in the unseen, guided and encouraged—as he believed—by perpetual visitations from the spiritual world. He died in London on the 12th of August 1827, 'singing of the things he saw in heaven.' See Gilchrist's *Life and Works of William Blake* (2d ed. 1880), and Swinburne's *William Blake, a Critical Essay* (1868).

Blanc, LE, a town in the French department of Indre, on the Creuse, 68 miles SSE. of Tours by rail. Pop. (1886) 5724.

Blanc, MONT. See MONT BLANC.

Blanc, JEAN JOSEPH LOUIS, a celebrated French Socialist and historian, was born 29th October 1811, at Madrid, where his father was inspector-general of finance under King Joseph. After finishing his school education he went to study in Paris. For two years he was a private tutor at Arras, and in 1834 returned to Paris, where he contributed to various political papers, and where in 1839 he founded the *Revue du Progrès*, in which he first brought out his chief work on Socialism, the *Organisation du Travail*, which in 1840 appeared in a separate form. The book obtained for its author a wide, enthusiastic popularity among the French workmen, who were captivated by the brilliancy of the writing, the simplicity of the scheme, and the freshness of the views advocated. The book denounces the principle of competitive industry, and proposes the establishment of social workshops (*ateliers sociaux*), composed of workmen of good character, and subsidised by the state. These workshops, conducted on the co-operative principle, and on the basis of an equitable remuneration for all engaged in them, would, he thought, in the process of time absorb all the industry of France. Next, in 1841-44, Blanc published an historical work, entitled *Histoire de Dix Ans* (1830-40), which produced a deadly effect on the Orleans dynasty. Louis-Philippe afterwards declared that 'it acted like a battering-ram against the bulwarks of loyalty in France.' It owed its success partly to the exposure it made of the scandalous jobbery and immorality of the crown and its advisers, partly to that passionate ardour which changed the tranquillity of history into the vehemence of a pamphlet. This was followed by the first volume of a *Histoire de la Révolution Française*, in which the author's aim was to describe from his own point of view not only the incidents of the first revolution, but the social history of the 18th century. On the breaking out of the revolution of February 1848, Blanc had an opportunity of playing a most important part. His great popularity with the working-classes led to his being appointed a member of the Provisional Government, and he was placed at the head of the great commission for discussing the problem of labour, which had its sittings in the palace of the Luxembourg. At the same time, Marie, Minister of Public Works, began to establish the so-called national workshops (see ATELIERS NATIONAUX), which, however, were in no sense an attempt to carry out the views of Blanc. Blanc was accused without reason of a share in the disturbances of the summer of 1848, and escaped to London, where he spent many years. During his exile, he devoted himself to political and historical literature. He finished his *Histoire de la Révolution Française*, and carried on a large correspondence for the French journals, a selection from which was published in the bright and charming *Lettres sur l'Angleterre*. On the fall of the Empire, Blanc returned to France, and was elected to the National Assembly in 1871. After 1876 he was member of the Chamber of Deputies. In both these bodies he voted and acted with the extreme Left, but without exercising any great influence on the course of events. He died at Cannes, 6th December 1882. Louis Blanc was a man of genial and amiable personality, and a sincere believer in the most advanced political and social opinions, which he advocated with polished and fervid eloquence, but he was not robust enough to be a revolutionary leader.

Blanch, or **BLENCH HOLDING**, is one of the ancient feudal tenures in the law of Scotland without service or prestation, except as a mere badge of superiority, the duty payable to the superior being in general a trifling sum, as a penny Scots, or merely illusory, as a peppercorn, 'if asked only,' or a bunch of roses, or, as in the famous case of Jock Howieson, a service of ewer and basin that the king may wash. Anciently, many estates in Scotland were held, both of the crown and other superiors, by this tenure, and by the legislation which followed on the Rebellion of 1745 all the ward-holdings or military tenures in Scotland were converted into blench; but it is now seldom adopted in the constitution of an original right of property. The tenure is subject to the same casualties of non-entr^e and relief as that of Feu (q.v.). See **CHARTER, TENURE**.

Blanchard, **EDWARD LAMAN**, journalist and theatrical writer, a son of William Blanchard, the comedian, was born in London, 11th December 1820, and early in life showed great aptitude for journalistic work and compilation for the publishers. A member of the *Daily Telegraph* staff, he has written over one hundred pieces for the theatres, including many Christmas extravaganzas for Drury Lane Theatre. He has published two novels, and is the author of Bradshaw's *Descriptive Railway Guides*.

Blanchard, **LANAN**, born at Yarmouth, 15th May 1804, became a journalist in London in 1831, and died 15th February 1845. He was a popular writer of light literature. His prose essays were collected in 1846 as *Sketches of Life*, and his poetry in 1876.

Blanching, or **ETIOLATION**, is a process of culture resorted to by gardeners, to prevent certain secretions which, in ordinary circumstances, take place in the leaves of plants, and to render them more pleasant and wholesome for food. The action of light is indispensable to the decomposition of carbonic acid by the leaves of plants, and, consequently, to the elaboration of many of the substances from which they derive their peculiar qualities; the exclusion of light, therefore, renders them white or nearly so, and deprives them of much of their natural coarseness and bitterness. In cabbage and some other cultivated plants, the leaves of which form themselves into compact heads, there is a process of natural blanching. Artificial blanching is managed (1) by earthing up the leaves and succulent stems of plants, such as celery, asparagus, &c. For this purpose celery is planted in trenches, and earth is gradually drawn in round the stems as they advance in growth. (2) By tying together the leaves with strings of matting, as is sometimes done with lettuce, endive, &c. (3) By overlaying, which can be done with tiles, slates, pieces of board, or utensils made for the purpose. The most common is the blanching-pot, used to exclude the light from seakale, rhubarb, and some other culinary vegetables, in which the green colour is to be avoided. The common blanching-pot is of earthenware, in a sugar-loaf form, which is used in France for blanching lettuce, and in the Pyrenees for blanching celery, &c. Though so simple and easy, blanching is of great importance in gardening. Without it such a plant as seakale is uneatable if not poisonous; with it the common dandelion has become a wholesome and even medicinal article of salad.

Blanc-mange (Old Fr. *blanc-manger*, 'white food'), a dish formerly made of fowl, meat, eggs, &c.; now of gelatine or isinglass and milk, or of corn-flour and milk.

Blanco, **CAPE**, a remarkable headland on the west coast of Africa, in 20° 47' N. lat., and 16°

58' W. long., the extremity of a rocky ridge which projects from the Sahara in a westerly direction, and then bending southward, forms a commodious harbour called the Great Bay. Cape Blanco was first discovered by the Portuguese in 1441.—Cape Blanco (i.e. 'white cape') is also the name of several less important headlands in Spain, Greece, America, and the Philippines.

Bland Act. See **BIMETALLISM**.

Blandford, a town in Dorsetshire, on the right bank of the Stour, 10 miles NW. of Wimborne. It lies in a fine tract of pasture-land, famed for its multitude of cows. It suffered much in 1579, 1677, 1713, and 1731, from fire, only twenty-six houses escaping on the last occasion. It is built of brick, and is neat and regular; its chief charm is Bryanston Park, Lord Portman's seat. It was formerly famed for its manufactures of bandstrings and lace, the point-lace bringing £30 a yard. Shirt-buttons are made here. Pop. (1851) 3912; (1881) 3791.

Blandrata, **GIORGIO**, properly **BIANDRATA**, the founder of Unitarianism in Poland and Transylvania, was born of a noble family at Saluzzo, in Piedmont, about 1515. The freedom of his religious opinions compelled him to flee to Geneva in 1556, where he remained till Calvin's displeasure at his anti-trinitarianism drove him to Poland for liberty of thought and speech. Finally, in 1563, he betook himself to the court of John Sigismund, Prince of Transylvania, whose favourite physician he became. Here he exerted himself with as much prudence as assiduity to spread his doctrines, and succeeded in forming a considerable party. He died about 1590, strangled, so it was said, by his nephew, as he slept.

Blane, **SIR GILBERT**, physician, was born at Blanefield, Ayrshire, in 1749. He studied at Edinburgh University, and in 1779 sailed with Lord Rodney to the West Indies, where his gallantry under fire gained him the appointment of physician to the fleet. In 1783 he was elected physician to St Thomas's Hospital, London. As head of the Navy Medical Board, he was instrumental in introducing the use of lemon-juice and other measures for the prevention or remedy of diseases on board ship. In 1812 he had a baronetcy conferred upon him. He died June 26, 1834. He published several works.

Blank Bonds. See **BONDS**.

Blankenberghe, a village on the coast of West Flanders, 9 miles N. of Bruges by rail and canal, with a harbour and lighthouse. There are fisheries and shipbuilding, and the place is a popular summer-resort. Pop. (1884) 3328.

Blankenburg, a town of Brunswick, 37 miles SSE. of the capital, on the borders of the Harz Mountains. Pop. (1885) 6010, chiefly engaged in mining.—There is a second Blankenburg, with 2120 inhabitants, in the Rudolstadt division of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, 25 miles S. by W. of Weimar. It is a favourite bathing-place.

Blanketeers, the name applied to a body of Manchester operatives who on 10th March 1847 met in St Peter's Field, provided each with a blanket for bivouacking. They meant to join a contingent from Derby, and march on London; but they were dispersed.

Blankets. The best qualities of those made in England are wholly of wool, but what may be called a typical English blanket of medium or inferior quality is generally formed of cotton warp and woollen weft threads, since, owing to the peculiar way much of the wool is spread in an open pile over the surface of the fabric, the cotton gives it strength. One of the chief aims of the

manufacturer is to raise the fibres of the woollen yarn into a loose, soft mat on the face of this kind of blanket, which hides the threads below. This is effected by Teazles (q.v.), or steel brushes, in what are called gigs or brushing machines. Scotch blankets, even of ordinary quality, on the other hand, are entirely made of wool, and are finished in a different way, the pile on the surface not being sufficient to hide the twilled pattern into which they are woven. An imitation of the Scotch blanket is made in some mills at Sowerby-Bridge in Yorkshire. Cloth or Bury blankets, again, have a surface more like ordinary woollen cloth. Witney, Kersey, Yorkshire, and Bath are the best-known varieties of English blankets. Dewsbury in Yorkshire is the principal centre of the trade. The Scotch blanket mills are chiefly situated in Ayrshire, Berwickshire, and at Markinch in Fife. Some blankets made in Ayrshire are not of the ordinary Scotch type. The 'Witney' and 'Bath' are perhaps the most comfortable blankets made in Great Britain, but none of the English kinds can compare with the Scotch blanket for economy. The latter is by far the most durable.

Foreign visitors to the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876 were surprised at the luxurious nature of the more expensive kinds of American blankets exhibited, which find a market in that country at from thirty to fifty dollars a pair. An official report states that nothing comparable with these in weight, thickness, softness, and perfection of face had ever before been attempted. It also mentions that the lowest grades of blankets, composed of shoddy, hair, and the coarsest wool, which are saleable abroad, cannot be disposed of in America—even the savage Indians will not have them. Extraordinarily fine woollen blankets are made in Mysore in India; some, it is said, so delicate that, though as much as 18 feet long, they can be rolled inside a hollow bamboo. Such fancy blankets cost £30. English blankets range in price from four to forty shillings per pair. Some more costly kinds are made, but the market for them is very limited.

Blank Verse, or verse without rhyme, a name applied especially to the iambic pentameter or unrhymed five-foot iambic, the so-called heroic verse, the regular measure of English dramatic and epic poetry. The first specimen of blank verse in English is a translation of the second and fourth books of Virgil's *Aeneid*, by the Earl of Surrey (beheaded in 1547); but it had been used freely by Italian and Spanish writers as early as about the beginning of that century. The first example of an English poem, of any length (not dramatic) in blank verse is *The Steele Glas* (1576) of Gascoigne. Two short poems of Nicholas Grimald, published in *Tottel's Miscellany* in 1557, are the earliest specimens in English of original blank verse. In England the adaptation of this verse to the drama, from its elasticity and the freedom gained by the variations of the pause, was at once felt, and in that department of poetry it soon became and has continued dominant, if we except the effort made by Dryden and others, after the Restoration, to return to rhymed plays. For dramatic purposes the four-accent line is too short, and breaks the sense too often, while the six-accent line is so long as to be tedious without the relief of rhyme. The five-accent verse was a satisfactory mean between the two. The dramatic line, representing the language of actual life, approaches more nearly to prose, and consequently enjoys more license than any other metre. Not merely is the trochee freely substituted for the iambus after any pause however slight, but an extra syllable is also allowed at the end of a line or sentence (even in Milton), and in some cases even two extra

syllables, if these do not interfere with the regular recurrence of the accent.

Of course in verses of five accents it is impossible to divide the line into two *equal* parts, so that there must needs be variation in the position of the pause to avoid what would otherwise be unendurable monotony. In verse without rhyme much of the beauty of the rhythm depends on the poet's skillfulness in the variation of the pause, and no one has varied it with more boldness and finer effect than Milton. Professor Mayor points out that 'Tennyson and Browning, as compared with Milton, have more lines with final, but without internal pause; somewhat fewer with internal, but without final pause; about the same without any pause at all. As to the forbidden internal pauses, they use the pause after the first, third, and ninth syllables more frequently than Milton, and do not differ much from him in their use of the pause after one and a half, two, and eight. With regard to the middle pauses, those which divide the feet, coming after the fifth or seventh syllable, are more favoured by the moderns than by Milton, whose commonest pause is after the sixth syllable, and then *longo intervallo* after the fourth. The pause after the fourth seems to be Tennyson's favourite, while Browning seems to prefer the fifth and seventh. This last also abounds in Swinburne. Feminine ending is very rare in Browning, but in Tennyson is hardly less frequent than in Milton. Nor is there any marked difference as regards substitution of feet, except that the non-initial trochee is more common in Milton than in the others.' The initial trochee is as common in Surrey as in Milton. The rhythm of the former is frequently harsh and abrupt. Trisyllabic feet are not infrequent, and as often as not there is no middle pause. Marlowe's rhythm is much more regular in accentuation than Surrey's, but occasionally we find monosyllabic feet and lines of nine syllables formed by initial truncation. Feminine rhythm is also more frequent than in Surrey's usage, and even the two superfluous syllables at the end of the line occur here also. Many of Shakespeare's defective lines are capable of explanation by a pause or a lengthened syllable. Examples of elision and slurring are frequent, and trisyllabic feet are not uncommon, but genuine Alexandrines are not numerous. The superfluous syllable at the end is rare in his earlier plays, but there is a steady increase in its use in the later plays. It is but rarely a monosyllable, still more rarely an emphatic monosyllable. Such amphibrachic or 'double endings' are especially common in Fletcher's verse.

Dryden followed Corneille in demanding rhyme for the dignity of tragedy. He sums up its advantages in aid to the memory, in additional grace added by the sweetness of rhyme to the smartness of a repartee, and in the limits that it lays upon the fancy, which without such restraint tends to outrun judgment. Milton's *Paradise Lost* (1667) was the first great poem in our literature written in blank verse. Appended at the publisher's request was a short preface in three sentences, entitled 'The Verse.' Here the poet, with customary vigour of phrase, claims exemption from 'the troublesome and modern bondage of riming . . . to all judicious ears, trivial and of no true musical delight . . . no necessary adjunct or true ornament of poem or good verse, in longer works especially, but the invention of a barbarous age, to set off wretched matter and lame metre.' From Milton's time blank verse has been as common a form for narrative, didactic, or descriptive poetry, as rhymed couplets with their 'jingling sound of like endings.' Some would restrict the name blank verse to the ordinary heroic metre or lines of ten syllables; by others the

term is applied more widely to unrhymed lines, irrespective of their length, from such examples as the *Huicatha* of Longfellow, which contains eight syllables in its lines, to his *Evangeline*, which has as many as sixteen or even more.

The five-foot iambic appears early in both Italian and French, but in neither did it shake off the bondage of rhyme, as it did in England by the middle of the 16th century, so as to offer a sufficiently strong and flexible form for dramatic and epic poetry. French influences long exercised a restraining effect on its use in German, but English freedom made its way through the efforts of the elder Schlegel, Wieland, Klopstock, Herder, and others, until Lessing employed the unrhymed five-foot iambic in his *Nathan* in 1778, and thus set a precedent for its use in dramatic poetry. In earlier German verse in this measure as in French, each five-foot line was complete in itself, but Lessing introduced the usage of the Italians, and still more the English, of connecting lines by *enjambement* and building them up into long periods. Schiller's first plays were written in prose, but in 1786 he began to employ the five-foot iambic as modified by Lessing.

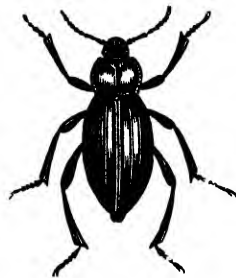
See chapters ix.-xii. of J. B. Mayor's *Chapters on English Metre* (1886), with its 'Postscript' containing a summary of an essay by Zarncke (Leip. 1865).

Blanqui, JÉRÔME ADOLPHE, a French economist, was born in 1798 at Nice, and commenced the study of philology at Paris, where he became acquainted with J. B. Say, who induced him to turn his attention to political economy. In 1833, on the death of Say, he was appointed professor of Industrial Economy in the Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers, and became one of the editors of the *Dictionnaire de l'Industrie*. In 1838 he became a member of the Academy of Moral and Political Science. Subsequently he travelled in several countries to study their economic condition. He died at Paris 28th January 1854. As a political economist, Blanqui was a follower of Say, and in favour of free-trade, and he recognised the social difficulties of his time. In method, he is ingenious; in style, transparent and lively. His most important work is the *Histoire de l'Economie Politique en Europe* (1838).—His brother, LOUIS AUGUSTE BLANQUI, was born at Nice in 1805, and made himself conspicuous chiefly by his passionate advocacy of the most extreme political opinions, for which he suffered with the pride of a martyr. He was one of the foremost fighters in all the French revolutions of this century. In 1830 he was decorated for his valour at the barricades. In 1848 he figured as the chief organiser of the popular movement under the Provisional Government. He took the lead also in the revolutionary *attentat* of the 15th May, the aim of which was to overthrow the Constituent Assembly. At the head of an excited mob, he demanded of the French representatives the resuscitation of the Polish nationality, while one of his friends pronounced the dissolution of the assembly. For his share in these disturbances he was rewarded with ten years' imprisonment in Belleisle. In 1861 Blanqui was sentenced to other four years' imprisonment. After the downfall of the second empire in 1870, Blanqui resumed his revolutionary activity, and in 1871 took a prominent part in forming the Commune. Being too unwell to endure transportation in New Caledonia, he was condemned to imprisonment for life, from which he was released in 1879. He died January 1, 1881, having spent nearly half his life in prison.

Blantyre, or HIGH BLANTYRE, a village of Lanarkshire, situated near the right bank of the Rotten Calder, 8½ miles SE. of Glasgow by rail, in a coal and iron mining district. Pop. (1881) 701.

Low Blantyre, 1½ miles NE., has dyeworks, and a weaving factory where young David Livingstone, the future African traveller, and a native of the place, worked as a 'piecer'; here also are his memorial church and statue. Pop. (1881) 1029. — Also the name of a Scottish mission-station founded in 1876, to the south of Lake Nyassa, Central Africa. It is situated on the heights between the Upper Shiré and Lake Shirwa, in a well-wooded district.

Blaps, a genus of Black Beetles (q.v.), with more than 100 species. They are dark and darkness-loving forms, wingless, leisurely in their movements, feeding on dead vegetable matter, and with the power of ejecting for several inches an acrid fluid of pungent odour. *Blaps mortisaga* is a common British species, of about an inch long, and of a shining black colour. It is sometimes called Darkling Beetle, and Churchyard Beetle, and sometimes seems to share with the Cockroach (q.v.) the appellation of Black Beetle.



Blaps.

It is a frequent companion of the cockroach in pantries and cellars, and used to be thought a messenger of death, but is rather frequent for such an ominous function.—*Blaps sulcata* is cooked with butter and eaten by Turkish women in Egypt, under the notion that it will make them fat, this being, in their estimation, one of the chief points of beauty.

Blarney (from the name of a castle near Cork, in the wall of which is a stone, difficult of access, that is said to endure any one who kisses it with heroic powers of cajolery), an Irish colloquial term, now general, applied to any smooth and excessively complimentary or cajoling talk.

Blasius, St. Bishop of Sebaste, Cappadocia, suffered martyrdom in 316. At one period his cult must have been widely diffused, judging from the extent of territory over which his relics were scattered. The wool-combers claim him as their patron, the reason being that iron combs were used to tear his flesh. He is said, moreover, to have saved the only son of a rich widow from choking by a fish-bone; hence he is invoked in extracting a thorn or anything sticking in the throat. His day falls on 3d February.

Blasphemy, according to the canon law, was either heretical or simple. The former consisted in denying God or an article of faith, and this was regarded as injuring the reputation of the Deity, and shocking the mysteries of religion. Simple blasphemy, on the other hand, consisted in making untrue and unbecoming statements about God, the Virgin, or the saints. These offences were severely punished both at Rome and in the Cismontane churches, though not with the capital penalty which was usual against blasphemers under the Jewish law. In England the law is partly statutory. A statute of 1698, which was repealed in 1813 so far as it protected the doctrine of the Trinity, declares it to be an offence 'to assert that there are more gods than one, to deny the Christian religion to be true, or the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments to be of divine authority.' The punishment is incapacity to hold office, and on a second conviction imprisonment for three years. Under this statute such writers as Matthew Arnold, F. W. Newman, and J. S. Mill could undoubtedly

be convicted, however serious and high-minded are their books. But the prosecutions for blasphemy in England have been under the common law, and there is a difference of opinion among the highest authorities whether the simple reverent statement of certain opinions amounts to blasphemy, or whether a scoffing and contumelious spirit is not necessary to complete the offence. The older cases, such as that of Woolston who in 1728 attacked the Christian miracles, Williams who published Paine's *Age of Reason* in 1797, Carlisle in 1819, and Moxon who sold Shelley's *Queen Mab*, tend to show that, as Lord Kenyon said, 'the Christian religion is part of the law of the land,' and therefore that to question its truth, however seriously, is an offence. The theory of such convictions is much weakened by the legislation permitting jurors and witnesses to avoid the oath, for it was thought that the theological sanction of Christianity was necessary for the due administration of justice. But the more recent case of Cowan, who in 1867 proposed to lecture on 'the character and teachings of Christ; the former defective, the latter misleading,' confirms the view that blasphemy depends on the character of the matter published, not the manner in which it is stated. The opposite doctrine was laid down by Lord Coleridge in the case of Foote and Ramsay in 1883. These men were guilty of scurrilous, offensive, and even indecent caricatures of Christian doctrine, and this is the character of much of the free-thought literature of the day. The complete toleration of religious opinion which now exists renders it so improbable that any one will be prosecuted for a decent expression of disbelief in Christianity, that it is unnecessary to discuss this point further. All the definitions of blasphemy protect not merely the leading Christian dogmas and the evidences of Christianity, but also the formularies of the Church of England as by law established. It may be pointed out that, as in the case of Page Hopps, at Glasgow in 1874, Unitarian books are held not to be blasphemous at common law, and to be therefore entitled to copyright. This would seem to imply that the principle laid down in Foote's case is right. In Scotland there is also a statute law and a common law of blasphemy. The Acts of 1661 and 1695 are unrepealed, and it is still an offence punishable by fine and imprisonment to deny the authority of the Scriptures or the providence of God in the government of the world. It was under the latter statute that the atrocious judicial murder of Aikenhead, with the approval of the ministers of Edinburgh, was perpetrated in 1693. As in the case of the Edinburgh booksellers Paterson of West Register Street, and Robinson of Greenside Street, in 1843, it is a crime at common law to publish an impious book devised to ridicule or bring into contempt the Scriptures or the Christian religion. The accused in these cases were sentenced to fifteen and twelve months' imprisonment. The courts of the United States also hold that one who maliciously uses language calculated to sap the foundations of society and public order may be punished; but evil motive is essential to the offence, and discussion of religious doctrine is not to be interfered with.

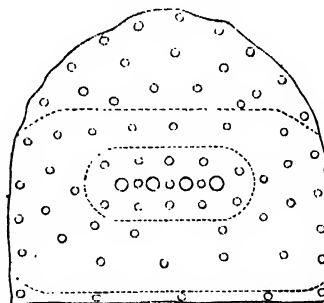
Blast-furnace. See the articles BLOWING-MACHINES and IRON.

Blasting is the method of loosening or shattering masses of solid fracturable matter by means of explosive compounds. It is an operation of fundamental importance in Engineering and Mining, for, without the agency of powerful explosives, many of the greatest undertakings of modern times would have been practically impossible. Previous to the invention of gunpowder the only means of

quarrying stone and of extracting minerals from the earth was by the hammer, chisel, and wedge, or by the expansive power of heat. For obtaining large regular blocks of stone the wedge is still used, and blasting has to do not so much with quarrying as with disintegrating rock in the sinking of shafts, the cutting of tunnels, the formation of roads and railways, the removal of obstructions to navigation, and generally the shattering of solid masses, irrespective of the shape of the debris produced.

The explosives commonly used in blasting consist of gunpowder and preparations of nitro-glycerine, nitro-cotton or gun-cotton, and of several nitrates and chlorates. Blasting-powder contains less nitre than ordinary gunpowder, and is made in pellets of varying size, according to the extent of the blast. Nitro-glycerine is now used in the free condition only under exceptional circumstances, owing to the great risk of accidental explosion. As Dynamite (q.v.) it is absorbed and retained by porous ingredients with comparative safety and little diminished blasting efficiency. Gun-cotton (q.v.) is employed in the form of Lithofracteur, and in combination with nitrate of barium, under the name of Tonite. Blasting-jelly or gelatine, which is now largely used in the form of dynamite, consists of a solution of gun-cotton in nitro-glycerine, making a thick jelly-like mass of great explosive power. Numerous other explosives have been proposed and introduced, but many of them, from their instability, or from the great risks of their manufacture and handling, are prohibited under the provisions of the Explosives Act (see EXPLOSIVES). Among the drawbacks connected with the use of these substances must be reckoned the poisonous gases evolved by their explosion, and the danger of gas and dust explosions in fiery mines from sparks spread by blast-shots. For use in coal-pits, blasting-cartridges of highly compressed air, and of quicklime, have been proposed without success; but much more hopeful results are obtained from the use of the new water-cartridge, in which gelatine dynamite is surrounded with water.

The use of modern explosives renders three kinds of blasting practicable—(1) the small-shot system, (2) the mine system, and (3) surface blasts. The small-shot system consists of boring holes, 1 inch to 1½ inch diameter, sometimes more, and from 18 inches to 6 or 7 feet into the solid rock. The boring is done either by hand or machine power (see



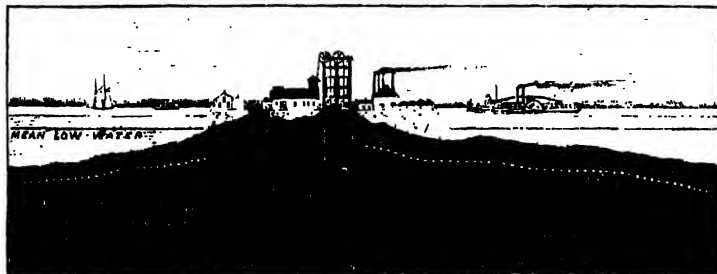
Section of Mont Cenis Tunnel.

BORING). The hole is cleaned out, and the charge, generally in the form of a cartridge of sufficient diameter for the bore, is placed in its extreme end, and the remainder of the hole is tamped or closed with sand or clay. With the cartridge is connected a length of Bickford's time-fuse, which burns at a rate sufficient to enable the workmen to reach a shelter-place before the explosion takes place. In tunnelling and shaft-sinking a series of shot-holes,

which embrace the superficial area to be excavated are driven and exploded in a connected manner, a core or central set being first fired off, after which a ring of shots around the core are simultaneously fired, and so on till the whole area is embraced. The accompanying sectional diagram of Mont Ceniz Tunnel shows the position of the shot-holes in the face of the workings. For this simultaneous firing, lengths of fuse corresponding to the number of shots are connected in a metal case, called an igniter, whence they pass each to a separate shot-hole. But single or combined shots are fired with great advantage by electricity, for which purpose special cartridges, provided with two insulated wires instead of time-fuse, are used. These wires are connected up to any number of shot-holes, and the explosion is produced by a current of electricity passing from a special apparatus.

Large blasts or mines are resorted to when great masses of rock have to be removed at once, or when a great supply of irregularly broken stone is required. These blasts are of two kinds—shafts sunk from the top of the rock, and headings or galleries driven in from the face. In a shaft mine the charge of powder is placed in a chamber cut at one side of the shaft, so that the tamping may not be in the direct up line of fire. It is exploded by electricity, the wires from the battery being protected from injury from the rough tamping by being embedded in battens placed up one side of the shaft. Headings are driven, if possible, along a natural joint in the rock. The explosive may be divided and placed in two or more separate chambers, and it is better to distribute large charges than to fire them at one centre. The charges in these mines vary from 600 lb. to 13,000 lb. of powder, and even more, and they should dislodge from 3 to 6 tons of stone per lb. of powder exploded. The Round-down Cliff, on the South-Eastern Railway at Dover, was in 1843 overthrown by a blast of 18,500 lb. of powder in three separate charges. At Craze Quarry, Argyllshire, in September 1886, a blast of 14,000 lb. of powder dislodged 60,000 tons of granite. Immediately after the explosion a crowd of onlookers rushed into the quarry, and by the liberation of poisonous gases in the confined state, nearly sixty persons were overcome, of whom seven died without recovering consciousness.

The removal of Hell Gate or Flood Island, in



Section Diagram of Hell Gate Tunnels.

Long Island Sound, New York, was the occasion of the greatest blast the world has yet seen. The island was about 9 acres in extent, and for blowing up this huge mass, it was honeycombed under low-water mark with tunnels—24 galleries running in one direction, intersected by 46 at right angles. These galleries were pierced in every direction with drill-holes, of which there were bored 12,561, with a depth of 9 feet, and a diameter of 3 inches—in all, more than 20 miles of drill-holes. Into each of these was inserted first, a cartridge of rackarock—one of Sprengel's patent explosives, consisting of

79 parts chlorate of potash and 21 parts dinitrobenzole; and, second, a cartridge of dynamite, the two together filling the entire bore. In all, there were used 240,399 lb. of rackarock and 42,331 lb. of dynamite. Water was admitted to the mine, and it was exploded on the 10th October 1885. In the operations 80,166 cubic yards of rock were tunnelled out, and 270,717 cubic yards were blasted. The resistance offered to the explosives equalled 500,000 tons of rock and 200,000 tons of water.

Surface blasts are explosions produced by firing the explosive simply in contact with, or placed near the substance to be shattered. Such blasts have become possible only since the introduction of detonating explosives. Gunpowder fired in an unconfined space would spend its force through the air, and produce little local effect; but the explosion of nitroglycerine, gun-cotton, and other nitro compounds is so sudden that it acts with enormous violence in every direction, though within a limited area. Thus blasts of detonating compounds laid on the surface of any rock, &c., and fired by a detonator, operate downward and produce great shattering effects. Surface blasts have been largely used in removing reefs and other obstructions to navigation in the Long Island Channel, New York, which altogether has been the arena of the greatest of all blasting operations. Surface blasting is illustrated by the effects of the few successful explosions which have been perpetrated by dynamitars in London and elsewhere.

Blastoderm, an embryological term applied to the layer or layers of cells arising from the germinal disc, or the portion of a partially segmenting egg which undergoes division. In ova where there is a large quantity of nutritive material or yolk, as in fish or bird, the whole ovum cannot divide, and only a small (germinal) disc of 'formative protoplasm' does so. The cells resulting from the division of this area become afterwards disposed in the ordinary germinal layers, and are in their earlier stages, as they grow round the yolk, and become in their area of origin the seat of embryonic development, called the blastoderm. See EMBRYOLOGY.

Blastoids. See ECHINODERMS.

Blatta. See COCKROACH.

Blaye (ancient *Blavia*), a river-port of France, in the department of Gironde, 20 miles NNW. of Bordeaux. It is built on the right bank of the islet of Gironde, here 2½ miles broad, at the base of a rocky eminence crowned with Vauban's strong citadel (1652). Roland the Brave is said to have been buried at Blaye by Charlemagne. Pop. (1886) 3376.

Blazon, or **BLASON** (Ger. *blasen*, 'to blow,' as with a horn), a heraldic term which originated in the custom of blowing a trumpet to announce the arrival of a knight, or his entrance into the lists at a joust or tournament. The blast was answered by the heralds, who described aloud and explained the arms borne by the knight. Blazon and blazonry thus came to signify the art of describing a coat of arms in such manner that any one acquainted with the technical language of heraldry may be able to draw it accurately from the description. The rules of Blazon are explained under HERALDRY.

Bleaching (A.S. *blæcan*, from *blæc*, 'pale,' 'bleak') is the whitening of textile materials or fabrics by the removal of coloured substances natu-

rally present or adhering to them in the course of their manufacture. It is also used to signify the decolouring of beeswax, castor-oil, and similar fatty materials by exposure to sunlight, sometimes in presence of water. From time immemorial open-air bleaching, with sun exposure, has been applied to linen and cotton fabrics, and is still for the most part the method adopted for domestic purposes. The strong bleaching power of direct sunlight is strikingly seen in the case of a wax or paraffin candle coloured with some of the aniline or vegetable dyes, an hour or two sometimes sufficing to discharge the colour. In diffuse daylight they also bleach, but much more slowly. Many dyes on textile fabrics, as is well known, soon fade if much exposed to the sun's rays.

It was formerly the custom to send linen goods manufactured in Scotland to be bleached in Holland, and the name *Holland* is still retained for a kind of unbleached linen. Another variety, which, from its fineness, was generally spread on the better grass-fields or lawns, received the name of *leuco*, still in use for a fine white linen. In those days large areas of grass land, and several months' exposure to air, light, and moisture, were required to bleach linen white. The first bleachfield in Scotland was established by the Fletchers at Salton in East Lothian about 1730; others were started soon after at Ormiston and Perth. Near Perth, and in Fife, there is still a good deal of open-air bleaching combined with chemical treatment. Bleach-works were also early set agoing about Glasgow and Aberdeen.

Andrew Yarranton, writing in 1677, mentions that a bleachfield then existed in Southwark by the side of the Thames, but there does not appear to be much known about early bleachfields in England.

In the old Dutch process the linen was immersed for some days in an alkaline lye of crude potashes, which removed a large quantity of the natural colouring matter and stains. It was afterwards treated with sour milk before it was spread on the grass. The process, including the field bleaching, took from six to eight months. Dr Home of Edinburgh discovered about 1756 that dilute sulphuric acid did better for the 'sowing' operation than sour-milk, an improvement which shortened the time occupied in bleaching by one-half.

The modern process of bleaching calico, linen, and other fabrics of vegetable fibre, may be said to date from 1785, when Berthollet read to the French Academy an account of his investigations on the power of Chlorine (q. v.) to destroy colouring matters. A knowledge of the use of chlorine as a bleaching agent appears to have been first brought to this country by the Duke of Gordon and Professor Copland of Aberdeen, who communicated it to a firm of bleachers in that town. James Watt, who knew Berthollet, made the process successful at a bleachfield near Glasgow, and along with Dr Henry of Manchester, explained it to the Lancashire manufacturers of cotton cloth, a branch of industry then rapidly rising in importance. Mr Charles Tennant of Glasgow took out, in 1798, a patent for making a solution of the chloride of lime, and afterwards in 1799 made this substance in the solid state by exposing dry slaked lime to chlorine gas, which it readily absorbs in large quantity. This was a discovery of great importance. Under the name of *Bleaching Powder* this solid chloride of lime continues to be the chief material used as a bleaching agent. This substance is commonly called chloride of lime, but as explained under BLEACHING POWDER its exact nature is still uncertain. The use of the lime in the compound is simply as a convenient means of transporting the chlorine, but no one has since been able to find a safer

or better way of applying the chlorine to the bleaching of vegetable fibre. The bleaching action of this gas is supposed to result from its strong affinity for hydrogen, which it removes from the colouring matter and hence destroys it. In some cases the chlorine is believed to combine with the hydrogen of the water, forming a part of the colouring matter, thus liberating nascent oxygen, which has an energetic destructive action on organic bodies.

Bleaching of Cotton.—Cotton fibre as gathered from the seed contains some natural impurities, consisting of a kind of vegetable wax, margaric acid, pectic acid, and some other substances. These do not amount to more than 5 per cent. of its weight, and could be easily removed. But calico from the loom contains troublesome artificial impurities, often amounting to one-fourth of its weight. These chiefly consist of weavers' size, which is made up of starch, tallow, soap, and other ingredients. Oil from the machinery is also present. Before bleaching it is customary to singe calico so as to remove all projecting filaments. This is done by passing the cloth over a red-hot half cylinder of copper, or over a row of gas-jets. Sometimes a flame of carbonic oxide from a coke furnace is used along with heated copper, and another plan has been quite recently proposed—viz. to singe the calico by means of a metal bar or rod kept at a red heat by electricity.

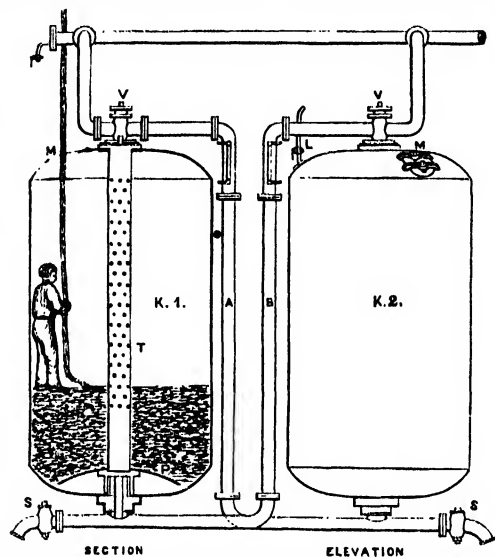
The actual stages in the bleaching of cotton cloth which is to be printed are these: (1) Washing after the singe; (2) Boiling with lime in bowking kiers: washing again; (3) Souring with sulphuric or muriatic acid, called the lime sour or gray sour: washing again; (4) Boiling with soda ash and resin: washing again; (5) Chemicking—i.e. treating the calico with solution of chloride of lime; (6) Souring with sulphuric or muriatic acid, 'white sour'; final washing.

Washing-machines.—For the repeated washings, the old dash-wheel is still to some extent used, and is a very efficient machine, but the operation can be got through in much less time by some more recent machines. One of these consists of a pair of squeezing rollers with suitable framework placed over a cistern, through which there is a continuous flow of clean water. The pieces of calico, joined at the ends, pass in a rope-like form between these rollers, descend into the water, pass round a submerged roller, and return to the pressure rollers, from which they again descend to the cistern. In this way, guided by a rail with pegs, the calico travels round in a spiral direction, descending and ascending till the operation is finished.

Bowking Kiers.—Barlow's high-pressure bowking kiers, which are much used, are worked in pairs. Each is a cylinder of boiler-plate large enough to contain 3500 lb. of calico, or about 40,000 yards of medium thickness. They are shown in annexed figure, one in section and the other in elevation. The pieces of cloth, sewed together in one length, after being passed through milk of lime, are introduced into the kiers through the manholes at M, M. A perforated plate, P, at the bottom of each kier supports the calico, which is piled up in regular layers. Two pipes, A and B, connect the kiers K 1 and K 2, the pipe A joining the top of K 1 to the bottom of K 2, and the pipe B joining the top of K 2 to the bottom of K 1. Communication between the kiers can be opened or closed by valves at V V, and in the centre of each there is a vertical perforated pipe T, called a 'distributor.' When they are filled the calico is held in its place by a grid on the top, and then high-pressure steam is admitted through the valves. The steam issues through the perforations of the distributor, and impinging against the calico, forces downwards the

lime-water, which is let off by the stopcocks SS, on the bottom pipes.

When the lime-water is all run off, the exit pipes are closed, and thin milk of lime is admitted by the pipe L to one of the kiers. High-pressure steam is



Pair of Barlow's High-pressure Bowking Kiers.

again admitted, which forces the liquor through the cloth to the bottom of the first, and onwards through the connecting pipe to the distributor of the second kier, from which it gets into the folds of the calico. When all the lime liquor has been forced from one kier to the other, the steam is shut off the first kier, and admitted to the second, by which the process is reversed. For about eight hours this alternate forcing of the liquor from one kier to the other is continued, after which the pieces are washed.

A low-pressure bowking kier with differently arranged details is preferred by some bleachers to Barlow's method.

Remarks on the Process.—Boiling the cloth with caustic lime after the singeing, came into use as a distinct operation in bleaching about 1820. The length of time occupied and the proportion of lime employed have varied at different times. At an early period one part by weight of slaked lime to a hundred of the cloth, with boiling for an hour or two, was thought sufficient; but now five or six times that quantity of lime is used, and the boiling is made more effective by being done under pressure.

The action of the lime is to decompose the fatty bodies, naturally present or imparted to the cloth. With these it forms an insoluble lime-soap which adheres to the fabric. If potash or soda were used, the soap formed would be soluble in water; but in practice an unequal distribution of the resulting fatty soap occurs, which could not be removed from the cloth without prolonged treatment. Accordingly, although no good theoretical reason for first forming a lime-soap appears very plain, the practice is universal. The calico after being washed with water is 'soured'—i.e. treated with weak sulphuric or muriatic acid, which combines with the lime to form soluble compounds readily washed away with water. This leaves the solid fatty acid adhering to the cloth, but now in the free state, when it readily combines with soda to form a soap soluble in water.

For this purpose, in the fourth operation, the soda is generally used in the form of a rosin-soap made by boiling rosin in solution of soda ash. This soap readily takes up the fatty acids which have been liberated by the souring treatment. The quantity of rosin used is not nearly enough to saturate all the soda, so that there is ample left to combine with the fatty acid, giving, when boiled with the cloth, a solution of mixed fatty and rosin soaps. The boiling lasts from six to twelve hours. A thorough washing gets rid of the soapy solution, and the cloth is then ready for treatment with solution of chloride of lime.

This is the fifth operation, and is called 'chemicking.' The cloth is drawn through a weak solution of bleaching powder, made by stirring the powder through a large quantity of water and allowing it to settle till clear. The clear solution is then diluted with water till the specific gravity is about half a degree Twaddell, or 1.0025. The cloth is left in this solution till thoroughly impregnated, and in some cases for a longer period, when the excess of bleaching liquor is pressed out by rollers. The calico is then passed through a weak acid bath, similar to that used after the liming operation, to liberate the chlorine from its combination with the lime, so as to allow of its full bleaching action. It is now only necessary to wash the lime compound thoroughly out of the fibre, and then the bleaching process is finished.

The Mather-Thompson bleaching process is Thompson's process, in which, instead of stronger acids, carbonic acid is used to liberate the chlorine from bleaching powder solution of about one-half the usual strength, adapted to W. Mather's continuous bleaching apparatus, based on a series of patents taken out in 1884 and 1885. The object of the chemical part of this mode of bleaching is to minimise the tendering of the cotton fibre. For a detailed description of the process see the *Engineer* journal for March 19, 1886.

Bleaching of Linen.—Flax fibre from which linen cloth is made, contains a much larger amount of natural impurities than cotton. At least it contains a greater proportion of other bodies than the useful part of the fibre. Again, water-steeping or retting, which is the first stage in the preparation of flax, darkens its natural colour. The impurities may amount to nearly one-third of its weight, and are chiefly unclinging bodies and dark-coloured resins. It follows that the bleaching of linen is a much more tedious process than what is required for cotton, and the machinery used differs considerably. Still the principle of both processes is the same. Exposure on grass, called 'crofting,' being to some extent necessary for linen, the bleaching of it can only be satisfactorily conducted at some distance from large towns. The bleaching lime and acid solutions require to be more dilute for linen than for cotton, because flax fibre is more easily destroyed by chemical agents.

Bleaching of Jute.—This fibre differs in its nature from cotton and linen since it does not consist of ordinary cellulose, but a more complex form of this body, in its composition, and called hantose. Jute can be easily bleached by permanganate of potash, but this is too expensive to be used on the large scale. In the laboratory it can be bleached by suspending it over phosphorus in a damp atmosphere, the oxygen of which is thus converted into Ozone (q.v.). Chloride of lime cannot be employed as such for the bleaching of this fibre, which is more easily injured by chemical agents, and especially acids, than linen. Chloride of lime, mixed with an equivalent quantity of sulphate of magnesia, and both dissolved in water, is used as a 'chemick' bath for jute. Another bleaching

liquor for this textile material contains sodium hypochlorite, obtained by the decomposition of chloride of lime with soda.

Bleaching of Paper.—Rags, esparto grass, straw, wood, jute, and other materials, are used for making paper, and these are usually bleached in the state of half stuff—i.e. after they have been so far reduced in the beating engine. White papers are largely made of esparto mixed less or more with rags. The half stuff is bleached with chloride of lime, which is subsequently washed out. Afterwards the paper material is generally treated with an 'antichlore,' consisting either of hyposulphite of soda or of hyposulphite of lime, to remove the last of the chlorine, which, if left, would rot the paper. Straw is easily bleached, but this is not the case with wood. When straw is used for making bonnets, it is bleached with sulphurous acid.

Bleaching of Wool.—Animal fibres, such as wool, hair, and silk, cannot be bleached by treatment with a solution of bleaching powder, because this substance would destroy them. Wool has naturally a coating of a peculiar substance, secreted by the sebaceous glands on the skin of the sheep, which dissolves to a considerable extent in water. 'Suint,' or 'yolk,' as this substance is called, is a complex fatty material partially saponified. It has a strong disagreeable odour, and contains a not inconsiderable quantity, varying with the kind of wool, of potassium salts. When wool is soaked in warm water, the natural soap in the suint is nearly sufficient for the removal of the whole of the fatty matter.

The process by which the suint is removed from wool is called 'scouring.' In this operation much heat or friction must be avoided, else, owing to its peculiar structure, the wool would felt, and, in consequence, many of the fibres would be broken in the carding or combing processes. The scouring of wool is effected in a bath of alkaline carbonates and stale urine, which, however, is also alkaline in its action, from the presence of carbonate of ammonia. Nevertheless, if the use of urine be dispensed with, and artificial carbonate of ammonia entirely substituted for it, the wool is left in a less favourable condition for spinning. Soap is sometimes added to the scouring mixture. Alkaline liquors require to be applied to wool in a dilute state. The soapy matters with which the wool becomes charged in the alkaline bath must be thoroughly washed out with clean water. There are a number of different machines in use for washing. The best kinds are those which agitate the wool least, and which, in their action, most nearly resemble washing in a natural stream.

The actual bleaching or whitening of wool is effected by the fumes of sulphurous acid (sulphurous anhydride), produced by burning sulphur in a close chamber or stove. Another process is to use the sulphurous acid in aqueous solution. This is got by dissolving a bisulphite such as the lime or soda compound, and adding acid. When wool or undyed woollen cloth is soaked in a strong solution of this substance, and then passed through a bath of weak muriatic or sulphuric acid, the sulphurous acid is liberated, and exerts its full bleaching action on the fibre of the wool. If wool is to be dyed a dark colour, it is not bleached in this way, but only scoured.

Bleaching of Silk.—Raw silk yields scarcely more than one-half of its weight of fibrine or true silk fibre. The other half consists of a kind of waxy material which stiffens the fibre, and is composed of albuminous, gelatinous, fatty, and resinous bodies along with a little colouring matter. Silk is first put through what is called an ungumming process, which consists of steeping it in very dilute muriatic

acid, and afterwards washing away every trace of the acid. The silk is then boiled with a strong solution of olive-oil soap if it is to be made white, or oleic acid soap if it is to be dyed. This removes a large quantity of the extraneous matter. The boiling requires to be done with great care, so as not to injure the lustre and elasticity of the fibre. Sometimes it is boiled a second time in hemp bags in a weaker soapy solution than the first.

As in the case of wool the silk after the 'boiling' is exposed to the action of sulphurous acid.

A recent improvement in the bleaching of silk consists in treating it with peroxide of hydrogen. The following instructions regarding the process are given in a small work on dyeing by Mr W. Crookes, F.R.S. 'The articles to be bleached must be freed from all mechanically adhering dirt, grease, &c. This is effected according to the nature of the article, and of the impurities to be removed, by means of soap, ammonia, sulphide of carbon, ether, or alcohol. These cleansing agents must then be entirely removed, either by washing or by evaporation. A bleach-bath is then made up with the peroxide of hydrogen, either alone, or along with small traces of ammonia or of soda-lye. The silks are simply laid in this liquid, and left to steep as may be required. The process is accelerated by heat not exceeding 77° F. and by the light of the sun. The bleaching process may last from two to fourteen days. When it is completed, the silks are rinsed in condensed steam-water, and carefully dried.' This peroxide of hydrogen process is also applicable to the bleaching of hair, feathers, furs, and leathers intended for dyeing.

For reasons somewhat similar to the use of lime as a carrier of chlorine in bleaching powder, Messrs Jacobsen of Berlin in 1887 proposed the dry powder of peroxide of barium to supply a bleaching bath of peroxide of hydrogen. When the peroxide of barium is stirred in water, and acid added, peroxide of hydrogen is at once obtained; but when certain salts are added the decomposition proceeds slowly, and the rate of production can be so regulated as to produce in a limited time the effect desired. Silicate of soda is the salt generally preferred, since it is slightly alkaline, which favours the bleaching action. The proportions used are 1 part barium peroxide, and 1 part dry powdered silicate of soda stirred in 100 parts of water. For vegetable fibres a stronger solution may be used, but for animal tissues some caution is required to avoid production of too much free soda. Flax and jute can by this process be bleached in one or two days.

Bleaching of Wood.—Trials made in 1887 in the bleaching of wood for ornamental purposes by means of peroxide of hydrogen have proved very successful. The wood is cut up to the required thickness, which may be from one twenty-fifth to one-fifth of an inch, and immersed in a bath of this liquid kept alkaline by the occasional addition of ammonia. In a few days this thin boarding appears almost white and transparent. It dries without shrinking or losing strength. The grain and veining, it is said, lose nothing of their distinctness from being subjected to the process; the colouring only disappears.

For the bleaching action of charcoal, and especially animal charcoal, on organic colouring matters in solution—such as the watery extracts of barks for medicinal purposes, brown sugar, paraffin, and a few other bodies—see CHARCOAL.

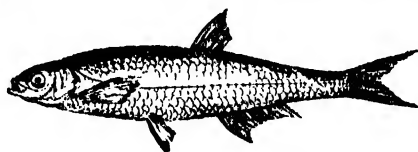
Bleaching Powder. A compound formed by the action of chlorine on dry slaked lime (see BLEACHING), was first manufactured on a large scale in Glasgow by Messrs Tennant & Co. The

use of chlorine for bleaching was introduced into Glasgow in 1789 by Watt, the engineer. At first it was used in the form of solution; but soon the addition of an alkali to the liquid was found to be beneficial, and the 'Eau de Javelle,' as this compound was called, was generally used. The next improvement was the substitution of lime for the alkalies, when Mr Charles Tennant in 1798 patented his *bleaching liquor*. In 1799 his partner proposed the use of dry slaked lime, and from that time to this the bleaching powder has remained unaltered in its nature. The manufacture of bleaching powder is one of the leading chemical industries of Great Britain, and at the present time it is looked on as the prop which supports many other industries, more especially the Leblanc soda manufacture. At one time the large quantities of hydrochloric acid gas produced in the manufacture of washing soda were allowed to escape into the air, destroying all vegetation for miles around. Restrictive acts of parliament, limiting the amount of gas which might be allowed to escape, resulted in the production of liquid hydrochloric acid, which was allowed, in many cases, to run into the streams. The manufacture of chlorine afforded an outlet for this (see CHLORINE), and the introduction of bleaching powder following soon thereafter, the useless by-product became the nucleus of a new departure, equal in importance to the 'soda industry' itself. An improved process for making soda, the Brunner-Mond process, having been discovered of recent years, the bleaching powder has now become the mainstay of the old soda-works, which are only able to keep working by making the profit on the bleaching powder pay for the loss on the soda they manufacture. In connection with this short history of the manufacture of bleaching powder, it is of interest to note the variation in the average market price as follows: in 1805, £120 per ton; in 1815, £80; in 1825, £27; in 1850, £13; in 1868, £10; in 1883, £5; in 1887, £8. Although the manufacture of bleaching powder on the large scale is one full of technical difficulties, yet a few words will suffice to describe it in its bare simplicity. The chlorine is passed into large stone or leaden chambers, measuring about 60 feet by 30 feet, and 5 feet high. On the floor of the chambers a layer of dry slaked lime, about 6 inches deep, is placed, and this is allowed to remain in contact with the chlorine for some hours, during which time the temperature rises considerably. The greater part of the unabsorbed chlorine having been drawn into another chamber, the door is opened, and the lime stirred up with rakes to insure uniformity, the strongest bleaching powder being found on the surface. Care is taken to transfer it to casks without exposure to wet or sunshine, as either of these are sufficient to induce decomposition and render it worthless.

The chemical changes which take place in the manufacture of bleaching powder are still under discussion; but the resulting product consists of hypochlorite of calcium, CaCl_2O_2 , along with a variable proportion of chloride of calcium, CaCl_2 , and uncombined lime. Its value is judged (see CHLORIMETRY) by the amount of chlorine which it can give up for bleaching purposes, the present market strength varying from 33 to 39 per cent. of chlorine, or 'available chlorine,' as it is called. Bleaching powder is a grayish-white powder, with a powerful odour resembling chlorine. It rapidly absorbs moisture in a damp atmosphere, at the same time losing its bleaching properties. Rubbed with water in small quantity, it forms a thin cream; but on the addition of more water, thickens to a paste, which again becomes thin when more water is added. It is principally used in the

bleaching of paper and linen; but as a disinfectant it is extensively applied in the purification of sewage or other obnoxious matter, its virtues from this as from every other point of view depending on the freedom with which it liberates chlorine. In the manufacture of chloroform large quantities of bleaching powder are required, and no practical process for producing this substance has as yet been devised which can dispense with bleaching powder.

Bleak (*Alburnus lucidus*), a little fresh-water fish belonging to the great Carp family (Cyprinidae), in the Physostomi division of bony fishes, in which the air-bladder (if present) opens into the gullet. Roach, dace, and minnow are familiar allies. The body is elongated and compressed, and measures 6 or 7 inches; the mouth is directed upwards; the chin projects; the nature of fins and tail is shown in the figure. The upper surface is bluish green, the sides and under surface silvery, the fins white or transparent. The bleak is common in European



Bleak (*Alburnus lucidus*).

rivers north of the Alps, and especially frequents quiet flowing water. Its active motions on the top of the water are familiar to anglers on English rivers. These fish form a large part of the food of pike, trout, and such fishes. Cooked like sprats, they are a satisfactory dish. As in related forms, the scales are coated internally with a silvery substance, which has for many ages been used for producing artificial Pearls (q.v.) and the like.

Blebs (allied to *blow, bubble*), same as *Bulla* (q.v.).

Bleeding, or HEMORRHAGE, is one of the most serious accidents which can happen to an animal, and constitutes the most anxious complication in surgical operations. As there is but a limited quantity of blood in the body (corresponding to about one-tenth of its weight), and as the sudden escape of a large portion of it is sufficient to cause death, every one should be instructed as to the measures which experience has shown to be the most efficient for preventing a dangerous loss of blood.

Bleeding may be either from a wounded artery or vein, or from a raw surface; and it may be in the form of a general oozing from the surface of a sore or a mucous membrane. We shall consider these varieties separately.

Arterial bleeding is recognised by the florid redness of the blood, and by its issuing from the cut vessel *per saltum* or by jerks. There are exceptions to this, however. When an artery has been tied, and bleeding occurs from below the ligature, the flow of blood is continuous, and of a dark colour.

If a large artery be severed, the first gush of blood may prove fatal, but more usually the patient faints, which implies a great diminution in the force of the circulation; and nature takes advantage of this respite to place the cut artery in circumstances as favourable as possible to the preservation of life—viz. the artery draws up within its sheath (see ARTERY); the blood, no longer impelled so vigorously by the heart, clots between the cut end of the vessel and the cellular tissue surrounding it; the inner and middle coats not only retract but contract, and another clot forms

within the arterial tube. These clots—which, with the faintness and the contraction and retraction of the artery, are termed natural *hemostatics* ('blood-stoppers')—are sufficient in many cases to prevent a recurrence of the bleeding; but such a happy concurrence of circumstances is not to be depended on, and we must be prepared to adopt some of the many surgical or artificial means for restraining the flow of blood till Adhesion (q.v.) can occur between the cut surfaces of the coats of the artery. The principal surgical means are:

Immediate pressure, which may be applied by pressing the finger-tip on the place whence the blood is seen to flow. This may be kept up by pads of lint, or a coin of convenient size wrapped in cloth, and secured with a bandage to the part.

Pressure on the artery above, or as it comes to the cut part. This requires some knowledge of anatomy, but not more than any intelligent person may easily acquire. Thus, pressure on the inside of the upper arm, about midway between its front and back, will press the Brachial Artery (q.v.) against the bone, and arrest any bleeding from wounds of the forearm and hand. Pressure on the middle of the groin with a thumb placed crosswise will control the stream of blood in the femoral artery, so that none can escape from any wound of the lower limb below where the pressure is made. This pressure with the finger or thumb is very difficult to maintain with an adequate amount of firmness and continuity; hence it is well to substitute the handle of a door-key wrapped in cloth, for the direct pressure of the finger-tip, which rapidly becomes relaxed by fatigue.

Pressure on the course of the vessel may be very efficiently effected by tying a handkerchief (see *BANDAGE*) round the limb above where it is injured, and then inserting a stick, and twisting it sufficiently tightly. This is the principle of the original tourniquet, which was invented by Morel, a French surgeon, at the siege of Besunçon in 1674. He got the idea from seeing how carriers tightened the ropes which secured bales of goods on their carts. It has been modified from time to time. At present it consists of a strap and buckle, a pad which may be adjusted over the course of the artery wounded, or likely to be cut in an operation, and a screw by which the strap may be tightened as the surgeon may deem necessary. See *TOURNIQUET*.

Pressure on the main vessel leading to a limb is only a temporary method of stopping bleeding, since it is not only very painful to the patient, but fraught with danger to the limb, which may mortify if it be too long continued. In a healthy man such pressure may be continued for five or six hours with impunity in case of urgent necessity, but a longer suppression of the circulation would almost certainly be followed by partial or complete death of the limb.

'*Actual*' *cantery*, or hot iron, is occasionally useful in bleeding from a bone, or at some points where pressure cannot be efficiently applied. It is the oldest method of stopping bleeding, and until the 18th century was much in use; but its abuse, and the natural horror felt for it by both patient and surgeon, have almost banished it from the list of surgical hemostatics. If used, the iron should be at a dull red heat, pressed for an instant in firm contact with the bleeding vessel. It causes shrivelling of the artery; and if the latter be small, it effectually stops the bleeding.

Ligature, or tying the artery, is a very old method of arresting hemorrhage, and certainly the best. It was not used generally, however, in operations until improved anatomical knowledge and more efficient tourniquets allowed surgeons the time necessary for its application.

Another method was introduced by the late Sir James Y. Simpson of Edinburgh, and was termed by him *Acupressure* (q.v.), or pressure from a long needle or pin inserted from without, so as to press the artery between it and the tissues. The pins are removed after twenty-four or forty-eight hours. This plan promised to supersede the older kinds of ligature, especially in amputations, where the vessels can be easily secured, and where occasionally they are found so brittle from disease (see *ATHEROMA*) as to break under the pressure of a thread, but, since the introduction of the absorbable ligature, it has been entirely discarded in surgical practice. This ligature, consisting of catgut, prepared tendon, or silkworm gut, has the peculiarity that when placed around an artery and imbedded in the surrounding textures, it gradually becomes absorbed by the tissues around it, and does not require removal from the wound as was the case with the older silk or thread ligature.

Venous bleeding is recognised by the dark colour of the blood, and its continuous flow. Pressure is generally found sufficient to arrest it, and it should be applied *directly* over the wounded part. In this case, pressure higher up the limb only does harm, by retarding the return flow of the Circulation (q.v.), and thereby increasing the bleeding from the injured vein. It is hence very important to distinguish venous bleeding from that which occurs from arteries. In both, direct pressure on the bleeding point is the first imperative indication for treatment; in venous bleeding this suffices for the permanent arrest of the bleeding in most cases; in arterial bleeding it must be supplemented by one of the methods already described.

When a very large vein is divided, its two ends must be ligatured; if it be only partially severed, the surgeon can sew up the wound in its walls in many cases, and its function as an organ of the circulation is thus preserved.

Oozing from cut surfaces partakes more of the characters of venous than of arterial bleeding, as there is no vessel sufficiently large to demand the application of a ligature. The actual cautery or cold may be used, or one of the many styptics—e.g. perchloride of iron—may be specially recommended; it may be applied on lint or a sponge; or local astringents, such as alum and tannin, may be employed; there are also the puff-ball, mushroom, agaric, and matico-leaves, cobwebs, felt, &c., which act mechanically, and owe their reputation chiefly to the pressure used in their application. The best remedy for this type of bleeding is the application of a steady stream of *very hot* water to the injured surface. If continuously applied at as high a temperature as the patient can possibly endure, rapid cessation of the oozing takes place. Some persons have a congenital tendency to bleed (the hemorrhagic diathesis); if such a one have a trifling cut, or have a tooth pulled, he bleeds perhaps to death. A prudent surgeon will not perform cutting operations on one of a hemorrhagic family.

Bleeding from the free surfaces of mucous membranes occurs when they are much congested. One may have fatal hemorrhage from the stomach, and yet no open vessel may be found after death, even on the most careful examination. In such a case, we must trust to cold and internal remedies, such as acetate of lead combined with opium, gallic and tannic acids, and the extract of Witch Hazel (*Hamamelis Virginica*).

In bleeding, of whatever kind, the posture of the patient is a matter of great importance. The recumbent position is associated with a diminished force of the circulation, and should therefore be adopted in all serious cases. If the bleeding occur in one of the limbs, the raising of the injured part

is in itself often sufficient to cut short the loss of blood, and this postural treatment should in all cases be employed in addition to the special local remedies above described.

Bleeding from internal organs, as the stomach or the lungs, is a very serious symptom, and must be immediately and carefully treated whenever it occurs. In any such case, the patient should be placed in the recumbent position in a cool airy room, the dress loosened to allow of cooling of the surfaces of the body, and the application of cold further effected by placing wet cloths over the chest and renewing them as soon as they become warm from contact with the body. All these remedies have the effect of slowing and reducing the strength of the circulation, and the patient therefore loses blood less rapidly. A table-spoonful of turpentine mixed with a little milk should be administered by the mouth at once, and another table-spoonful should be added to a jugful of boiling water, and the patient caused to inhale the vapour from it. This acts directly on the blood-vessels, tending to close them at the bleeding point. Keep the patient very quiet, and summon medical aid as speedily as possible.

BLOODLETTING (also called Bleeding or Depletion, and including Phlebotomy or Venesection, Arteriotomy, Wet-cupping, Leeching, and Scarification) is a method of relieving the human system in states of general or local plethora by the abstraction of blood. General plethora is best treated, according to this method, by withdrawing a considerable quantity of blood from the arteries (arteriotomy) or veins (venesection). Local engorgement, or *hyperæmia*, of a part is usually treated by abstracting blood from the smallest-sized vessels, or capillaries, present in the skin, by the methods of scarification or leeching. In these cases, the removal of blood from the superficial textures diverts the blood-stream in part from underlying tissues, and thus reduces the tendency to inflammatory action in the deeper structures. In general bloodletting the object is to reduce the strength of the blood-stream throughout the whole system, and thus to diminish the acuteness of feverish conditions. The most usually employed method of accomplishing this is by the opening of one of the superficial veins of the arm, and allowing a sufficient quantity of blood to escape from the blood-vessel thus operated upon. The vein chosen for the operation is generally one of those near the front of the elbow-joint, which can be conveniently reached in this region without disturbing the patient, and which can be closed after the operation by applying a dressing with the elbow bent when the operation is completed. In performing the operation, it is first essential to make the vein stand out clearly under the skin, and to do so it is necessary to remember that the veins return the blood from the extremities to the trunk, and therefore that pressure must be applied constricting the arm above the elbow, thus causing the veins to swell from retardation of the blood-flow within their walls. A bandage is thus tied tightly around the middle of the upper-arm, and, as a result of its action, the veins in front of the elbow-joint commence to swell and stand out as blue cords, distinctly to be seen through the delicate skin of this region. Selecting the largest of these swollen veins, the operator places his left thumb upon it immediately below the point where he desires to open it. This prevents any backward flow of the blood in the vein, and renders it yet more distinct at the point where it is to be opened. Now taking a sharp lancet in his right hand, the surgeon pushes its point steadily downwards through the skin into the blue column that marks the position of the vein, taking care, however, only to divide its outer wall and not to

transfix it completely. Having by this means made a slit about half an inch long in its outer wall, he withdraws the instrument and removes his left thumb from the vein. A steady flow of dark blood now takes place from the wound; this is received into a graduated glass vessel, by which the operator may gauge accurately the amount of blood removed. Should the flow of blood tend to diminish, the patient is requested to grasp some hard object tightly with the hand of the side operated upon, and an immediate increase will occur in the blood flowing from the wound. When a sufficiency of blood has been abstracted by this means, the operator places a large and firm pad of lint over the wounded vein, and bending the arm at the elbow to a right angle, bandages it firmly in that position, observing specially that the pad of lint is tightly pressed against the wound in the skin. When the bandaging is complete, and only then, the constricting band around the upper-arm may be removed. There is danger in removing it earlier, since air may enter at the wound in the vein; and, being sucked upwards into the chest, may cause sudden cessation of the heart's action, and a considerable risk of immediate death. On account of this danger, it is not advisable for unskilled persons to attempt the operation. When the bandage and pad are firmly applied, and when the constricting band is removed, the patient's arm is placed in a sling and kept at rest for a week, when the wound in the skin and the vein is generally healed, and the patient may be permitted to use his arm again without incurring any risk. In children the veins in the arm are too small to be operated on satisfactorily, hence the external jugular vein of the neck must be selected in such cases; but the danger of the entrance of air is still greater in this region than in the arm; the operation should therefore be reserved for very urgent cases, and only performed with the utmost caution. The amount of blood actually abstracted in bloodletting must depend on the age of the patient and the nature of the case. The operation would be scarcely necessary if less than a quarter of a pint is to be removed, and it is now rare to remove more than one pint at one operation, however severe the case in which it is employed. For the methods and effects of local bloodletting, see CUPPING and LEECHING. For the bleeding of animals, see PHLEBOTOMY.

Bleek, FRIEDRICH, a German biblical critic, born 4th July 1793 at Ahrensböck in Holstein, studied theology first at Kiel, and afterwards under De Wette, Neander, and Schleiermacher, at Berlin, where he was appointed in 1818 a university tutor, and in 1823 an extraordinary professor of Theology. In 1829 he was called to Bonn, and he remained there till his death, 27th February 1859. Bleek's chief work was his commentary on *Hebrews*, which theologians so different as De Wette and Delitzsch have ranked among the first exegetical works of this century. Schleiermacher declared that the '*Charisma* of Biblical Introduction' had been specially given to Bleek; and it is by his *Einleitung in das Alte Testament* (1860; 4th ed. 1878) and his *Einleitung in das Neue Testament* (1862; 3d ed. 1875), which have been translated into English by Venables and Urwick, that he is best known in this country. Solid unpretentious learning and clear sober judgment equally distinguish these and his other posthumous works, which include his *Synoptische Erklärung der drei ersten Evangelien* (2 vols. 1862), and lectures on *The Apocalypse* (1862), on *Colossians, Philemon, and Ephesians* (1865), and on *Hebrews* (1868).

Bleek, WILHELM, philologist, son of the preceding, born in Berlin, 8th March 1827, studied

there and at Bonn, and accompanied Baikie's Niger expedition in 1854, but was compelled by ill health to turn back at Fernando Po. He joined Bishop Colenso at Natal in 1855, and after eighteen months' study of the Kaffirs, settled at Cape Town, where in 1861 he was appointed keeper of the Grey Library. Here he was engaged chiefly in philological investigations until his death, 17th August 1875. His writings on Bushman and Hottentot philology and folklore are important, and the *Handbook of African, Australian, and Polynesian Philology* (3 vols. 1858-63) shows remarkable erudition; but his most valuable work is the unfinished *Comparative Grammar of South African Languages* (parts i. and ii. 1862-69), in which the position of the great Bantu family is assigned.

Bleiberg, a village in the Austrian duchy of Carinthia, 8 miles W. of Villach, in the valley of the Drave, near the celebrated Bleiberg (Lead Mountain). Pop. 800.

Blekinge is a province in Sweden, also called after Carlskrona (q.v.).

Blende (Ger. *blenden*, 'to dazzle'), a name given to a number of minerals composed chiefly of sulphur and of certain metals, all or almost all of splendid lustre, at least in fractures and the faces of crystals. It is also very often popularly applied more exclusively to one of these minerals, to which alone, perhaps, it originally belonged, Zinc Blende, Garnet Blende, or Sphalerite; also called, according to its chemical composition, Sulphuret of Zinc. Among English miners it is known as *Black Jack*. It is abundant both in crystalline and in sedimentary rocks in many parts of the world, and is often associated with Galena (q.v.), or Lead-glance. It contains about 66 parts of zinc and 33 of sulphur, and is used as an ore of Zinc (q.v.); but the reduction of it is attended with difficulty, which much diminishes its value. It is usually brown or black, sometimes red, yellow, or green. It occurs both massive and crystallised in rhomboidal dodecahedrons, octahedrons, and tetrahedrons. Macles, or twin crystals, are remarkably common. It is very brittle; before the blowpipe it decrepitates violently, but only fuses on thin edges.—Manganese Blende is a rare mineral composed of sulphur and manganese.—Antimony Blende, or Red Antimony, is also a rare mineral composed of sulphur and antimony.—Ruby Blende is a name sometimes limited to Pyrrargyrite or Red Silver (see SILVER, ORES OF), sometimes extended as a sort of generic term to include a number of other minerals composed of sulphur and metals, among which are Cinnabar, Realgar, and Orpiment (q.v.).

Bléneau, a village in the French department of Yonne, 29 miles WSW. of Auxerre. Here Turenne gained a victory over the Prince de Condé in 1652.

Blenheim (Ger. *Blindheim*), a village of Bavaria, 23 miles NNW. of Augsburg, memorable in connection with Marlborough's great victory over the French and Bavarians, August 13, 1704. The battle, however, really took place at the neighbouring village of Höchstädt, and is known to the Germans by that name. France and Bavaria on the one hand stood opposed to England and Austria on the other. The French and Bavarian army consisted of 56,000 men, commanded by Tallard, Marsin, and the Elector of Bavaria. Opposed to it was an army of 52,000 men, under the command of Marlborough and Prince Eugene. The French and Bavarian generals had no idea that the allies would act on the offensive, and accordingly, when, about two o'clock in the morning, the line of the allies put itself in motion, they believed that it was about to retreat.

Even at seven o'clock, when the heads of the eight advancing columns became visible, Tallard regarded the whole proceeding as a stratagem to cover the retreat. When the mistake was discovered the army was hastily drawn up in battle-array, and fought with dauntless courage; but at five in the afternoon Marlborough broke through the line of battle, and won a victory most complete and decisive. The French and Bavarians lost between 30,000 and 40,000 in killed and wounded and prisoners, besides 120 pieces of cannon and 300 standards. The loss of the victors amounted to about 5000 killed and 8000 wounded.—Near to Blenheim, also, the French defeated the Austrians in 1800.

Blenheim, capital of Marlborough district, New Zealand, on the Wairau River, near the coast, 20 miles S. of Picton by rail. Pop. (1881) 2107; (1886) 3094.

Blenheim Dog, or MARLBOROUGH DOG, a small and very beautiful variety of spaniel, much resembling the King Charles breed in form and general appearance, but differing in the colour, which is white, with orange or flame-coloured markings. In weight it should not exceed 5 lb. The Blenheim spaniel is the *Pyrrone* of Buffon. It derives its English name from Blenheim Park, in Oxfordshire, where the breed was a favourite one from the beginning of the 18th century.

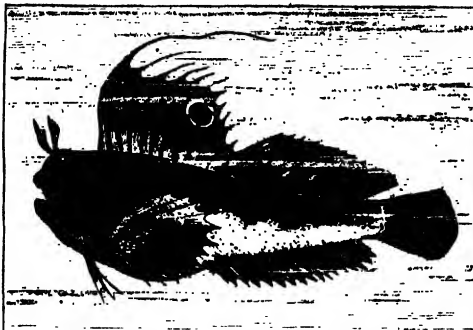
Blenheim Park, near Woodstock, Oxfordshire, the seat of the Duke of Marlborough, erected at the public expense in the reign of Queen Anne as a testimony of gratitude to the victor of Blenheim. The sum, £500,000, that was voted for the purpose did not suffice for the completion of the work. The royal estate of Woodstock, in which it stands, was granted at the same time. The building was designed by Sir John Vanbrugh, and is a grand though heavy monument of his powers as an architect. The length of the principal front from wing to wing is 348 feet. The interior is proportionally magnificent, but its priceless collections of gems and paintings, and its library, were wholly or largely dispersed by auction between 1875 and 1886. Eleven of the pictures were offered to the nation for £350,000; amongst those acquired for the National Gallery was the *Ansidei Madonna* by Raphael, at a cost of £70,000. Among the objects of interest in the grounds are a triumphal arch, and a column 130 feet high, surmounted by a statue of Marlborough. An inscription on the pedestal, written by Bolingbroke, recites the public services of the hero. The park, 2700 acres in area and 12 miles in circuit, was laid out by 'Capability' Brown. Its trees are said to have been planted as the troops were ranged at Marlborough's victory; and a mighty bridge spans the rivulet Glyme, which then widens out into an artificial lake. See Marshall's *History of Woodstock* (Oxford, 1873).

Blennorrhœa (*blenna*, 'mucus,' *rheō*, 'I flow') is a medical term for an unusually copious discharge from any mucous membrane; but as it has been rather vaguely and inconsistently employed, most modern writers do not often make use of it. It has been used chiefly of discharges from the genito-urinary mucous membrane (see GONORRHEA), from the conjunctiva, and the lacrymal sac (see EYE, DISEASES OF).

Blenny (*Blennius*), a genus of bony fishes, belonging to a large family (Blenniidae), in the division with spinous rays (Acanthopterygii). The family is characterised by Günther as follows: Body long, low, more or less cylindrical; naked, or with small scales; usually slimy. Dorsal fins extend along most of the back, often with prominent spinous rays. The hind fins are on the

throat, with few rays, and may be rudimentary or absent. The family includes 32 genera, with more than 200 species, widely distributed on the coasts of temperate and tropical seas, though some are found in brackish or even fresh water. The Sea-wolf or Cat-fish (*Anarrhichas*), with its formidable teeth; the slimy Butter-fish (*Centronotus*); the Viviparous Blenny (*Zoarces viviparus*), which brings forth its numerous young alive, and is popularly credited with being the parent of eels (Ger. *aal-mutter*); the brightly coloured Salarias; and many other interesting forms, belong to this family. They are carnivorous, and somewhat indiscriminate in their diet. There are but few British representatives.

The blennies themselves have moderately elongated, short-tailed, naked bodies. There is usually a tentacle over each eye. There are about 40 species, which are usually marine, though several live temporarily or constantly in more or less fresh water. They swim in small shoals, and can live on the wet shore for a much longer time than the absence of a tide. They are said to use their ventral fins in clambering among the seaweed. They are all greedy flesh-eaters. *B. gattorugine* is rare on British coasts, but abundant farther south. The Butterfly Blenny (*B. ocellaris*) is a quaintly



The Butterfly Blenny (*Blennius ocellaris*).

pretty little fish about 3 inches long, with flowing spines, and with an eye-like spot on its dorsal fin. It is most frequent towards the Mediterranean. The Smooth Blenny or Shanny (*B. pholis*), with similar distribution, has the spinous portion of the dorsal fin separate from the soft portion, and is of an olive-green colour irregularly marked with black spots. Like some of the others, it has in both jaws a long curved tooth, which it is said to use in detaching molluscs. There is no eye-tentacle. This organ is best developed in *B. tentaculatus*, a Mediterranean form. *B. vulgaris* is found in fresh water in Italy, and also in the Rhone. The blennies are but rarely used as food, but their activity and hardiness make them favourite inmates of aquaria. See Günther's *Introduction to the Study of Fishes*.

Blessing. See BENEDICTION.

Blessington, MARGUERITE, COUNTESS OF, was born September 1, 1789, at Knockbrit, near Clonmel, Tipperary, where her father, Edmund Power, owned a small property. At the early age of fourteen she was forced into marrying a worthless Captain Farmer. She quitted him in three months' time, and in 1818, shortly after his death, married Charles Gardiner, Earl of Blessington. With him in 1822 she set out on a long tour on the Continent, where, as well as in London, she gathered around her all the most distinguished men of the time. In Genoa she formed an intellectual friendship with Lord Byron; afterwards she resided in

Paris, until the death of her husband in 1829. He left her a large fortune; and she held a little court of her own at her Kensington mansion, Gore House, Kensington, her celebrated soirées being frequented by many of her distinguished contemporaries. Her connection with Count d'Orsay (q.v.), which dated from 1822, placed her in an equivocal position as regards society, and her lavish expenditure overwhelmed her in debt, though for nearly twenty years she was making an extra income of more than £2000 per annum as author of a dozen most trashy novels. She was the authoress of *The Idler in France*, *The Idler in Italy*, and *Conversations with Lord Byron* (1834), which helped to place the poet in a more favourable light before his countrymen. At length in April 1849 she and D'Orsay had to flee from their creditors to Paris, and there on 4th June she died of apoplexy. See her *Life by Madden* (3 vols. 1855).

Bletchingley, an ancient town of Surrey, 5 miles NE. of Reigate, which till 1832 returned two members to parliament, though now its population is under 2000. In the neighbourhood fuller's-earth is raised.

Bletchley, a railway junction in Buckinghamshire, 47 miles NW. of London, 31 NE. of Oxford, and 45 SW. of Cambridge.

Blets, rotten spots in apples, pears, medlars, and other fruits.—*Bletting* is the first stage in the rotting of such fruits when the consistency of the fruit has altered, and the colour changed to brown, but before actual putrefaction has set in. The medlar is eaten in this state. See FRUIT.

Blewfields, BLUEFIELDS, ESCONDIDA, or RIO DEL DESASTRE, a river of the Mosquito Territory, in Central America, which, after a course of several hundred miles to the east, enters the Caribbean Sea in 12° N. lat. and 83° W. long. At its mouth is a good harbour, with a town of the same name.

Blicher, STEEN STEENSEN, Danish poet and novelist, born 11th October 1782, at Viium, a village of Viborg; studied at Copenhagen, became in 1819 pastor at Thorning, and in 1826 at Spendrup, in Jutland. Here he died, 26th March 1848. He was long known only as the successful translator of Ossian (1807-9), but his *Sneeklokken* (1826), and his *Jydske Romanzer*, which appeared in the monthly periodical *Nordlyset*, soon became widely popular. These, however, were eclipsed by *Nationalnoevler*, also published monthly, and noted by their remarkably sympathetic insight into the life of the people on the heaths of Jutland. Blicher's poems are thoughtful, tender, and eminently national. A humorous autobiography is prefixed to the collection of his *Gamle og nye Noveller* (7 vols. 1846-47).

Blida, a thriving town of Algeria, 32 miles SW. of Algiers by rail, which was ceded to France in 1837. The orange orchards produce 50 million fruits a year, which are mostly exported to France, and there is some trade in cotton, raisins, grain, tobacco, copper, and cork-wood. It suffered from earthquake in 1825 and 1867. Pop. (1886) 11,435.

Bligh, WILLIAM, an English admiral, born of an old Cornish family in 1753 or 1754, and celebrated in connection with the mutiny of the *Bounty*. He sailed under Captain Cook in his second voyage round the world, and earned early a high reputation as a skilful seaman. In December 1787 he was sent by the British government, as commander of the ship *Bounty*, to Tahiti, which he reached about ten months later, to collect plants of the bread-fruit tree with a view to their acclimatisation in the West India colonies. During their six months' stay on the island, his men had become

completely demoralised, and in a few weeks mutinied under the overbearing temper and harsh treatment of their commander. On 28th April 1789, Bligh, with eighteen men, was cast adrift in an open boat but 23 feet long, with a small stock of provisions, and without a chart; while the mutineers turned their own course back to Tahiti, and ultimately settled on Pitcairn's Island. After almost incredible hardship, Bligh arrived at the island of Timor, near Java, on 14th June, having with infinite skill and courage sailed his frail craft for 3618 miles. 'Bread-fruit Bligh' was again sent out to collect bread-fruit plants, but though on this occasion he was more successful, the bread-fruit tree did not supersede the plantain in the West Indies. In 1805 he was appointed governor of New South Wales, but his conduct here was so harsh and overbearing as to cause universal dissatisfaction; and in January 1808, unable to tolerate his rule, the civil and military officers of the colony summarily terminated his government by arresting him. He was kept in prison by the colonists for two years. The officer who arrested him was tried in England and cashiered. After Bligh's return to England he was raised to the rank of admiral in 1811. He died in London, 7th December 1817.—The Bligh Islands are a portion of the Fiji Archipelago, in nearly 180° of long.

Blighia. See **AKEE**.

Blight, a diseased state of cultivated plants, especially cereals and grasses. The term has been very vaguely and variously used, having, in fact, been applied by agriculturists to almost every disease of plants in turn, however caused, especially when the plant dies before reaching maturity. See **PLANTS (DISEASES OF)**.

Blimbing, or **BILIMBI** (*Averrhoa Bilimbi*), an East Indian tree belonging to the Oxalidaceæ, cultivated in the Antilles for the sake of its wholesome and palatable fruit.

Blind. Blindness may arise from any cause intercepting the rays of light on their way to the optic nerve, or from disease of the optic nerve, or of that part of the brain connected with it. Blindness may vary in degree; it may exist from birth, or be the result of disease at any period of life. It may only be present during the day or the night, or a few weeks of the year, or it may be permanent. Only a few are born blind, although many lose their sight in infancy from preventable causes. One of the most frequent causes of blindness is the inflammation of the eyes of new-born babies, a disease which generally can be prevented, and always cured. In almost all blind schools in England and the Continent, a third, and even more, of the pupils' blindness is caused by the neglect and unsuitable treatment of this disease. Eminent oculists state that half the blindness in Europe is due to this inflammation of the eyes of new-born babies. (See publications of the Society for the Prevention of Blindness, 48 Wimple Street, London, W.). Many become blind by accidents, smallpox, scarlet fever, measles, whooping-cough, or the various diseases of the Eye (q.v.).

The man who loses his sight after having had full use of it for years is profoundly to be pitied. He has lost not merely that great gateway of knowledge, but it frequently happens that the loss of sight, for a time at least, shatters and enfeebles mental energy, and weakens the remaining senses and powers. Milton, blind himself, makes Samson say:

Now blind, disheartened, shamed, dishonoured, quelled,
To what can I be useful? wherein serve
My nation, and the work from heaven imposed?
But to sit idle on the household hearth,
A burdensome drone, to visitants a gaze,
Or pitted object.

The man born blind is in many ways still worse off: he cannot in the least imagine to himself what it is to be able to see; colour and visual form are unknown to him (see **VISION**). Locke's blind man who imagined that 'scarlet was like the sound of a trumpet,' made but a very random shot. Nor is it true that the blind man's other senses are preternaturally acute, and that blind people are always good musicians. A blind boy, under proper training, can indeed have his senses of touch and hearing developed to a state of exceeding acuteness, though they can never make up for the lost faculty. A blind boy who can read with the first finger of each hand, will be as unable as the seeing to use the other fingers for reading, unless he has practised with them. Without careful training and persevering industry, the blind cannot attain even creditable proficiency in music. Amongst blind men, some of them blind from infancy, who have more or less completely triumphed over their disadvantages or been otherwise famous, may be named Homer; Belisarius; John Milton; the Cambridge professor, Nicholas Saunderson (q.v.); Dr Blacklock; John Metcalf of Knaresborough, road surveyor (blind from six years of age); Holman, the blind traveller; Hüber, the naturalist; Prescott, the historian; Louis Braille; Sir George Macfarren; and Professor Fawcett. The blind have at various times suffered under special legal disabilities, for example as to acting as witnesses and as to succession to fiefs and thrones; by the canon law a blind man was disqualified for holy orders.

At four successive censuses the total number of blind was:

	1851.	1861.	1871.	1881.
England and Wales.....	13,508	19,352	21,500	22,832
Scotland.....	3,010	2,820	3,019	3,155
Ireland.....	7,587	6,879	6,347	6,111

At the same dates the number of the general population to each blind person was:

	1851.	1861.	1871.	1881.
England and Wales.....	979	1037	1052	1138
Scotland.....	1005	1090	1112	1182
Ireland.....	864	843	852	847

'In England, Wales, and Scotland, the proportion of blind to the whole population has decreased with each successive enumeration since 1851, in which year a special account of the blind was first taken; but the decrease in the decade ending 1881 was much greater than in either the preceding decennial intervals. The decrease may be fairly attributed to the progressive improvement in surgical treatment of affections of the eyes, and to the diminished prevalence of such diseases as smallpox, to which a considerable amount of blindness was formerly due. Another cause of decrease is probably the improvement of the health of the community due to better sanitation. Had blindness been as common in 1881 as in 1851, there would have been 26,523 blind persons in England and Wales, instead of 22,832, or 16·2 per cent. more than there actually were. Among the 22,832 blind persons enumerated were 1958 who, according to the returns, had been blind from birth. This, however, must be interpreted as including not only those who literally answered such description, but those also who had lost their sight at a very early age, for it appears to be an extremely rare thing for an infant to be actually blind at the time of birth.'

In England and Wales the number of blind per million of the population are as follows:

Under 5 years of age.....	166
From 5 to 15 years of age.....	288
" 15 to 20 ".....	388
" 20 to 25 ".....	422
" 25 to 45 ".....	641
" 45 to 65 ".....	1025
" 65 years of age and upwards.....	6915

At the census of 1880 there were in the United

States in all 48,928 blind persons, of whom 26,748 were males and 22,180 females. There were 40,399 of them native, 8239 foreign; and 41,278 were white, while 7650 were coloured, 244 Indians, and 22 Chinese. There was thus one blind person to every 1023 of the general population.

The following table shows the number of blind persons per million according to sex in different countries:

Country.	Male Blind per Million Males.	Female Blind per Million Females.
England and Wales.....	953	809
Scotland.....	865	827
Ireland.....	1141	1219
Denmark.....	776	793
Norway.....	1313	1411
Sweden.....	767	843
Finland.....	1514	2938
German Empire.....	884	881
Austria and Hungary.....	1280	1123
Holland.....	489	394
Belgium.....	982	641
France.....	948	726
Spain.....	1342	1011
Italy.....	1106	925

Institutions.—The first institution for the blind of which we have any record was a hospital merely, namely, that founded by St Louis at Paris in 1260, specially for crusaders who had lost their eyesight in Egypt. There have been many such hospitals, where no attempt at education was made. J. Bernouilli (q.v.) seems to have been the first to teach a blind girl to write (in 1657). But it was Valentin Haüy of Paris who in 1784 made the first successful attempt to educate the blind. To him is due the honour of instituting a movement which has resulted in the establishment of institutions for education, and workshops for the training and employment of the blind in all civilised countries. Before the end of the century the following institutions were opened in this country: School for the Indigent Blind, Liverpool, 1791; Royal Blind Asylum and School, Edinburgh, 1793; School for the Blind, Bristol, 1793; School for the Indigent Blind, London, 1799. Since the beginning of the 19th century many institutions for the blind have been opened in the United Kingdom. They may be divided into six classes, as follows:

1. Schools for Resident Pupils.....14
 2. A combination of School and Workshop.....13
 3. Workshops.....21
 4. Asylums.....9
 5. School and Asylum.....3
 6. Workshop and Asylum.....1
- Number attending Schools.....1664
Number in Workshops.....1168

School Boards.—In other countries the state provides for the education of the blind, but as yet the English government has not recognised its responsibility in regard to the education of the blind. A beginning has been made by the School Boards of London and some other large towns. The School Board of Glasgow was the first to take up this work, but the School Board for London subsequently took the lead, and adopted a comprehensive and systematic plan. A superintendent, specially qualified for the work, has charge of the training of all blind children under the London School Board. This superintendent has under her five blind teachers, trained at the Royal Normal College for the Blind. The blind children attend board schools, but receive special instruction at thirty centres, the classes varying from 1 to 15 in number, and the amount of teaching given weekly being proportioned to the size of the class.

Home-teaching Societies.—There are about 80 home-teaching societies in the United Kingdom; they are established in all the large towns, and the blind, even in country districts, are visited. 'The objects of the society are to visit the blind in their

own homes, to teach them to read by Moon's system (a few are also taught Braille), and when they have learned, to carry them books, which are changed at stated intervals. Some of the Scottish home-teaching societies attempt to start those whom they visit in trades, or otherwise enable them to maintain themselves.'

Indigent Blind Visiting Society (London).—'This society, founded in 1834, has for its object to visit, educate, and relieve the blind at their own homes, independently of asylums. It is the great missionary society to the blind of London, of whom it assists about 900. It relieves pressing cases of temporary distress, assists those whose incomes are nearly, but not quite sufficient to live upon, and starts the blind in trade or business whenever it is likely they will succeed if assisted at the commencement. It has also day-classes in different parts of London, where the blind are taught to read and write. The women are taught knitting, &c., and employment is given them when they have learned.'

British and Foreign Blind Association.—In 1868 a number of blind gentlemen, being aware of the great improvements which had been made in the education and employment of the blind on the Continent and in America, founded the British and Foreign Blind Association for the purpose of promoting the education and employment of the blind, by ascertaining what had been done in these respects in this and other countries, and endeavouring to supply deficiencies where they were found to exist, and by attempting to bring about harmony of action between the different existing schools and institutions. The association soon gained information through its corresponding members of what was being done abroad, and published a report. The executive council of the association has not only endeavoured to induce the various institutions to adopt the best methods and systems of education, but has been indefatigable in its efforts to improve and cheapen the apparatus, books, maps, &c. used by the blind.

United States.—In the United States, the 36 institutions, with about 2500 inmates, are as a whole palatial in comparison with those of Britain. Every blind child has a right to be educated at the expense of the state. Some of the best institutions are, however, founded and maintained by private benevolence. Different schools use different systems of reading and writing; the Boston Roman letter, New York point type, Moon, pure Braille, and modified Braille being all in use.

The following table furnishes statistics for other countries:

	Number of Blind.	Blind Institutions.	Blind in Institutions.
German Empire.....	37,672	35	1811
Austria and Hungary....	29,000	11	554
Switzerland.....	2,097	3	106
Holland.....	3,330	8	297
Denmark.....	1,400	3	156
Sweden and Norway.....	4,830	7	171
Russia.....	150,000(?)	15	397
France.....	..	23	1212
Belgium.....	..	6	198
Italy.....	..	22	668
Spain.....	..	12	652
Canada.....	..	3	192
Mexico.....	..	1	80
Brazil.....	..	1	57
Australia.....	..	7	..
Egypt.....	..	1	65

In 1784 M. Valentin Haüy commenced the first printing in raised characters for the blind, and founded the Institution Nationale des Jeunes Aveugles, which was the first, and still holds its place among the best managed schools for the blind in the Old and New Worlds. The character he chose was the Italic, or written form of the Roman letter. Founts of types were cast and books printed; and having been approved by the

Academy of Sciences, and exhibited before the royal family at Versailles, the art created at the time a great sensation.

Gall's type.—Mr James Gall of Edinburgh saw specimens of Parisian books in 1826, and was deeply impressed with the importance of putting the Bible into the hands of the blind to employ their vacant hours. Being himself a printer and publisher, he resolved to improve the alphabet so as to make it more tangible. In 1827, after much study and many experiments, Mr Gall printed his 'first book' for teaching the blind to read, in a triangular modification of the common alphabet, of which the following is a specimen :

BEHOID THE LAMB OF GOD

This was followed by other little volumes, including a series of Scripture statements and a condensed epitome of Old Testament history. These were received with so much favour, that in 1829 he issued a prospectus for the publication of the Gospel by St John, at one guinea, which was to pay not only for the copies, but preliminary expenses. This work was printed in 1832, but was not published until 1834. In 1832 the Scottish Society of Arts offered a gold medal, value £20, for the best alphabet for the blind. The award was not made till 1837. Sixteen arbitrary alphabets had been sent in, all of which were rejected, and the prize was awarded to a Dr Fry of London, who had suggested the use of Roman capitals, which were introduced in America in 1834. Great interest began to be excited throughout Britain, and extended even to foreign countries. Abbé Carton was sent by the Belgian government to visit Mr Gall's establishment, and returned to set up a printing-press in Brussels. Mr Gall was anxious to improve the printing and lessen the cost; the most important improvement consisted in the use of serrated types, by which the letters were formed of dots (.....) instead of lines. In 1836, therefore, he offered to societies and publishers to print books for the blind in the improved type at so much per sheet, as an ordinary business transaction, without either subscriptions or donations. Of this offer the London Sunday School Union, the Religious Tract Society, and the British and Foreign Bible Society availed themselves in 1837; and in 1838 he printed for the British and Foreign Bible Society the Gospel by St Luke and the Acts of the Apostles.

As the institutions for the blind in those days 'had not hitherto (as they expressed it) patronised any device of this kind,' Mr Gall had to contend with all the apathy and incredulity which every new thing has to encounter. But now the tide had turned; readers were multiplying over the country, schools for the blind were beginning to be formed, the institutions abroad had all 'patronised the device,' and printing-presses were busy both in America and on the Continent; so that when the Sunday School Union, the London Tract Society, and the British and Foreign Bible Society began to publish class-books, tracts, and Bibles for the blind, they all became convinced of its importance.

Howe's or Boston.—Dr Howe also, from Boston, visited Scotland, and having received from Mr Gall all the information which he could supply, established on his return to America a printing-press in the Perkins Institution. In 1834 he published the Acts of the Apostles, and completed the New Testament in 1836. About the same time Mr Friedlander of Philadelphia published the Gospel by St Mark. He unfortunately adopted the capital alphabet. Dr Howe, on the contrary,

had adopted an angular modification of the common alphabet, similar to, but much smaller than Mr Gall's, and with that printed the whole Bible, besides an ever-increasing number of other volumes in all departments. For many years Dr Howe supplied books for all the institutions in the United States.

Alston's.—Mr John Alston of Glasgow, who established a printing-press in the Blind Asylum, of which he was treasurer, printed in 1837 the Gospel by St Mark in the same type in which (unknown to him) it had been printed in 1834 by Mr Friedlander in Philadelphia. Through his influence it was at once adopted in the other institutions throughout the kingdom; and, having thrown himself with much enthusiasm into the work, he very soon raised funds by which he completed the New Testament in 1838, and the whole Bible in 1840. To him, therefore, belongs the honour of having printed the first complete Bible for the blind in any language, because Dr Howe of America, although he commenced the work earlier, did not finish it till 1842. The effect was immediate and decisive, rivalry was extinguished, hundreds of the blind were brought under instruction, and reading was thenceforth acknowledged to be a necessary department of the education of the blind. Mr Alston being encouraged by the decision of the Scottish Society of Arts, which he himself helped to influence, made a fatal error in adopting Roman capitals. Reaction very soon took place, the blind themselves being the first to rebel. The want of sufficient legibility was, in their judgment, a fatal objection, and outweighed all other considerations. Even the large amount of money that had been expended, and the extensive libraries that had been formed through Mr Alston's energetic labours, they were prepared to sacrifice, in order to obtain books which they could read with ease. Gall's Serrated Type is illustrated by

BEHOID THE LAMB OF GOD

and Howe's American Type by :

behold the lamb of God

Lucas's.—In 1838 Mr Lucas of Bristol introduced an ingenious system of stenographic shorthand. It is still used by the London Society for Teaching the Blind to Read. The characters are altogether arbitrary, consisting mainly of lines with or without a dot at one end.

Frere's.—Mr Frere also introduced his phonetic shorthand system about 1838. The embossed characters were only an application of his phonetic system for the seeing, which he hoped would become general. His characters consist of straight lines, half circles, hooked lines, and angles of 45 degrees, together with a hollow and solid circle. Mr Frere also invented the 'return' lines—that is to say, the lines in his book are read from left to right, and from right to left alternately, the letters themselves being reversed in the return lines. He devised a cheap and very ingenious method of setting up and stereotyping his books. The letters, formed of copper wire, are laid on a tin plate, previously washed over with a solution of zinc; when heat is applied to the under-surface, the letter becomes soldered on to the plate, and such plates produce extremely good printing. Both Moon and Lucas adopted this system of stereotyping.

Moon's.—Dr Moon of Brighton, whose system is used more than any other by the adult blind throughout the country, adopted an arbitrary alphabet, some of the characters resembling or

suggesting the letters which they represent. He also adopted Mr Frere's return lines, but does not reverse the letters.

It has already been stated that the blind objected to the Roman capitals on account of illegibility. Towards the middle of the 19th century the intelligent blind in all parts of the world began a very earnest protest against the various line-types, which had been arranged with as much regard to the seeing as the blind. In a short time the question became one of dots *versus* lines. It was then that the great invention of Louis Braille was recognised. He had published a system in 1829, and fully developed it in 1834. His blind friends and co-workers immediately recognised its superiority over the Roman letter, but the school authorities of the Institution Nationale des Jeunes Aveugles would not change the old system. It was not officially adopted in Paris until 1854, two years after the death of its inventor.

Louis Braille was born in January 1809 at Coupvray, about 23 miles from Paris. He became blind through an accident at the age of three. In 1819 he became a pupil of the Institution Nationale des Jeunes Aveugles at Paris. In 1826 he was elected professor at the institution where he had distinguished himself as a pupil. As a pupil and professor he laboured to invent a system which the blind could not only read, but write in relief. He had been trained as a boy to read the line type; after examining all systems, including arbitrary characters, he became convinced that the one best adapted to reading and writing was M. Barbier's. Barbier's letter contained six points, but was too long vertically to be covered with the finger. Braille worked upon it until he devised the simple and beautiful system which bears his name.

In regard to the necessity for readable and cheap books for the blind, in a character that can be written as well as read, Mr Wait, New York, says: 'Books are as necessary to the blind as to the seeing, and every reason which can be urged why there should be books cheap and plenty for all the seeing, applies with equal force with regard to books for the blind. The necessities of the blind in this respect have been and are urgent, and great efforts have been made to supply the want. But the institutions for the blind in or about which these efforts have generally originated have been so widely separated in regard to time of origin and place of location, that there has been little or no community of interest or of action. The result is that there are no less than eight distinct kinds of alphabet and printing for the blind, each being advocated as having advantages over every other. But if we may judge from the present condition of the art of reading amongst the blind, these alphabets, though produced by the most strenuous exertions and most praiseworthy zeal, have failed in their general utility, and do not answer the purpose for which they were intended. The reasons for this probably are that the principles upon which an alphabet for the blind should be constructed have not been sufficiently understood, and that the soundness of theories has not been properly ascertained by experiment.'

'Statistics collected from seven institutions in the United States showed that of 604 blind persons under instruction, only 225, or 34 per cent., could read with facility; and 185, or 31 per cent., could read moderately well. As a whole, this table shows a marked uniformity in the general results obtained in the several institutions named. If under the most favourable conditions 35 per cent. fail to learn the alphabet of the Boston and Glasgow systems, it is plain that a large majority of all the blind, probably 70 per cent., can never enjoy the privilege of reading. It is a fact which

every candid observer must concede, that the systems of printing for the blind at present used in this country do not meet the wants of the blind.

'A trial of the point system proved conclusively, that those who cannot learn either the Boston or Glasgow print can learn the point alphabet. And it should be remarked, that while the ability to read those systems is lost by a short period of disuse, or by working at any business which hardens the cuticle of the fingers, such is not the case with the point alphabet. It can be read by any blind person of ordinary intellect, no matter what his business, nor how long the period of disuse. It is urged against the point signs, that they are arbitrary and unlike the signs used by the seeing. But there is in reality no force in this objection. The necessities of the blind grow out of their condition, and the true value of anything made for their use is found in the fact that it is adapted to their condition and meets their necessities, regardless of other considerations. Which is the more important, that all the young blind should be able to read—thus being made, in fact, like the seeing—or that they should be taught an alphabet which in some sort resembles that used by the seeing; but by doing which only 34 per cent. of them will ever be able to read with any pleasure or profit? The answer of every blind person and of every practical educator is obvious.

'The important point is that the blind shall be like the seeing in what they know and can do, no matter whether the means of knowing or doing be the same as are used by the seeing or not. But the point signs have other important advantages besides that of being easily learned at any time of life by any blind person. They can be used in writing music, keeping accounts, and transcribing books; so that in one and the same system the blind can read and write, thus relieving the memory of heavy burdens and enabling them to grasp a far greater range of subjects, or to engage more deeply and successfully in any given study or pursuit.

'Point signs have another great advantage, which is, that while they are used as letters, they can also be combined so as to represent whole words, abbreviations, and terminations; thus combining the features of the stenographic and alphabetic systems. The shorthand signs could be used in the books and writing of those taught in schools for the blind, while books for adults could be printed in the common signs of the alphabet.

'The values of the point and line systems, in regard to their susceptibility to the touch, may be stated as follows: Point-sign system, 95 per cent.; line-sign system, 48 per cent. This subject is discussed at great length in the report of the New York Institution for the Blind of 1868. Full information is also given in regard to the New York point.' (It should be observed that Mr Wait's experiments with line systems did not include Dr Moon's.)

Braille.—The Braille signs are arbitrary, and consist of varying combinations of six points placed in an oblong, of which the vertical side contains three, and the horizontal two points (: :). There are sixty-two possible combinations of these six points, so that after providing characters for the twenty-six letters of the English alphabet there remain a sufficient number of signs for punctuation, contractions, &c.

'The group of six dots, which is the largest number of points that any letter can consist of, is divided into upper, middle, and lower pairs. The first ten letters, from *a* to *j*, exhaust all possible combinations of the upper and middle points. The next ten, from *k* to *t*, are formed from the first by adding a lower back point to each. Thus, *a* becomes *k*, *b* becomes *l*, &c. The third row is

similarly formed by adding two lower points. Thus, *a* becomes *u*, *b* becomes *v*, &c.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T
U	V	X	Y	Z	and	for	of	the	with
ch	gh	sh	th	wh	ed	er	ou	ow	will

THE BRAILLE ALPHABET, WITH CONTRACTIONS.

The large dots represent the raised points of the Braille letter; the small simply serve to indicate their position in the group of six.

The signs of the 2d, 3d, and 4th lines are formed from those of the 1st by the addition of lower dots.

'The fourth row of letters is formed from the first by adding a lower front point to each of the first row. The only letter of the ordinary alphabet in this row is *w*, which is derived from *j* by adding a lower front point. It will be observed that *w* comes out of its usual place in the alphabet. This is because the original French alphabet has been adhered to; *w* not being a letter used in genuine French words, it was originally placed the last on the fourth row, and has been there retained, as placing it out of its usual position was considered a far less evil than altering the meaning of the last four letters of the alphabet.

'Reading is also facilitated by the use of a few simple, well-chosen contractions, as words being rendered shorter, the finger has less space to traverse.'

It is interesting to know that in Egypt, where the blind are very numerous, the Koran has been printed in the Braille type, and a blind person can earn a good livelihood by reading the Koran at funerals and other occasions. In China there are many blind persons; and here Mr Murray, one of the Scottish Bible Society's missionaries, has ingeniously adapted the Braille system for printing Chinese.

Braille Writing-frame.—For writing, a frame is used consisting of a grooved metal bed, containing ten grooves to the inch; over this is fitted a brass guide, punched with oblong holes, whose vertical diameter is $\frac{3}{16}$ ths of an inch, while the horizontal diameter is $\frac{1}{8}$ ths. This perforated guide is fixed into a light wooden frame, like the frame of a slate, which is attached to the grooved metal bed by hinges. The paper is introduced between the frame and the grooved bed. The instrument for writing is a blunt awl, which carries a little cap of paper before it into the grooves of the bed, thereby producing a series of little pits on the side next the writer. When the paper is taken out and turned over, little prominences are felt corresponding to the pits on the other side. The reading is performed from left to right, consequently the writing is from right to left; but this reversal presents no practical difficulty as soon as the pupil has caught the idea that in reading and writing alike he has to go forwards. The brass guide has a double row of openings, which enables the writer to write two lines; when these are written he shifts his guide downwards until two little pins, which project from the under surface at its ends, drop into corresponding holes of the frame, when the writer writes two more lines; and this operation is repeated until he arrives at the bottom of the page. This description applies to the writing-frame used in France and most parts of the continent of Europe.

'The English frame is somewhat different. In it

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
LUCAS	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠
FRERE	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠
MOON	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠
NEW YORK	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠

ADDITIONAL SIGNS.

	ll	ss	ff	th	sh	ph	ch	ng	wh	gh	ou	oo	ah	or	oi	ing	and	of	that	the	Short.				
LUCAS	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠
FRERE	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠
MOON	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠
NEW YORK	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠	⠠

ALPHABETS USED BY THE BLIND.

the bed is not grooved, but is marked by groups of little pits, each group consisting of six. These are arranged in two parallel lines, and the guide is hinged on this bed in such a way, that when the two are locked, the openings in the guide correspond exactly to the pits in the bed. When the first two lines have been written, the guide and bed travel as one piece down the board, which

is so arranged as to give the right distances between the lines. Each line is separated from the next by a wide interval, which greatly facilitates reading; when the first page has been written the paper is reversed, and the lines of the second page are written in the intervals between those of the first. A simple mechanical arrangement enables a blind person to do this with ease and certainty.

This interlined writing not only makes the writing far more legible than that produced in the original French frame, but also effects a saving of space amounting to about 20 per cent.'

New York Point.—A modification of the Braille, now known as New York point, is generally adopted in the United States. The long diameter of the full letter of six points is horizontal instead of vertical (: : :), the letters recurring most frequently being represented by the smallest number of points.

Braille Musical Notation.—Braille furnishes a musical notation less complicated and easier to learn than the ordinary staff notation. Any music whatever can be written. In instrumental music a serious disadvantage arises from the fact that the blind performer has both to read and play with his hands; the usual plan is to read with one hand and play with the other, until the music is committed to memory. In vocal music this drawback disappears. During a performance before Her Majesty at Windsor by the pupils of the Royal Normal College and Academy of Music for the Blind, a musician present sent up a short composition in manuscript. It was dictated, quickly written, and sung from the notes with accuracy and effect by the blind choir.

Printing.—Embossed books are produced in various ways in France, generally from movable type. The printing for the English-speaking blind is done principally by the American Printing House for the Blind, Louisville, Kentucky, U.S.A.; the Howe Memorial Press, Perkins Institution for the Blind, Boston, U.S.A.; Dr Moon's Printing Establishment, 104 Queen's Road, Brighton; and the British and Foreign Blind Association, 33 Cambridge Square, London.

The American Printing House has an ingenious and very peculiar method of stereotyping from movable type; lack of space precludes a description. The press is worked by steam-power; four sheets are printed at a time, cut automatically, and delivered to the binder. The American Printing House has a subsidy of \$10,000 per annum from the American government, and the institutions in the United States have the right to order books in any type; practically, however, the books are only embossed in the Boston type and New York point. The Howe Memorial Press of Boston is a steam-press with vertical action, which prints one page at a time. The stereotyping is done from movable type by electrotyping. The cost is about double that of plates produced by the British and Foreign Blind Association. (Dr Moon's method has been referred to under types.) The British and Foreign Blind Association prints from brass plates. The frame for producing stereo-plates is very similar to the ordinary interlined writing-frame, only stronger. A sheet of brass folded upon itself is placed in the frame and embossed by means of a punch and hammer, in a similar way to that in which a style would be used in writing a single sheet of paper. The association plates are made by the blind themselves, without the intervention of movable type, and without any aid from seeing persons or skilled workmen. Both sides of the paper are printed at the same time by one pressure.

Dr Arncliffe, the indefatigable honorary secretary, says: 'After the most determined opposition, the Braille system, which is the foundation of all real education for the blind, has been pretty generally adopted by the schools of the United Kingdom, and the work of the association has, to a great extent, contributed to produce the same result in Germany. More books have been published in the Braille system, either in print or embossed by hand, by the association than exist in all other

systems put together. As the Braille system is generally adopted for music, and care is taken not to reproduce what is already in print in other countries, blind musicians have now a very large and varied library, which is daily extending. Books embossed by hand are also rapidly multiplying, as about forty paid blind writers and about twenty lady volunteers are constantly engaged on this work. The ladies emboss books in Braille from ordinary type for the seeing, and these are copied by the blind, who generally have no intelligent reader to dictate to them. Much improvement has taken place in the construction of maps and other school apparatus.'

Writing and School Apparatus.—Even a short description of each machine or piece of apparatus is impossible, but the following list may be of use: Writing frames—Elliott Brothers, Pooley's, Levitte's, Thursfield's, Moon's, Wedgewood's, Hebold's, Guldberg's, and Klein's. Dr Moon has paper with raised lines, and the British and Foreign Blind Association corrugated cardboard. Though expensive, type-writers as constructed for the seeing, with very slight modifications, can be used with equal facility by the blind. For writing with capital and lowercase letters, Remington's is the quickest and best; for capitals only, the 'Calligraph'; and Hall's type-writer is very convenient and less expensive, but much slower. For working arithmetical sums many ciphering-boards have been constructed, but the best is the octagonal board introduced by the Rev. William Taylor of Worcester. For school purposes good and very cheap maps are produced by the British and Foreign Blind Association.

Trades. The handicrafts which are usually pursued in the principal workshops of the United Kingdom are the making of baskets, brushes, brooms, bedding, mats, ship-fenders, ropes, sacks, chair-caning, wood-chopping, &c.; for girls, hand and machine sewing, knitting, netting, crocheting, &c. Of all trades, pianoforte-tuning is the best; but the blind can only succeed as pianoforte-tuners when they are first-class workmen. The plan pursued by the Royal Normal College is not to recommend any tuners who cannot pass the required examinations, and obtain an official certificate.

In the United States, broom-making, under favourable conditions, proves very remunerative (see reports of Home and Workshop for Blind Men, Philadelphia). The Germans have not adopted our workshop system for the blind, but the best institutions, especially of Saxony, continue to keep a methodical supervision over their pupils, even in the country districts, after they have left the institutions. It is claimed that by this system a much larger proportion of the blind become independent members of society. Active friends of the blind in all countries would do well to acquaint themselves with the details of the Saxony system.

Professions.—A considerable number of blind gentlemen have passed through the leading universities of Britain and other countries, and have won by their talents and energy honourable positions in the church, medicine, law, politics, and commerce. In 1888 an effort was being made in the United States to establish a special national university for the blind. Such a university must either be second-rate, or very costly. Even if the nation should be willing to pay the money to make it a first-class university, such a course will be regretted by intelligent blind men all over the world. They contend that a special university for a few blind students can never give them the privileges of existing universities, with their eminent professors, their libraries, associations, spirit of culture and progress, and, above all,

opportunities of coming in contact with the outside world, and forming lasting friendships with young men who will soon be busy actors in every walk of life. The blind ask not for a special university, but for scholarships in existing universities.

Music.—Music in its various branches offers the best and most lucrative employment for those among the blind who, from an early age, can have suitable educational privileges—an education which develops alike the body, mind, and musical talent. The Royal Normal College and Academy of Music for the Blind has shown by practical results what is possible in the profession of music. The education in the college is not limited to music: to a casual observer it would seem that music occupied almost a secondary place. The first aim is mainly character, healthy bodies, well-cultivated and active minds, and prompt, business-like habits, which qualify its pupils for practical life. The pupils are taught swimming, skating, rowing, cycling, canoeing, gymnastics (Swedish, German, and American), military drill, and in the season a great variety of outdoor sports. The college embraces a preparatory school with classes in Kindergarten and modelling, a grammar and high school, a technical school, and an academy of music. The course of instruction includes the following departments: (1) General education, including the training of school teachers; (2) the science and practice of music, including the training of music teachers, pianists, organists, choir-masters, and vocalists; (3) technical education, including mechanical training and pianofortetuning.

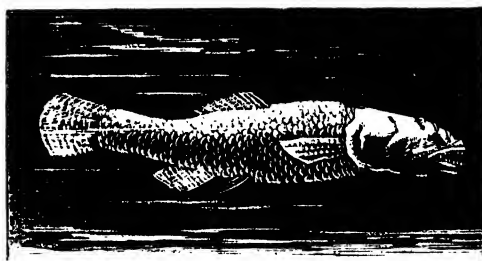
For a hundred years noble men and women have laboured with untiring devotion for the education and training of the blind, and have desired to lift them as a class from pauperism; but the majority of mankind still bewail the sad lot of the blind, and only think of them with pity and commiseration. Even in countries where the government provides for the education of the blind, the institutions are charitable rather than educational. In a number of the American states the schools for the blind are no longer regarded as charitable institutions, are no longer under the control of the State Board of Charities, but in common with all schools for the sighted, are under the management of the Board of Education; consequently, in the United States, the blind as a class are in a better condition socially than the blind of any other country. Too much praise cannot be given to the noble philanthropists who have done so much for the blind; but the time has come when the nation ought to recognise the duty it owes to its defective classes. We need a comprehensive scheme which will not only harmonise existing agencies, but include government aid; which will at least provide employment for all the able-bodied among the blind, even if it does not make them entirely self-sustaining; which will give all the young blind who possess even ordinary ability that education and training best calculated to make them useful and independent members of society; which will grade the various institutions according to the age, capacity, and requirements of the pupils. Educational institutions should be entirely separated from workshops, but each educational institution should have a technical shop for preparatory training, and when the time arrives to decide the future career of the pupils, they should be drafted to the institution or workshop that will afford them the special privileges they require. There should be at least one special institution for feeble-minded children; at present this class of children must either be entirely neglected, or taken into the ordinary institutions, where they

are not only a hindrance, but exercise a deleterious influence upon the other pupils. Such a comprehensive plan of working would minimise the cost, and make the work in all departments more effective. But such a plan can only be instituted and carried out under national control.

See *Information with regard to Institutions, Societies, and Classes for the Blind in England and Wales*, by H. J. Wilson, Secretary to Commission of the Gardner Trust for the Blind, 1 Poets' Corner, Westminster; *A few Statistics in connection with the Blind of Scotland*, by W. A. Arrol; *A Guide to Institutions and Charities for the Blind*, by Mansfield Turner and Wm. Harris. For full and recent information in regard to the blind of all parts of the world, see *Education and Employment of the Blind*, a very comprehensive book by T. R. Armitage, M.D. Much of the information of this article is derived from Dr Armitage and Mr W. B. Wait, New York, who have done more than all others to introduce an educational type that can be both read and written by the English-speaking blind. See EYE, VISION.

Blind. KARL, author and revolutionist, was born at Mannheim in 1826, and studied law at Heidelberg. For his share in the risings in South Germany in 1848 he was sentenced to eight years' imprisonment, but while being taken to Mainz was liberated by the populace. After the reaction had again triumphed over the Continent, Blind found an asylum first in Belgium, and afterwards in England, where he has taken an active part in democratic propaganda. An enthusiastic advocate of German freedom and unity, he promoted the Sleswick-Holstein movement. As an author he has written on politics, history, and mythology, including lives of Ledru-Rollin, Deák, Freiligrath; also volumes and magazine articles on such subjects as Fire Burial, Yggdrasil, Water Tales, Shetlandic and Welsh Folklore, The Siegfried Tale, and The New Conflict in Germany.

Blind Fish. In situations where light is absent, blind animals are commonly found. The absence of the normal stimulus has necessitated cessation of function and various degrees of degeneration in structure. In most cases rudimentary traces of eyes prove the fact of degeneration; and that the latter is largely the direct effect of



Blind Fish of the Kentucky Caves (*Amblyopsis spelæus*).

the absence of the stimulus preserving the health of the eye is allowed by most (see DEGENERATION). The blind fish of the Kentucky caves (*Amblyopsis*, q.v.) has degenerate hidden remnants of eyes; *Lucifuga dentata*, a very different form, found in the subterranean caves of Cuba (though member of a marine family), is also blind; the Hagfish (*Myxine glutinosa*), though perhaps hardly a fish in the technical sense, has also virtually lost its eyes in association with its habit of spending much of its life buried in the mud, or parasitically within coals and haddocks; the primitive vertebrate, the Lance-

let (*Amphioxus*, q.v.), is in the same state. In the sea the eyes of fish are large in proportion to the depth inhabited, down to 200 fathoms; big eyes are needed to make the most of the scanty light. Below the light-limit large-eyed forms occur, probably utilising the gleams of phosphorescence, or small-eyed forms with greatly developed tactile organs. In the greatest depths, however, as the result of the *Challenger* Expedition demonstrated (see Günther's *Challenger* Report on Fishes), fishes with rudimentary eyes occur, as one would indeed expect. See CAVE ANIMALS, ENVIRONMENT, FISHES.

Blind Harry. See HARRY.

Blindness, COLOUR. See COLOUR BLINDNESS.

Blindstony, another name for the Triforium (q.v.), so called as opposed to the Clearstony or Clerestory (q.v.) of a church.

Blind-worm, or SLOW-WORM (*Anguis fragilis*), a limbless lizard, in the Skink family. The form is worm-like, tapering slightly in the tail; only internal traces of limbs are present; the two girdles are very rudimentary; the tail occupies about half the total length; the nostril is situated in a shield; the eyelids are scaly and movable; the ear-hole very small and hidden; the teeth borne on the jaws are long, pointed, and directed backwards; the tongue is scaly in front, with slender warts behind; the scales are smooth, and those of the head very distinctive. The colour varies considerably with age; the young are whitish above with



Blind-worm.

a median black stripe, but black on the sides and below; the adults are brownish above and black below, often relieved by longitudinal lines. The full size is about a foot, about half of which goes to the tail, but large specimens may measure a foot and a half or more. The blind-worms are shy animals, living among bushes, and coming out at night in search of earth-worms and white slugs. They give a feeble bite, but are perfectly harmless. So timid are they that they become rigid when caught, and in this state an attempt to bend the greatly contracted muscles results in a breakage. The body divides in two, as the specific title *fragilis* implies. The young are born alive in midsummer to the number of 8 to 26. In winter they hibernate in holes in the ground, not alone, however, but in companies of two dozen or so. The blind-worms are found all over Europe, except in Sardinia and the northern regions, and are also known in North Africa and Western Asia. They appear to be hardy animals, and have been found more than 3000 feet up the Alps. They occur, though not abundantly, in Britain. White of Selborne gives an interesting account of their habits. It need hardly be said that they have no special connection with serpents, though similarity of habit has come to be associated with a superficial external resemblance. As true lizards they must also be distinguished from the much rarer amphibian *Cecilia* (q.v.), to

which the name blind-worm is also sometimes applied.

Blister-beetle, a popular name for a number of beetles in a family of Coleoptera known as *Vesicantia*, or in two distinct families, *Meloidae* and *Cantharidae*. The name refers to the vesicating or blister-raising properties of their body-juice. The Spanish-fly and the Oil-beetle are familiar illustrations. As to the zoological characters of the family, the antennae are usually 11-jointed, the head depressed with a narrow neck, the front shield narrower than the flexible wing covers, the claws split into two usually unequal portions, the abdomen with 6 to 7 free rings. They are usually brightly coloured, especially at home in warm countries, include about 800 species, and almost always possess the blistering property above noticed. The life-history is often very remarkable. The larvae live parasitically on bees, on grass-hopper or locust eggs, &c., and seem to pass through an unusual number of changes, to which the name 'hyper-metamorphosis' has been applied. It is not merely that the larvae begin life lean, horny, and 6-footed, and soon become fat, soft, and footless, but that before passing into the pupa stage, they pass through a series of preparatory changes. The important genera are: (1) *Lytta* or *Cantharis*, (2) *Mylabris*, (3) *Cercocoma*, (4) *Meloid*. In regard to some of these, a few notes are requisite. (1) The genus *Lytta* or *Cantharis* has wings, long, thread-like, 11-jointed feelers, and kidney-shaped eyes. It includes over 250 species, of which only 8 are European. The most familiar form is the common blister-beetle or Spanish-fly, *Lytta* or *Cantharis vesicatoria*. This bright golden-coloured or bluish-green beetle is common on many trees in Europe. It makes its presence felt by devouring the leaves. The females lay a large number of eggs in a hole in the ground, whence, after 3 to 4 weeks, the larvae pass in all probability into certain bees. For medicinal purposes, the beetles are dried and rubbed into powder. The irritant substance is found throughout the body, but especially in the ovaries. (2) *Mylabris* is a rarer European genus, but includes even more tropical forms than *Lytta*, restricted, however, to the Old World. (3) *Cercocoma*, with 9-jointed feelers, is commoner in Europe; *C. schafferi* is indeed frequent. (4) *Meloid* is a large wingless genus, with about 70 species, represented everywhere except in Australia. The females have a very broad abdomen. They live in grass. On irritation, they allow an oily, yellow, blistering fluid to ooze out from between the joints. The common Oil-beetle (*M. proscarabaeus*) and another beautiful species (*M. variegatus*) are striking illustrations of romantic life-histories. For this and other particulars in regard to *Meloid*, see article under that head. Apart from their medicinal use, the physiology and life-history of these blister-beetles invest them with very considerable biological interest. The common blister-beetle, Spanish-fly or *Cantharis*, will be further treated at CANTHARIDES; and see below.

Blisters are medicinal agents which, when applied to the skin, raise the cuticle into vesicles filled with serous fluid. They are applied either in the form of plasters or in a fluid state, as suits the convenience of the person or part, and have for their object the establishing of a counter-irritation or diversion of inflammatory action from a part in which it cannot be reached by remedies, or from some organ where it may do permanent mischief, to some more superficial part of the body.

The most common blister in use is made of *Cantharides* or Spanish fly (*Cantharis vesicatoria*). *Cantharides*, mixed with a convenient proportion of lard and wax, form the blistering ointment in

ordinary use; the only objection to this preparation being, that if applied too freely, it produces much irritation of the kidneys and urinary bladder. In young children and very thin-skinned persons, a layer of silver paper, or thin gauze wet with vinegar, may be laid between the blister and the skin. But under no circumstances should a blister be left long upon children, as it may produce sores which are apt to take on an unhealthy action, and are difficult to heal.

Mustard (*Sinapis nigra*) is frequently used to redden the skin, but seldom left on sufficiently long to produce blistering. Tincture of cantharides, croton-oil, strong liquor ammonia, tartar emetic ointment, and many other drugs are used in practice.

If the occasion for the blister passes off, the vesicles should be pricked, and their fluid contents allowed to trickle away, the vesicated surface being then dressed with some cold cream or lard. But if it should appear desirable to promote a discharge from the skin, the raised cuticle may be snipped off, and some stimulating application such as savine ointment (*Juniperus sabina*) used to dress the raw surface. Great cleanliness should be observed in dressing the part.

Blisters are used for the relief of acute inflammation in internal organs—e.g. the pleura, lungs, membranes of the brain; for the dispersion of the products left by inflammation—e.g. in indolent ulcers of the skin, enlarged lymphatic glands, and chronically inflamed joints; and for the relief of pain, even where no inflammation is present—e.g. in many forms of neuralgia. To name all the conditions where blisters may be of use would mean an enumeration of more than half the diseases known to medicine and surgery.

Blister is also one of the names applied to a bleb on the skin filled with fluid, by whatever cause produced—friction, disease, &c., as well as by vesicants, or other medicinal agents. See PULULA.

Blizzard is a fierce storm of bitter frosty wind with fine blinding snow, in which, especially in the western states of the American union, man and beast often perish. In one which visited Dakota and the states of Montana, Minnesota, Nebraska, Kansas, and Texas, in January 1888, the thermometer fell within twenty-four hours from 74° above zero to 28° below it in some places, and in Dakota went down to 40° below zero. In fine clear weather, with little or no warning the sky darkened and was filled by snow or ice-dust as fine as flour, driven before a wind so furious and roaring, that men's voices were inaudible at a distance of 6 feet. Objects became invisible a few yards off. Farmers died in the fields ere they could reach their houses, and children on their way from school; some of those who died having been not frozen but suffocated, from the impossibility of breathing the blizzard. Some 235 persons lost their lives. This was the worst since 1864; the Colorado River in Texas was frozen with ice a foot thick for the first time in the memory of man. In some districts blizzards are looked for three or four times in a winter; but really disastrous ones are rare, those of 1836, of December 1863, January 1866, January 1873 being, till that of 1888, the severest on record. The word, which seems to be akin to *blast*, *bluster*, first became usual throughout the United States during the severe winter of 1880–81, but was in colloquial use in the West early in the century. See WIND and STORMS.

Bloch, MARCUS ELIESER, a celebrated ichthyologist, born of poor Jewish parents at Anspach, in Bavaria, in 1723. He settled in medical practice at Berlin, where his life was uneventful, and where

he died, August 6, 1799. He is chiefly remembered for his great work, the *Allgemeine Naturgeschichte der Fische* (12 vols. Berlin, 1782–95, with 432 coloured plates), long the most comprehensive work on ichthyology, and still valuable, especially for its illustrations.

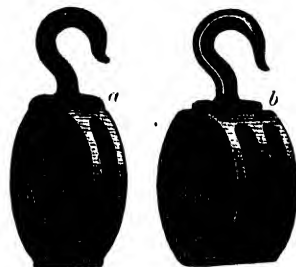
Block, in the rigging of a ship, is an important part of the apparatus necessary for raising sails and yards, tightening ropes, &c. The block comprises both the frame or shell, and the pulley or pulleys—usually termed 'sheaves'—contained within it. In nautical and mechanical language a *tackle* includes the rope as well as the block through which it works. Ships' blocks vary greatly in size, shape, power, designation, and use, but nearly every block comprises a shell or wooden exterior, a *sheave* or wheel on which the rope runs, a *pin* or axle on which the sheave turns, and a *strap* (of rope or iron) to fasten the block to any particular station.

For very many years, the uniform practice was to bind the shells by straps of rope—hempen or wire—but in more recent times, only the smaller class of blocks are thus bound, and those of a heavy calibre are environed by a band of iron—sometimes inside the shell, and said to be 'inside ironbound,' and sometimes outside, when they are termed 'outside ironbound.' Ironbound blocks have been in use in merchant ships for a much longer period than in government vessels, on board which modern improvements are often slow of being adopted. A single block contains only one sheave, a double block, two; a treble block, three; and so on; while the term 'purchase-block' is generally applied to all blocks having more than two sheaves. All the blocks on board ship have distinctive names—e.g. *cat-block*, *check-block*, *clew-garnet-block*, *clew-line-block*, *boat-block*, *snatch-block*, &c., according to the kind of service they have to perform, or to their place of fixing, while not a few names are examples of the odd and sometimes unaccountable nomenclature adopted by seamen.

Ships' blocks are usually made of elm, and the sheaves of lignum-vita, the hardest kind of wood procurable in any considerable quantity. The pins are of iron or steel, and the bushes or bearing parts of the sheave are usually of brass. Patent roller bushes, which allow the sheave to turn with minimum of friction, have for several years been largely adopted. The figures show examples of the blocks most commonly in use.

Blocks made wholly of iron (see PULLEY) are used to some extent about the decks of ships, but are ill adapted for use in ships' rigging, on account of the chafing and fraying of ropes and sails thereby entailed.

Until near the end of the 18th century blocks were all made by hand, and the trade was of considerable importance. For one of the old seventy-fours of the navy alone, more than 1400 blocks were required, and for vessels of larger or smaller size a proportionate number. The introduction of steam in place of the 'unbought wind' as a propulsive power, has materially reduced the number of blocks required on board ship, and the adoption of specialised labour-saving machinery has rendered



"a", single 'outside ironbound' block;
"b", double 'inside ironbound' block
(with swivel hooks).

their manufacture at the present time a matter of great ease and simplicity. Two men, comparatively unskilled, with the aid of the machines now in use, can produce as many complete blocks in one day as would have taxed the efforts of the skilled artificers of other days during the best part of a week. In 1781 a Mr Taylor began to make the sheaves and shells of blocks by a process which he had invented. He made all the blocks for the royal navy until the expiration of his patent rights. The Admiralty then commenced the manufacture on their own account. In 1801 Mr (afterwards Sir) Mark Isambard Brunel submitted to the Admiralty plans of a system of machinery for block-making, which was accepted, and the inventor engaged to set up the apparatus at Portsmouth. In 1808 the system was put into effective operation, it being found even then so perfect, that very few additions or improvements have since been needed. The machinery made blocks more accurately than they had ever been made by hand, and with the aid of ordinary workmen only. It could effect £50,000 worth of work in a year, or 140,000 blocks, by the assistance of ten men in attendance. Duplicate machinery was made for Chatham. Brunel received £20,000 for his invention and for his personal superintendence until the machinery was brought into working order; this sum was money well laid out, for the system saved to the country more than £20,000 a year, in the busy warlike period from 1808 to 1815.

Block, MAURICE, statistician, born at Berlin of Jewish family, 18th February 1816, studied at Bonn and Giessen, but settled at Paris, where for a time (1852-62) he held a post in the statistical bureau. He has published very many works on the statistics of France and Europe, including the *Annuaire de l'Economie Politique et de Statistique*.

Blockade, in a military sense, is an operation for capturing an enemy's town or fortress, often without a bombardment or regular siege. The attacking party throws up works on the neighbouring heights and roads, so as to guard every exit from the town. The rest of the besieging force remains under cover in villages, or in a temporary camp, ready to repel any sortie attempted by the besieged. The whole purpose in view is to prevent the besieged from receiving supplies of any kind, in order that, when the food or the ammunition is exhausted, they may be compelled to surrender. Fortresses situated on steep and rocky eminences, difficult to conquer by bombardment or assault, may often be reduced by blockade; because the roads or paths for the reception of supplies are few, and can be watched by a small number of troops. Towns situated on a plain are less easily invested; but if the inhabitants are numerous and commercial, they will soon be impatient of the restraint produced by a blockade, and compel the governor to surrender. When, therefore, resistance is determined on, the governor sends out of the town as many non-combatants as possible. He then collects all the stores in bomb-proofs, places the inhabitants on an allowance of food and under military rule, and endeavours, by frequent sorties, to prevent the besiegers from completing the investment of the place. A blockade should be the first step in a regular siege, and its effects may often be made more quickly felt by a bombardment. The blockade of Paris by the Germans in 1870-71 is the most notable example of such an operation that has ever been known. It was of itself completely successful, and the bombardment which was thought necessary might have been dispensed with. In this case a large civil population was blockaded together with a numerous army; but

at Metz, in the same campaign, a large and well appointed army, comparatively unhampered by the civil population, was compelled to surrender by a blockade without bombardment (see also SIEGE). Blockade on land depends on sovereignty or on military occupation. But at sea the rights of the neutral are *prima facie* equal to those of the belligerents.

Blockading, in a naval sense, is the prevention of the entrance or exit of the enemy's ships at a particular port, or at all the ports on a stretch of coast, so as to bring pressure to bear upon the inhabitants by obstructing their trade; and it renders intercourse with the enemy's ports unlawful on the part of neutrals. It is also sometimes an auxiliary to the military blockade by land. For a valid blockade it is necessary that a state of war should exist; that the blockade be really effective, that is to say, it must be maintained by a force sufficient to prevent access to the enemy's port, or at least to render approach hazardous; and neutral nations must be informed by the blockading power, either by official notification to all those powers, or by warning given to neutral vessels which approach the line of blockade. But when a blockade has become notorious, the knowledge will be presumed against any merchant-vessel which attempts to enter the blockaded port. Effective blockade is the principle laid down in the Declaration of Paris (1856), but this is construed more rigidly by continental nations than by England or the United States. Riga was effectively blockaded during the Crimean war at a distance of 120 miles. The French insist more than we do on formal notice. The blockading force may seize any vessel with its cargo trying to trade with the port, and send it home for condemnation; and if the vessel succeed in breaking the blockade, it may be pursued and captured by a belligerent, until it has reached its port of destination. That breach of blockade involves confiscation of the ship is admitted by all civilised nations. The cargo is not forfeited unless its owner is the owner of the ship, or was cognisant of the intended violation.

Napoleon's Berlin decree of 1806 declared the British Islands in a state of blockade (see CONTINENTAL SYSTEM).

The most memorable of recent blockades is that of the ports of the Southern States by the Federal government during the American civil war. The blockade was begun in April 1861, and, extending as it did to the whole of the southern coast and ports, was at first somewhat ineffective. Ultimately it was more rigorous and systematic; but to the last a considerable trade was carried on by swift steamers (many of them Clyde-built) through such blockaded ports as Charleston (the harbour of which was obstructed by sinking old ships and stones to assist the blockaders) and Wilmington. The risks were great. Hobart Pasha, who was a noted blockade-runner, says that more than 40 ships were captured out of 66 that left England and New York to run the blockade during the four years of the war. But the profits were enormous; Hobart sold in Wilmington for twelve shillings women's stays which he bought at thirteencepence, and sold cotton in Liverpool for half-a-crown which in Wilmington cost him only twopence a pound. Besides those captured, many blockade-runners ran ashore in the dark, or had to be deliberately run ashore or burnt to escape the cruisers. Nassau, in the Bahamas, was a great station for ships in the blockade-running enterprise. See CHARLESTON, NEUTRALITY, PRIZE COURT; Hobart Pasha's *Sketches from my Life* (1886); and as to the law, Twiss, Hall, Phillimore, Hazlitt, and Roche for England; Wheaton for the United States; Hautefeuille, Heffter, Gessner, and

Bluntschli for the continent of Europe; the collections of treaties; and the proceedings of the *Alabama* Commission. Lord Stowell's decisions in the prize court during the French wars may be said to form the substance of English law on this subject.

Blockhouse is a stockade or wooden wall, roofed in and loopholed. The timbers which form the walls may be laid horizontally or vertically. They must be bullet-proof (about a square foot in section), and covered outside with earth up to the loopholes, to prevent their being set on fire. A similar precaution is adopted for the roof. Where timber is plentiful, and an artillery attack not to be feared, blockhouses are useful defensive works, and under these conditions they have been much used in the backwoods of America. In more civilised countries they would only be used in mountain warfare or as keeps to redoubts in the plains. In the latter case they may be exposed to artillery fire, and require then a double row of stockading, with 3 feet of well-rammed earth between. A blockhouse may be of any size and shape. It forms a barrack for its garrison, and the guard beds are convenient as banquettes upon which the men stand to fire. If large, a blockhouse is generally cruciform in plan, so as to gain flank defence, or it may have an upper story projecting over the lower to enable men to fire through loopholes in the floor upon the attacking troops. The same object is sometimes attained by placing the upper story diagonally across the lower one. A ditch is excavated round the blockhouse to provide the earth which covers the woodwork, and also to prevent the enemy getting close enough to set it on fire. Stakes are planted in the ditch to make it difficult for the enemy to collect in it, and there rally for the final assault.

Block Island, formerly called Manisces, is situated in the Atlantic about 9 miles S. from Rhode Island, United States, to which it belongs. It is about 8 miles long, has a lighthouse at its north end, and contains the township of New Shoreham, a summer resort. A breakwater on the east side of the island forms a harbour of refuge. Pop. 1147.

Block-printing, the method of printing from wooden blocks (producing *block books*), as is still done in calico-printing and in making wall-paper. See PRINTING.

Block-system is a method of working railways. The line is divided into a number of comparatively short sections, and no train is allowed to pass into a section till the signals at either end indicate that the section is entirely clear of other trains. The signals are directed by telegraph; and, if the system is strictly observed, collisions become impossible. See RAILWAYS.

Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State (q.v.), stands on the Modder, in a high and healthy district, 200 miles W. by N. of Durban. It is connected by telegraph with the Cape and Natal, and is the seat of the Volksraad, of an Anglican bishopric, a college, &c. Pop. (1880) 2567.

Blois, the capital of the French department Loir-et-Cher, has a remarkably fine situation on a steep acclivity, and is built chiefly on the right bank of the Loire. An eleven-arch bridge (1717), 1000 feet long, unites it with its suburb of Vieille on the left bank. It is 36 miles SW. of Orleans. Blois has a cathedral; but its chief glory is its old castle, which has been the scene of many interesting historical events. Louis XII. was born in it; and under its roof Charles, Duc d'Alençon, and Margaret of Anjou, and Henri IV. and Margaret of Valois were married. Here also the Duc de Guise and his brother, the

cardinal, were murdered, by order of Henri III., 23d December 1588. Isabella, queen of Charles VI., here found a retreat: it served as a prison for Mary de' Medici; Catherine de' Medici died within its walls; and Maria Louisa here held her court in 1814, after Paris had capitulated. The castle was then neglected and used as a barrack; since 1845, but especially in 1880-87, a great part of it has been finely restored at great cost. Blois is a place of great antiquity. Stephen, who usurped the crown of England on the death of Henry I., was a son of one of the counts of Blois, by Adela, the daughter of William the Conqueror. Other celebrated natives have been Peter of Blois, subsequently archdeacon of London, and author, who died in 1200; and Denis Papin (q.v.), to whom a statue has been erected. Blois is an archbishop's see, and has manufactures of porcelain and gloves, with a trade in brandy, wine, and wood. Pop. (1886) 16,881.

Blomefield, FRANCIS, the topographer of Norfolk, rector of Hargham and Fersfield, and afterwards of Brockdish, was born at Fersfield, 23d July 1705, and died 16th January 1752. The great achievement of his life was his *History of Norfolk*, which, though abounding in errors, is a vast storehouse of information on the subject. In 1735, while collecting materials for it, he discovered the 'Paston Letters.' The first volume appeared in folio in 1739, the second in folio and quarto in 1745; Blomefield died ere the completion of the third volume, which, with a fourth and fifth by the Rev. C. Parkin, appeared at Lynn (1769 75; new ed. 11 vols. London, 1805-10; index, 1862).

Blomfield, CHARLES JAMES, Bishop of London, was born in 1786 at Bury St Edmunds, in Suffolk, where his father was schoolmaster. Thence he passed to Trinity College, Cambridge, of which he was elected a fellow; and taking orders in 1810, he became incumbent of St Botolph, London (1819), Archdeacon of Colchester (1822), and Bishop of Chester (1824), whence in 1828 he was translated to London. Blomfield's reputation for classical scholarship rests on his editions of *Æschylus*, *Callimachus*, *Enripides*, &c. He was exceedingly active in the superintendence of his diocese, and was an originator of the movement for the erection of new churches, setting about the building of fifty at once. He died 5th August 1857. See the *Life* by his son (2 vols. 1863).

Blommaert, PHILIP, a Flemish author, with Conscience a reviver of the Flemish tongue, born at Ghent in 1809. In 1834 he published a volume of verse; but he rendered better service to literature and to the patriotic cause by his editions of *Theophilus* (1836), an old Flemish poem of the 14th century, and of the *Oudeclamsche Gedichten* (3 vols. 1838-51) of the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries. His most important work is a history of the Belgians (1849), in which he shows that the Low Countries, spite of political separation, have a unity of culture, and that the political welfare of Belgium is opposed to a French alliance. He died at Ghent, August 14, 1871.

Blondel, a celebrated French minstrel of the 12th century, born at Nesle, in Picardy, was a favourite of King Richard the Lion-heart, and accompanied him to Palestine. When, in 1193, Richard on his homeward journey was seized and imprisoned by Leopold, Duke of Austria, the minstrel wandered through Germany in disguise seeking his master, and at length came to the castle of Dürrenstein, in Austria, in which he heard that there was some illustrious captive. He placed himself under the tower and commenced singing a love-song which Richard and he had composed together. Hardly had he finished the first stanza,

when a well-known voice from the tower took up the second, and carried it on to the end. So the minstrel discovered his monarch, and, returning with all speed to England, was the means of his being ransomed by his subjects. Unfortunately, this story rests solely on the French Chronicle of Rheims, belonging to the latter half of the 13th century; its popularity dates only from Grétry's opera (1784). The poems that have come down to us under Blondin's name are poor and uninteresting; they are published by Tarbé in the *Collection des Poètes Champenois* (vol. xix. Rheims, 1862).

Blondin, CHARLES, rope-dancer, born in 1824 at St Omer, Pas-de-Calais, was trained at Lyons, where he made such rapid progress that he was designated 'The Little Wonder.' After making a several years' tour of the United States, on 30th June 1859, before a crowd of 25,000 persons, he crossed the Falls of Niagara on a tight-rope in five minutes; on 4th July, he crossed blindfold, trundling a wheelbarrow; on 19th August, he carried a man on his back; on 14th September 1860, he crossed on stilts in the presence of the Prince of Wales. His engagement at the Crystal Palace in 1862, where he performed on a rope 249 yards long, and 170 feet from the ground, drew immense crowds. After several years' retirement, he reappeared in 1880, and in 1888 was performing in London.

Blood, the nutritive fluid of the tissues and the great carrying tissue of the body, is the well-known red fluid which fills during life the arteries and veins of the body. It consists of an almost colourless fluid, the *liquor sanguinis* or *blood-plasma*, in which float a large number of small corpuscular bodies, the *blood-corpuscles* or *blood-globules*. The proportion of these to each other by weight is about one-third corpuscles to two-thirds plasma. The quantity of blood in the body by weight is about one-thirteenth part that of the whole body. When a drop of blood is examined under the microscope, the corpuscles floating about are seen to be of two kinds, distinguishable chiefly by their colour the white and the red. The white are very much fewer in number than the red, the proportion in healthy blood being about 1 to 355. Even in health, however, this proportion is subject to considerable variations, and still more so in disease; in some forms of disease (e.g. Leukæmia) the white corpuscles almost equalling in number the red.

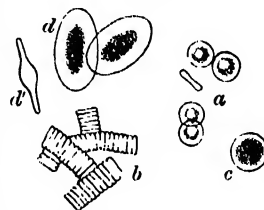
The *white corpuscle* is a pale granular-looking body, containing in its centre a small round nucleus. In common with all simple cellular bodies, it possesses the power of altering its shape from time to time, by alternately shooting out and withdrawing small processes from its substance, a movement to which the term *amoeboid* is given from its resemblance to what is seen in the simple organism the *Amœba* (q.v.).

The *red corpuscles*, on being withdrawn from the body, tend to run together into heaps resembling piles of coins or *rouleaux*. Their peculiar colour is due to the presence of a special colouring matter (*hemoglobin*). It is only when in bulk that they appear red and give the blood its characteristic red colour; the individual corpuscle itself is not red, but has more of a pale straw or fawn tint.

Throughout the animal kingdom two forms of red corpuscles are to be found. In man and in all other mammals, with the single exception of the camel in which the shape is elliptical, the red corpuscles are minute circular discs, flattened on each surface, and entirely devoid of any central kernel or nucleus. Each surface presents a slight hollowing out or depression, which gives rise to the shaded appearance seen in the centre of the corpuscle when viewed from its flat surface. In all

other vertebrate animals, including birds, reptiles, amphibians, and fishes, the red corpuscles are oval in shape, and contain a large central oval nucleus, the presence of which gives rise to a bulging in the centre of the corpuscle when viewed from its edge.

The red corpuscles of the blood vary much in size in different animals. In each species of animal they are always of uniform size. The corpuscles of mammals generally are much smaller than those of birds, those of reptiles and amphibians being still



a, Human red blood-corpuscles as seen from the surface and from the side; b, human red blood-corpuscles forming rouleaux; c, white blood-corpuscle; d, red corpuscles of the frog's blood, seen from the surface; d', the same as seen from the side.

larger. In man the average size of the red corpuscle is about $\frac{1}{2500}$ inch. The largest corpuscle of all—about $\frac{1}{400}$ inch in diameter—is to be found in *Protæus* (q.v.).

The number of corpuscles present in even a drop of blood is to be estimated by millions. In certain conditions of disease (e.g. Anæmia) the number may be reduced by one-half, one-third, or even more. They are formed in the spleen and red bone-marrow, probably also in the lymph glands, their exact mode of origin, however, being as yet obscure.

Composition of the Blood.—The red corpuscles are almost entirely made up of the colouring matter of the blood—hemoglobin; but contain in addition a very small proportion of albuminous bodies, with lecithin and cholesterolin. Of the salts contained in them, the most abundant are those of potassium.

The composition of the plasma is much more complex than that of the corpuscles. In addition to water, of which it mainly is made up, it contains albumens, fats, traces of sugar, and a large number of extractive bodies and salts. As regards the salts contained in it, the most important feature is the preponderance of the sodium salts over those of potassium.

The composition of the blood-plasma varies considerably at different times and under different conditions, according to the waste matters thrown into it from the tissues, or derived by absorption from the alimentary canal.

Coagulation of the Blood.—One of the most remarkable properties of the blood, and one which at all times has excited great interest and attention, is the property it possesses of 'clotting' or 'coagulating' on being withdrawn from the body. In the vessels of the body the blood is in a fluid condition; but shortly after being withdrawn, instead of remaining fluid, it becomes viscid and gelatinous, and finally 'sets' into a firm jelly-like mass, so that the vessel containing it can be inverted without any of it escaping. If it be now set aside for a few hours, a clear somewhat straw-coloured fluid gradually separates from this mass, and collects between the clot and the sides of the vessel in which it is contained. This gradually increases in quantity till finally the blood is divided into two portions, a firm red *clot*, which retains the shape of the vessel, floating free in a clear, transparent, straw-coloured fluid—the *blood-serum*. Coagulation is not a simple cooling of the blood, as was formerly supposed. On the contrary, it is delayed by cold; and by surrounding the blood with ice it can be prevented altogether. The rapidity with which it takes place varies considerably in different cases. It can be entirely prevented by the addition to the blood of various salts, especially those of sodium and magnesium. The blood

remains fluid within the blood-vessels in virtue of some property possessed by their walls. Even after death the blood may remain an indefinite time without coagulating; but on being withdrawn from the blood-vessel it at once coagulates.

The clot which forms as the result of coagulation retains the shape of the vessel into which the blood has been poured, and presents usually a cup-shaped depression on its upper surface. It consists almost entirely of the red corpuscles of the blood entangled in a meshwork of fine fibrils or threads, which are composed of a substance termed *fibrin*. This substance does not exist as such in the living blood, but is formed at the moment of coagulation by the action of a body also formed at the moment of coagulation—the *fibrin-ferment*—on one of the chief constituents of the plasma—*fibrinogen*: the original blood-plasma thus separates into a solid and a fluid portion, the former (fibrin) entangling in its meshes almost all the corpuscles, the latter (the serum) escaping free. By 'whipping' the blood—i.e. beating it up with a stick, coagulation is hastened, and at the same time the fibrin is removed from the blood in the form of a tough stringy mass: the remaining blood is then made up solely of the red corpuscles floating in the serum.

In former times, when blood-letting was so much practised for the relief or cure of disease, much importance was attached to the appearances presented by the blood after being withdrawn, and more especially to the appearance of the clot which formed. When the blood coagulates slowly, time is given for the red corpuscles, which are the heavier, to fall to the bottom, the white corpuscles then forming a paler layer at the upper part of the clot. The appearance of this paler layer the so-called 'buffy coat'—was thought to be of great significance, as indicating the existence of inflammations, and the patients were repeatedly bled, with a view to its removal. Little or no importance is now attached to such appearances. The colour and consistence of the clot, whether redder or paler, firm or more gelatinous, are entirely dependent upon the previous condition of the blood—its richness in blood corpuscles, or the poverty of its plasma in solid constituents.

Functions of the Blood.—The blood is the great carrying tissue of the body. As such its functions are of a three-fold nature: (1) it conveys the food-material to all the tissues of the body; (2) removes thence the waste-products; and (3) its red corpuscles are the great carriers of oxygen, without which the act of respiration could not be carried on. The blood going to the tissues (arterial blood) is of a bright red colour, due to the presence of a large excess of oxygen obtained in the lungs; whereas the blood returning from the tissues back to the heart and lungs (venous blood) is of a dark purple colour, its oxygen having been removed from it in the tissues, and a large quantity of carbonic acid having been added to it.

The red corpuscles possess great powers of absorbing oxygen, solely from the presence of the colouring matter in them the hemoglobin. This substance, one of the most complex found in the body, attaches oxygen to itself in a loose form in the lungs, and then delivers it up to the tissues. This is the change which occurs in the blood during breathing, the dark venous blood returning from the tissues, poor in oxygen and rich in carbonic acid, giving off its carbonic acid in the lungs, and again taking up fresh oxygen from the air, to return once more to the tissues as bright arterial blood. See RESPIRATION, ARTERIES, CIRCULATION, VEINS; also BLEEDING, BLOOD-STAINS.

Blood, AVENGER OF. In the early ages of society, almost everywhere, it was looked upon as the duty of the next of kin to avenge the death

of a murdered relative; but among some primitive peoples, as the modern Bedouins, as among the ancient Anglo-Saxons, the right is annulled by compensation. The Mosaic law did not set aside this universal institution of primitive society, but placed it under regulations, prohibiting the commutation of the penalty of death for money, and appointing *cities of refuge* for the involuntary manslayer. The wilful murderer was, in all cases whatever, to be put to death without permission of compensation. The nearest relative, whose duty it was to hunt down the murderer, was called *Goël*, the 'redeemer' or 'avenger.' See CITY OF REFUGE; and for the blood-feud, VENDETTA.

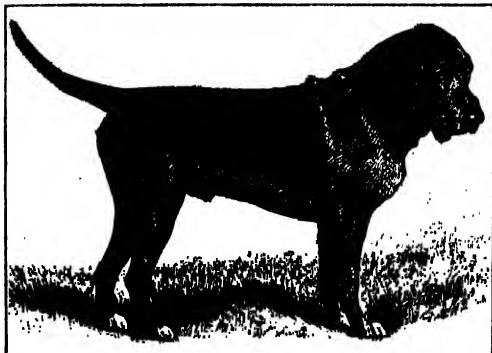
Blood, EATING OF. The eating of blood was prohibited under the Old Testament dispensation. Christians, with a few exceptions, have always regarded the prohibition as having ceased with the reason for it, and consider the exhortation of the apostolic council of Jerusalem to the Gentile converts, to abstain 'from things strangled and from blood,' to have been merely an application of the great law of Christian charity to the circumstances of a transition period, with reference to the prejudices of Jewish converts. Jews still always kill their own butcher-meat.

Blood, THOMAS, adventurer, was born in Ireland about 1618, and in the Great Rebellion sided with the parliament. Deprived of his estate at the Restoration, he put himself in 1663 at the head of a plot to seize Dublin Castle and Ormonde, the lord-lieutenant. On its discovery his chief accomplices were seized and executed; but he himself escaped to Holland, and was there received with high consideration. He soon found his way back to England to try what mischief might be brewed among the Fifth-Monarchy men; and thence proceeding to Scotland was present at the battle of Rullion Green (1666). On the night of 6th December 1670, the Duke of Ormonde was seized in his coach in St James's Street by a gang of braves, tied on horseback behind one of them, and hurried away towards Tyburn. The timely approach of his attendants at the moment when, in struggling with his riding-companion, he had succeeded in bringing him to the ground, probably saved the duke from hanging. Blood was the leader in this daring villainy. His next enterprise was still wilder and more dangerous. On 9th May 1671, disguised as a clergyman, with three accomplices he entered the Tower, determined to carry off the regalia. After nearly murdering the keeper of the jewels, he actually succeeded in getting off with the crown under his cloak, while one of his associates bore away the orb. They were pursued, however, seized, and committed to the Tower. Now came a singular turn of fortune. At the instigation of Buckingham, who was accused of having hired Blood to attack the Duke of Ormonde, King Charles visited the dauntless miscreant in prison, and, dreading the threat that there were hundreds of Blood's associates banded together by oath to avenge the death of any of the fraternity, pardoned him, took him to court, restored him his estate of £500 a year, and raised him so high in favour that for several years Colonel Blood was an influential medium of royal patronage. He quarrelled, however, with Buckingham, and was committed by the King's Bench on a charge of slander against him; he was bailed out, but died on 24th August 1680.

Blood-bird of New South Wales (*Myzomela sanguinolenta*), a beautiful little species of Honey-eater (q.v.) (Meliphagidae), which receives its name from the rich scarlet colour of the head, neck, breast, and back of the male. It inhabits thickets. A very similar species is found in Bengal.

Blood-flower (*Hemanthus*), a genus of Amaryllidaceæ (q.v.), mostly natives of South Africa, some of which are common in greenhouses. They take their name from the usual colour of their flowers, which form a fine head or crowded umbel. The bulbs are sometimes propagated by cutting them across above the middle, so as to stop the single growing point; new axillary bulbs then form around the outer edge. The species seem generally to possess poisonous properties. The inspissated juice of *H. toxicarius* is used in South Africa for poisoning arrows.

Bloodhound, a variety of Hound (q.v.), remarkable for its exquisite powers of scent, and for the eagerness with which it tracks a bleeding animal; it is able to select a freshly-wounded deer from among a herd, and follow its trail; and from this faculty it derives its name. It was also formerly called, both in England and Scotland, *stout-hound* or *stenth-hound*, from the Middle-English *stenth*, 'a slot or track' (Icel. *stoth*). The bloodhound was formerly common and much in use in Britain, as well as on the continent of Europe for hunting purposes, being in the possession of most noble families, who vied with one another in the purity and excellence of their different strains,



Bloodhound.

but is now rare, though Lord Wolverton, who died in 1887, at one time hunted a pack of bloodhounds in Dorsetshire. Bloodhounds were also much used to track escaped prisoners, and are mentioned in the poetical histories of Bruce and Wallace as being used by their enemies to discover them; and in later days they were resorted to by slave-owners in America in the pursuit of fugitive slaves. The bloodhound is a large tan-coloured dog, with an exceedingly handsome and noble head expressing dignity and strength. The head should be long and narrow, with a dome-shaped skull, the occipital bone forming a peculiar peak on the back of the skull; the eyes distinctly showing the third eyelid or 'haw,' which gives the eye a bloodshot and rather fierce look; the ears long enough to meet in front of the nose, but falling down close on either side of the face; colour, a rich tan with a dark saddle, showing no white if possible. The bloodhound is rather unmanageable when thoroughly roused, on account of his courage and strength, but when properly treated is generally docile, and makes a capital watch-dog. Many interesting anecdotes are recorded of the perseverance and success of bloodhounds in following a track upon which they have been set, even when it has led them through much frequented roads. As recently as 1876 an unsuccessful attempt was made at Blackburn to track a murderer by means of a bloodhound.—THE CUBAN BLOODHOUND, notorious as having been employed

in the pursuit of felons and of fugitive slaves in Cuba and elsewhere, differs considerably from the true bloodhound of Britain and of the continent of Europe, being fiercer and having more resemblance to the bulldog, and probably a connection with that or some similar breed. Many of these dogs were imported into Jamaica in 1796, to be employed in suppressing the Maroon (q.v.) insurrection; but the terror occasioned by their arrival produced the desired effect without their actual employment.

Blood-money, a reward received for bringing about the death of another, as by giving evidence leading to a conviction in a capital charge. The name is also applied to the compensation for a person's slaughter paid to his next of kin, the Wergild (q.v.) of our ancestors.

Blood-poisoning is a name popularly but loosely used of Pyæmia (q.v.) and allied diseases. See also DISSECTION WOUNDS, POISON, WOUNDS.

Blood-rain, which doubtless has its origin in the up-rushing currents of waterspouts and whirlwinds, has frequently fallen in Italy and Southern Europe, and has been repeatedly traced, through the microscope and chemical test, to the sandy deserts of Northern Africa adjoining. Similar rains have fallen in the Canaries, and they may be likewise ascribed to the African desert to the eastward. In these cases the origin is the rainless whirlwinds of these arid deserts, which are locally called 'devils.'

Blood-root. See GECUM, HÆMODOACEÆ, and SANGUINARIA.

Blood-stains. DETECTION OF, an important subject in connection with forensic medicine. On criminal trials the guilt of prisoners has frequently been established by the discovery of these stains. The following scheme shows the various methods employed in the investigation:

Visual—aided by *a*, ordinary lens; *b*, microscope; *c*, spectroscopic; *d*, artificial light.

Chemical—*a*, heat—*positive*: (1, change of colour; 2, coagulation); *b*, ammonia—*negative*; *c*, hæmatin test; *d*, guaiacum test.

Blood when liquid stains all articles with which it comes in contact. It sinks into woven textures and such material as soft wood, but on metallic surfaces and on hard woods it forms a film of greater or less thickness, and quickly dries. At first it is of a reddish-brown colour, but in the course of a few weeks this deepens and becomes almost black.

Looked at with a lens of low power—say 10 or 20 diameters—the blood, if in any quantity, and coagulated, and if it has not sunk into the texture of the cloth, is observed to present an irregular surface, and entangled in it have frequently been detected foreign materials which have afforded a clue to the culprit, and to the manner in which the crime has been committed. Thus hairs, fragments of cotton, epithelial scales from the throat, and minute fragments of birds' feathers have often been noted. This preliminary investigation concluded, the attempt is now made to discover the peculiar corpuscles of the blood (see BLOOD). This is a matter of great difficulty when the blood has stained such articles as linen or cotton stuffs and become dry, but when spilt on hard surfaces, or when it is in such quantity as to form a distinct coagulum, the corpuscles are generally easily determined by the following process. The object is, by breaking up the coagulum, to dissolve out the corpuscles in some medium as nearly as possible of the same density as the *liquor sanguinis* of the circulation. Numerous media have from time to time been proposed, such as solutions of sugar, phosphate of soda, iodide of potassium, &c., but the one generally employed is a solution of glycerine in

water of specific gravity 1.028. If this solution be applied, for example, to the stained blade of a knife, or if a minute portion of dried blood-clot be gently dissolved in it, a reddish fluid is obtained which under a high power of the microscope (300 diameters) rarely fails to exhibit numerous corpuscles which by their peculiar appearance (see BLOOD) are at once recognised to be mammalian blood-discs. In the case of stained linen, &c., there is greater difficulty. The stained portion must be thoroughly moistened with the solution, and then squeezed over a glass rod. When the reddish fluid reaches the surface, it must be removed with the blade of a knife, placed on glass, and submitted to the microscope. By this simple process, unless the stain be of great age, its character is determined. Human blood in these circumstances, however, cannot be distinguished from the blood of the other members of the great class of the mammalia, with the solitary exception of the camel tribe, which present an oval blood-corpuscle (see CAMEL).

Of late years, the interesting fact has been discovered that blood possesses a distinct spectrum, so that it is possible to determine that a reddish fluid is really blood, although the corpuscles may not have been discovered owing to their accidental destruction. The stained portion of cloth or a portion of blood-clot is digested in distilled water, and as the result a liquid of a reddish colour is obtained. This should be placed in a deep narrow cell and examined by a spectroscopic eye-piece with a low power of the microscope. Two dark bands make their appearance, one in the middle of the green rays, and the other at their junction with the yellow. These are highly characteristic of the presence of the blood of some red-blooded animal. See SPECTRUM, and SPECTROSCOPE.

Lastly, under this head of the visual detection of blood, the presence of blood-stains may unexpectedly be discovered with artificial light, by examining the furniture and especially the walls of an apartment on which blood has fallen. During the day the spots of blood remain undetected, but at night, and with artificial light, they are clearly visible. It is especially on papers with dark-blue figuring that this interesting fact has been observed.

The chemical relations of blood are very definite. All stains due to blood are soluble, and this fact enables us at once to distinguish them from insoluble stains which closely resemble them, and which have frequently been mistaken for them, such as paint and ironmould. The stain to be examined is cut out and suspended by means of thread in a glass tube filled with distilled water. Should the stain be at all recent, it immediately dissolves, and long filmy streaks of colouring matter are discharged and descend in wavy lines to the bottom of the tube, where ultimately a stratum of reddish fluid of greater or less intensity is collected. The clear supernatant fluid is poured off, and the coloured portion is divided into two parts. One part is boiled, and if the fluid contain blood, the following peculiar changes take place. The colour is discharged, the redness disappears and gives way to a grayish green, and in addition a distinct coagulum is formed. Both these changes are highly characteristic of blood. Should some liquor potassæ be now added, the coagulum is redissolved, and shows a green colour by reflected light. This may be described as a positive test of the presence of blood. The action of ammonia supplies us with a valuable negative one. If this volatile alkali be added to a solution of blood, no change of colour is produced. All other soluble stains are more or less altered in colour, such as those from the juices of fruits, &c., which have frequently been mistaken

for blood, and thus have given rise to grave suspicions. Experiments were made in France to form a fluid which in its chemical reactions, it was expected, could not be distinguished from blood. Mixtures of madder and other colouring matters with white of egg were proposed, but while they coagulated with heat, there was no alteration in the colour of the liquid. If a particle of dried blood can be removed from a weapon or any surface, an attempt may be made to prove that it is blood by the formation of blood or hematin crystals. The procedure is as follows: the particle is placed on a microscopic glass slide and moistened with glacial acetic acid. The glass is now gently heated over a spirit-lamp, when ebullition occurs, the blood particle dissolves, and ultimately a reddish-brown stain is left. If this stain is examined by the microscope, peculiar prismatic crystals are visible among the dried debris.

Lastly, in several interesting medico-legal cases where it was suspected that articles of clothing had been washed in order to obliterate the traces of blood, its presence has been determined by its reaction with the resin of guaiacum. On the suspected site of the blood-stain are placed a few drops of a spirituous solution of guaiacum freshly prepared. The resin is at once observed to separate on the surface of the cloth; if to this is now added a small quantity of peroxide of hydrogen, a beautiful sapphire-blue colour is struck.

Such are the chief means employed to detect blood. It is important to remember that they do not enable us to distinguish human from other mammalian blood:—with the exception already mentioned nor arterial from venous, nor male from female, nor adult from that of the young; but the blood-discs of birds and cold-blooded animals generally, from their size and other peculiarities, cannot be mistaken for those of man.

The standard works on medical jurisprudence are those of Taylor, *Principles and Practice of Medical Jurisprudence* (3d ed. 1883); Guy and Ferrier (5th ed. 1888); Woodman and Tidy; Orfila, *Médecine légale*; Briand; Caspar; Hoffman.

Bloodstone, a dark green stone spotted with red; see HELIOTROPE. Also a name for red hematite and ironstone.

Blood-worm, a name given by anglers and others to the very abundant aquatic larva of a gnat-like Dipterous insect known as *Chironomus plumosus*. This is the commonest of a large number (195) of British species, and the larva is very frequent in stagnant water. It has a worm-like appearance, a blood-red colour, and is used for bait. The development of *Chironomus* is of great biological interest on account of the very early isolation of those elements which are to form the future reproductive organs of the insect. Before the cells of the dividing egg have had time to change at all, these future reproductive rudiments are set apart, and as they do not share in the future changes of development, they must obviously preserve intact the constitution of the parent, and hand it on to the next offspring. See HEREDITY.

Bloomer Costume, a ladies' dress partly resembling male attire, which arose out of what is termed the 'Woman's Rights Movement' that began to be agitated in the United States about the year 1848. About the same time, and in close connection with this movement, arose an agitation for the reform of female attire. In 1849 Mrs Bloomer adopted the costume to which she has given her name, and lectured in New York and elsewhere on its advantages. The Bloomer dress consisted of a jacket with close sleeves, a skirt falling a little below the knee, and a pair of Turkish trousers. Though a few ladies followed

the example of Mrs Bloomer, the dress was extremely unpopular, and exposed its adherents to a degree of social martyrdom which the more prudent, timid, or amiable declined to brave. Dress reformation societies and private persons have from time to time advocated changes in the costume of women less radical than Mrs Bloomer's, and the 'divided skirt' has still its supporters.

Bloomery, the first forge through which iron passes after it has been melted from the ore, and where it is made into blooms. See IRON.

Bloomfield, ROBERT, the author of *The Farmer's Boy* and other pastoral pieces, born 3d December 1766, at Honnington, near Bury St Edmunds, was the son of a poor tailor, who died when Robert was a year old, leaving his wife to struggle with a school, where the future poet learned to read. At the age of eleven he was hired to a farmer, but ultimately became a shoemaker in London, where he wrote his *Farmer's Boy* in a poor garret. Through the efforts of Capel Lofft it was published in 1800, had extraordinary popularity, and was translated into a number of languages. He subsequently published *Rural Tales*, *Wild Flowers*, and other pieces. The Duke of Grafton interested himself in his behalf and gave him a small allowance. He made Eolian harps, wrote poetry, and embarked in the book-trade, but failed. Latterly his health broke down, he became hypochondriac and half blind, and he died in poverty at Sheffield, in Bedfordshire, 19th August 1823. See his *Remains in Prose and Verse* (1824); and W. H. Hart's *Selections from Correspondence* (1871).

Bloomington, capital of McLean county, Illinois, 126 miles SSW. of Chicago, is an important railway centre, and has a brisk trade and large railway-works, with foundries, furnaces, and coal-mines. There is a Wesleyan university in the town; and near it is the Illinois Normal University (430 students), in connection with which there is a state laboratory of natural history. Bloomington has a court-house built of Illinois marble, a Roman Catholic academy, and the Major College for women. Pop. (1860) 7075; (1880) 17,180. - There is another Bloomington, a post-village lying between the branches of the White River, 60 miles SSW. of Indianapolis, in Indiana, seat of the Indiana University.

Blount, CHARLES, deist, was born at Upper Holloway, London, 27th April 1654. He became noted for his contributions (often but flippant) to the political, literary, and theological controversies of the times, some of his works being *Anima Mundi*, a translation of the first two books of *Apolonius Tytiensis*, *Great is Diana of the Ephesians*, *Janua Scientiarum*, and *Vindication of Learning*. His miscellaneous works, with preface by Gildon, appeared in 1695. Despairing of marriage with his deceased wife's sister, he died by his own hand in 1693. The material of Blount's volumes was chiefly borrowed from other writers; but his contributions to freethought had an influence on the deistical movement.

Blount, THOMAS (1618-79), was called to the bar, but lived and died a country gentleman on Arleton, his estate in Herefordshire. A zealous Catholic, he was author of some sixteen works, the best known being *Ancient Tenures of Land* and *Jocular Customs of some Manors* (1679; new ed. 1815).

Blouse, the French name for a loose, sacklike over-garment somewhat answering to the English smock-frock. France is pre-eminently the country of blouses, ordinarily blue, worn not only by the country-people, but by workmen in towns.

Blow, JOHN, composer, born about 1648, became organist of Westminster Abbey in 1669, and of the Chapel Royal in 1676. For the stage he wrote a masque, *Venus and Adonis*, in which Mary Davis sang the part of Venus before Charles II.; and he was author of many birthday, New Year, and St Cecilia odes, about one hundred anthems, and fourteen services. His contemporaries thought him the 'greatest master in the world' in organ playing, and unprejudiced critics now consider his music in many respects in advance of his age, and as displaying great power and individuality. He died 1st October 1708.

Blow-fly, or FLESH-FLY (*Sarcophaga carnaria*), an insect of the order Diptera ('two-winged'), (q.v.), and of the large family Muscidae, of which the common House-fly, Blue-bottle (q.v.), &c. are familiar examples. It is very similar to these in general appearance; the body is hairy, the expanse of its wings about one inch, the face silky and yellow, the palps black, the thorax gray with three black stripes, the abdomen of a shining blackish brown, which, in



Blow-fly.

certain points of view, assumes a bluish tint, chequered with glittering yellowish spots. One of the distinguishing characters of the genus is, that the eyes are widely separate in both sexes, but in colour, hairiness, and shape of abdomen the males and females differ slightly. The multiplication is as usual rapid (one female may produce 20,000 larvae); some species produce their young alive (viviparously); the larvae feed (as the generic name suggests—Gr. *sarx*, 'flesh', *phaga*, 'I eat') on the flesh of living or dead animals; the insect passes the winter in the pupa stage. The adults are common in Britain on heaths, in gardens, copses, &c.; and the larvae are to be found feeding upon meat, the carcasses of animals, sometimes upon living earthworms, and too frequently upon sheep, of which it is one of the most grievous pests, requiring the constant attention of the shepherd during most of the summer and autumn. Some districts are more infested with it than others; it is particularly troublesome in the fenlands of England. Unless the maggots are removed, they eat into the skin, the sheep suffer great torment, and soon die. At first they may be removed by shaking them out of the wool, into which dry sand is then abundantly sprinkled; but if they are very numerous, a mercurial ointment or wash of corrosive sublimate is applied; and when the skin is much broken, the wool is clipped away, an ointment of tar and grease is used, and a cloth sewed over the part.

Another of the numerous species of this genus, common in Britain, is *S. mortuorum*, so named from its frequenting burial-vaults and laying its ova on corpses. It is very similar to the blow-fly, but the abdomen is of a shining steel blue, and the palps, feelers, and head are reddish brown. There

are altogether about 50 European species of *Sarcophaga*.

Blowing-machines. The earliest blowing-machine was, doubtless, some form of the common bellows, the idea of which is supposed to have been derived from the lungs. A very primitive form of this instrument is still in use in some Eastern countries, consisting simply of the skin of some animal sewed into a rude bag with a valve and nozzle.

Bellows.—The domestic bellows are worked by drawing the boards apart, when air is sucked in by the valve, to replace the vacuum which would otherwise be formed; and then, when the boards are being closed, the valve, which only opens inwards, is shut by the compressing of the air; so that the latter, having no other escape, is forced out at the nozzle.

The great fault of the common bellows is, that it gives a succession of puffs, and not a continuous blast. One remedy for this was to use two bellows, so that one was blowing while the other was filling; but it was afterwards found that the double-bellows secured a still more uniform blast. This machine, shown in fig. 1, is merely the common bellows with

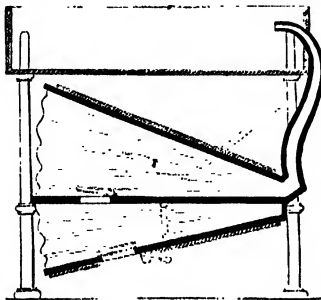


Fig. 1.—Section of Double-bellows for a Portable Forge.

a third board of the same shape as the other two placed between them, so as to form two chambers instead of one. The middle board is fixed, and both it and the lower one have valves placed in them opening inward. A weight on the lower board keeps the under chamber filled with air; and when this board is raised by a lever or otherwise, the air which it contains is forced into the upper chamber. The exit-pipe is attached to the latter, and a weight is placed on the upper board sufficiently heavy to press the air out in a continuous stream, the continuity being maintained by the large quantity of air always present in the upper chamber, and the uniform pressure of the weight. Even with the double-bellows, however, the blast is not quite regular.

Bellows made entirely of wood except the nozzle, first made in Germany in the 16th century, are in use in some continental countries, but they are only a modification of the common bellows.

The Chinese have a very simple form of bellows, shown in fig. 2, which is not only interesting in

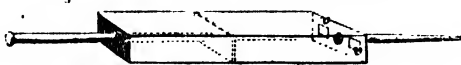


Fig. 2.—Chinese Bellows.

itself, but also because its action is almost the same as the blowing-engine. It is merely a square chamber of wood, with a close-fitting piston, which, when drawn from the nozzle, opens the valves, *v, v*, to admit air, and when pushed in

the opposite direction, shuts these valves, and forces the air out by the nozzle.

Blowing-engines.—For iron blast-furnaces and for Bessemer steel converters, blowing-engines of large size are employed. In the former, the strength of the blast is usually, in this country, from 3 to 4 lb. per square inch, sometimes it is 6 lb., and in the United States it is used at as high as 10 lb. For the Bessemer Converter (*q.v.*), where a much greater pressure is required, it occasionally reaches 30 lb. per square inch. A general view of a blowing-engine is given in the article IRON. It consists in its simplest form of a steam-cylinder, an air-cylinder, and a large air-chamber, to insure a uniform blast. Sometimes the latter is dispensed with, and large main-pipes used instead. We shall merely describe the blowing-cylinder here. It is marked X in fig. 3, and is of

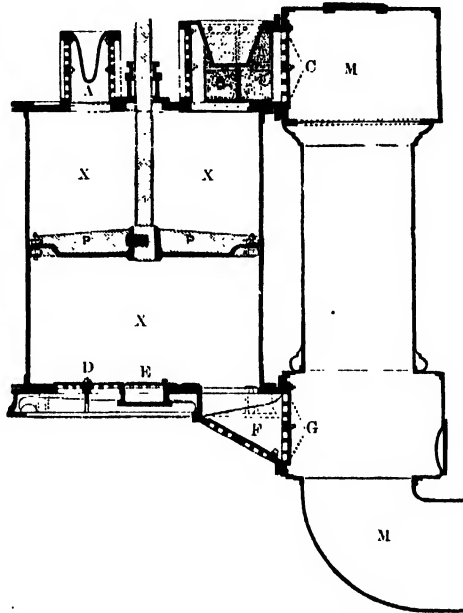


Fig. 3.—Section of a Blowing-cylinder, Shelton Iron-works, Stoke-upon-Trent.

cast-iron, with an air-tight piston, P, which, as it ascends and descends with the motion of the engine, alternately inhales and expels the air at each end. To effect this, a series of valves are provided, and these are arranged as follows: Inlet valves are placed on the top of the cylinder at A, and also on three sides of the box at B, but on the fourth side of this box there are two outlet valves at C. These valves consist of numerous openings, against which leather flaps lie when they are shut. Valves of a similar nature are placed at the bottom of the cylinder; those for the inlet of air at D, E, and F; and those for outlet at G. When the piston descends, it would create a vacuum in the upper portion of the cylinder, provided there were no openings in it; but the external air pressing on the inlet valves, opens them, and fills the space above the piston; at the same time, the outlet valves at C, which only open outwards, are tightly closed by the air pressing inwards from the pipe, M. Again, when the piston ascends, it compresses the air above it, and exactly reverses the action of the valves; that is to say, it shuts the inlet valves at A and B, opens the valves at C, and allows the compressed air to pass along the outlet pipe, M,

which is made of large size, so as to offer as little resistance as possible to the passage of the air. The valves at the bottom of the cylinder work exactly in the same way, the inlet valves, D, E, and F, opening when the piston ascends, and shutting when it descends, thus compelling the inhaled air to pass into the pipe, M, by the lower outlet valves at G. The air is conducted by the pipe, M, into a receiver of large capacity, which serves to equalise the blast before it passes to the tuyeres. See IRON, fig. 1.

A blast-engine at Shelton Ironworks, of which the blowing-cylinder is 8 feet 4 inches in diameter, and has a 9-feet stroke (represented in fig. 3), working with 186 horse-power, and making say 32 single strokes of the piston per minute, inhales 15,700 cubic feet of atmospheric air per minute; but this is compressed by the blowing-cylinder to a pressure of 3 lb. per square inch above the atmosphere, which reduces the volume supplied by the cylinder to 13,083 cubic feet. Its volume, however, is largely increased again, when raised to the hot-blast temperature, before entering the furnace. See Percy's *Metallurgy*, vol. ii.

Among the finest blowing-engines in England are those belonging to the Wigan Coal and Iron Co., and are situated at Kirkless Hall, near Wigan.

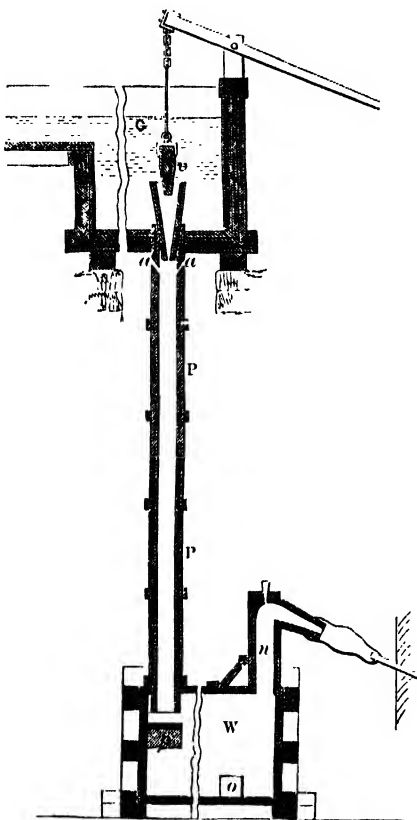


Fig. 4.—Trompe, or Water-blowing Machine (vertical section).

They were designed by the late Robert Wilson of the Bridgewater Foundry, near Manchester. Three pairs of engines are used, each pair consisting of a high and a low pressure steam-cylinder. The blowing-cylinders, six in number, are placed directly over the steam-cylinders, each of the

former being 8 feet 4 inches in diameter with a stroke of 12 feet. One of these blowing-cylinders weighs 25 tons. Valve gear of ingenious construction admits of the engines being worked at different speeds to suit the number of blast-furnaces in operation.

Trompe.—In the Catalan forges of Spain, the south of France, and some parts of America, there is a very ingenious water-blowing machine in use called a *Trompe*; but it can only be advantageously employed where a fall of a few yards of water is available. Its construction will be understood by an inspection of fig. 4. A strong wooden cistern, C, to act as a reservoir for the water; wooden pipes, P (generally two in number), through which it descends; and a wind-chest, W, to allow the air and water to separate, constitute the essential parts of the apparatus. It is put in operation by lifting the wedge *v* with a lever; this allows the water to rush down the pipe, and in doing so, draws in air through sloping holes, *a, a*, called aspirators, at the throat of the pipe. A continuous current of water and air is thus supplied to the wind-chest, which is provided with an opening at *o* for the escape of the water, while the air passes out in a regular stream by the nozzle-pipe at *n*. The height from which the water falls determines the tension of the blast; but the height seldom exceeds 27 feet, which gives a pressure of from 1½ to 2 lb. to the square inch. The separation of the air from the water is greatly promoted by the current impinging on the platform, *p*.

Fans.—The fan is another machine for producing blasts of air. It is employed for such purposes as the melting of pig-iron in foundries and for forge fires. It is also used as an exhaust to withdraw foul air from mines, public buildings, and ships. For mines it is occasionally of a very large size (see VENTILATION). The winnowing of corn is another application of it. The common blast-fan is shown in fig. 5. It is like a wheel with the

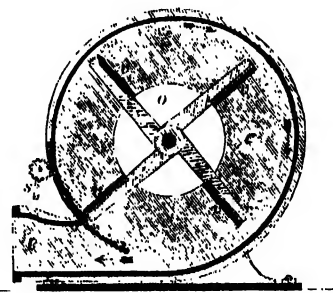


Fig. 5.—Fan (vertical section).

arms tipped with vanes or blades, *v, v, v, v*, instead of being joined by a rim, and it is placed usually in an eccentric position, inside a chest, *c*, with central openings on each side for the admission of air, one of which is shown at *o*. It is generally driven by steam-power, and as it revolves, air is sucked in at the centre, drawn towards the tips, and impelled forward through the exit pipe, *e*.

Blast-fans seldom exceed 3 feet in diameter. The number of revolutions made per minute ranges from 700 to 1800; but the pressure of the fan-blast does not usually go beyond 6 ounces per square inch for ordinary foundry cupolas. Schiele's fan has numerous curved blades, and is nearly noiseless. It does not require much power to drive it, and has been very much used. Lloyd's fan has also curved blades, but they are fewer in number than in Schiele's. B. F. Sturtevant of Boston is the inventor of a fan with twelve curved blades,

and with conical annular discs on the same axis. This form is very much liked in the United States (see the *Engineer* for 1883 and 1884).

Rotary Pressure Blowers.—These are machines introduced in comparatively recent years. They act by regular displacement of the air at each revolution, since their pistons or drums closely fit their cases. In this respect they differ from fans, because, although there were no outlet for the blast, a fan could be kept revolving, but in such a case a pressure blower would stop. The rotary blower by Roots of Connersville, Indiana, is one of

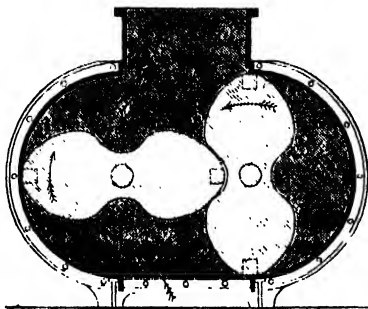


Fig. 6.—Roots's Rotary Blower.

the best known, and is now very largely used for producing blasts in metallurgical operations, as well as for other purposes, in America and Europe. Its most improved form, patented in England in 1885, is shown in fig. 6. A pair of horizontal shafts traverse a case of the form of two semi-cylinders, separated by a rectangle equal in depth to the diameter of the semi-cylinders, and in width to the distance between the centres of the shafts. These shafts carry a pair of solid arms or pistons, the relative positions of which are maintained by external gearing at both ends provided with safety coverings. Each has a section somewhat resembling a figure of eight, and the action of which, as they revolve, takes the air in by an aperture at the bottom of the machine, and expels it with considerable pressure, if required, at the top. It gives a much greater pressure of blast than is attainable by the fan.

Another excellent machine of this kind, designed by J. G. Baker of Philadelphia, is employed for the same purposes as Roots's. It has a central drum with two vanes fairly fitting the two ends and the bored semi-cylindrical top of the case. Two lower drums, crescent-shaped in section, work by external gears at double the velocity of the central drum, the vanes of which move successively through the opening in each of the lower drums. The latter turn so as alternately to form abutments to prevent escape of air from either the entrance or delivery side. These rotary blowers produce blasts from a few ounces up to 3 lb. per square inch.

Blowpipe, a small instrument used in the arts for glass-blowing and soldering metals, and in analytical chemistry and mineralogy, for determining the nature of substances by the action of an intense and continuous heat. Its utility depends on the fact, that when a jet of air or oxygen is thrown into a flame, the rapidity of combustion is increased, while the effects are concentrated by diminishing the extent or space originally occupied by the flame.

The blowpipe generally consists of a conical tube of metal, about 8 inches long (see fig.), closed at the wider or lower end, but open at the narrow or upper end, which latter constitutes the mouthpiece, and

is turned over to admit of the lips closing perfectly round it. fitted with a finely perforated nozzle, *a*, is inserted in the large tube—the space below being intended as a chamber for condensing the moisture of the breath, and through this nozzle, a fine current of air can be projected against the flame experimented with.

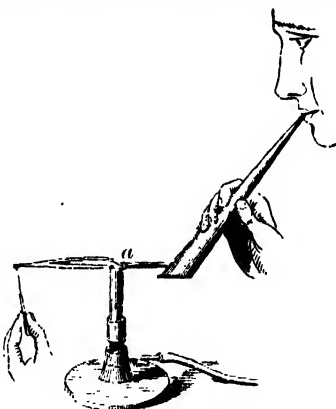
The use of the mouth

blowpipe, so as to sustain a prolonged steady blast, requires some skill, and is at first very fatiguing to the learner. In breathing, the manipulator involuntarily closes the back of the mouth, retaining in the expanded cheeks sufficient air to last till the lungs have been replenished through the nose. Where high temperatures are required mechanical blowpipes are resorted to.

When a current of air from the blowpipe is directed against a candle or gas-jet, the flame almost entirely loses its luminosity, owing to the perfect combustion of the gases evolved from the source of heat, and is projected in a lateral direction, as a long pointed cone, consisting of three distinct parts. The first or central cone is of a dark-blue colour, and there the combustion is complete from the excess of air thrown in from the small nozzle. The second cone, or that immediately surrounding the first, is somewhat luminous; and here the oxygen being insufficient for the combustion of the carbon, any metallic oxide subjected to the action of this portion of the flame is deprived of its oxygen, and reduced to the condition of metal; for this reason the luminous cone is generally termed the *reducing flame* of the blowpipe. Beyond the second cone, or where the flame comes freely in contact with the atmosphere, and abundance of oxygen is present to effect complete combustion of the gases, is a third, or pale yellow envelope, containing excess of atmospheric air at a very high temperature, so that a portion of metal, such as lead or copper, placed at this point, becomes rapidly converted into its oxide; this outer part of the flame is on this account called the *oxidising flame* of the blowpipe.

Substances under examination before the blowpipe are generally supported either on wood-charcoal or platinum—the latter in the condition of wire or foil. In applying the blowpipe test, the body to be examined is either heated alone, or along with some flux or fusible substance; this being added, in some cases, for the purpose of assisting in the reduction of metals from their ores and other compounds; in others, for the production of a transparent glassy bead, in which different colours can be readily observed. When heated alone, a loop of platinum wire, or a piece of charcoal, is generally employed as a support; the former when the colour of the flame is to be regarded as the characteristic reaction, the latter when such effects as the oxidation or reduction of metallic substances are to be observed.

The following are examples of the difference in colour communicated to the flame by different



Blowpipe.

substances: Salts of potash colour the flame *violet*; soda, *yellow*; lithia, *purplish red*; baryta, *yellowish green*; strontia, *carmine*; lime, *brick red*; compounds of phosphoric acid, boracic acid, and copper, *green*. The commonly occurring metallic oxides reducible by heating on charcoal alone in the inner flame of the blowpipe are the oxides of zinc, silver, lead, copper, bismuth, and antimony; the principal ores not so reducible are the alkalies and alkaline earths, as also the oxides of iron, manganese, and chromium. The fluxes generally used in blowpipe experiments are either carbonate of soda, borax (liborate of soda), or the ammoniaphosphate of soda, otherwise called *Microcosmic Salt* (q.v.). The carbonate of soda, when heated on platinum-wire in the oxidising flame, forms with silica a *colourless glass*; with oxide of antimony, a *white bead*, &c. The following metals are reduced from their compounds when heated with carbonate of soda on charcoal in the inner flame of the blowpipe: viz. nickel, cobalt, iron, molybdenum, tungsten, copper, tin, silver, gold, and platinum. When compounds of zinc, lead, bismuth, arsenic, antimony, tellurium, and cadmium are similarly treated, these metals are also formed, but being volatile, pass off in vapour at the high temperature to which they are exposed.

Borax, as a flux, is generally mixed with the substance under examination, and placed on platinum-wire. When thus heated in either of the flames, baryta, strontia, lime, magnesia, alumina, and silica, yield *colourless beads*; cobalt gives a *fine blue colour*; copper, a *green*, &c. With microcosmic salt, the results obtained are generally similar to those with borax, and need not be specially mentioned, as the test is applied in the same way. The blowpipe has been long used by goldsmiths and jewellers for soldering metals, and by glass-blowers in fusing and sealing glass-tubes, &c.; it has also been applied in qualitative analysis for many years, but more recently chemists (especially Plattner) have devoted their attention to its use, and have even employed it with great success in *quantitative* chemical analysis; the advantages being that only a very small quantity of material is required to be operated upon, whilst the results may be obtained with great rapidity and considerable accuracy.

The *oxyhydrogen blowpipe* is an arrangement by which a jet of oxygen and hydrogen, in the proportions to form water, is ignited and directed against any object. The most intense heat is produced, most of the metals being volatilised when placed in it, and even the diamond changes into ordinary carbon, and is burned when exposed to its flame. When a cylinder of quicklime is heated by it, a most dazzling light is produced, rivaling the electric light in brilliancy, and known as the Drummond Light (q.v.).

Blowpipe, a kind of weapon much used by some of the Indian tribes of South America, both in war and for killing game. It consists of a long straight tube, in which a small poisoned arrow is placed, and forcibly expelled by the breath. The tube or blowpipe, called *gravatana*, *puwuna*, &c., is 8 to 12 feet long, the bore not generally large enough to admit the little-finger. It is made of reed or of the stem of a small palm. Near Pará, it is in general very ingeniously and nicely made of two stems of a palm (*Iriartea setigera*) of different diameters, the one fitted into the other. In some places the inner tube is formed of the thin stem of a reed, protected by an outer one of this palm. A *sight* is affixed to it near the end. The arrows used in that district are 15 to 18 inches long, made of the spines of another palm, sharply pointed, notched so as to break off in the wound, and their points covered with *Curari* (q.v.) poison. A little soft

down of the silk-cotton tree is twisted round each arrow, so as exactly to fit the tube. In Peru, arrows of only $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches long are used, and a different kind of poison seems to be employed. An accidental wound from one of these poisoned arrows not infrequently proves fatal. In the hand of a practised Indian, the blowpipe is a very deadly weapon, and particularly when directed against birds sitting in the tops of high trees. As his weapon makes no noise, the hunter often empties his quiver before he gathers up the game, and does more execution than an English sportsman could with his double-barrelled fowling-piece. In Borneo, the Dyaks have a similar blowpipe called a *sump-itan*. It, however, has an iron spear-head tied on the end so that it can be used as a spear. It is employed both in war and hunting. Small arrows, which have on their end a piece of pith adapted to the bore of the tube, are used. These are pointed with sharp fish-teeth and poisoned with upas. They are blown with great accuracy; and if the upas-juice is fresh, a wound from an arrow, fired at a distance of 40 yards, proves fatal to man. See POISON.

Blubber. See WHALE.

Blücher, GERHARD LEBERECHT VON, Prince of Wahlstadt, Field-marshal of Prussia, was born at Rostock, in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, December 16, 1742. In 1757, shortly after the commencement of the Seven Years' War, he joined a regiment of Swedish hussars, and in his first action was taken prisoner by the Prussian hussars, whose colonel persuaded him to exchange out of the service of Sweden into that of Prussia, and gave him a lieutenancy. He attained the rank of captain, but his dissipated habits lost him the favour of his colonel, who promoted a younger officer over his head, and Blücher, in 1772, left the service in disgust. He retired to his estate of Grossradow, in Pomerania, and for fifteen years devoted himself to farming. In 1793, having returned to the army, he fought, as colonel of hussars, against the French on the Rhine, evincing great genius as a leader of cavalry. The breaking out of the war of 1806 led him, as lieutenant-general, to the battle of Auerstädt. He, with the greater part of the cavalry, occupied the left flank of the Prince of Hohenlohe's army in the retreat to Pomerania. Blücher himself marched into the territory of the free town of Lübeck, and hastily fortified the city; but the French took it by storm, and he was forced to surrender at Ratkau, whither he had escaped with a few troops. A fortnight after, he was exchanged for the French general Victor, and was sent, at the head of a corps, to assist in the defence of Stralsund. After the peace of Tilsit, he was employed at Königsberg and Berlin, and subsequently became commander in Pomerania. When the Prussians at last rose in opposition to France, Blücher was appointed to the chief command in Silesia, and at the battles of Lützen, Bautzen, and Haynau, he displayed heroic courage. At the Katzbach, he defeated Marshal Macdonald, and cleared Silesia of the enemy. In vain did Napoleon himself attempt to stop the 'old captain of hussars,' as he called him, in his victorious career.

In the battle of Leipzig he won great advantage over Marshal Marmont at Mückern, October 16, 1813; and on the 18th, in conjunction with the crown prince of Sweden, he had a great share in the defeat of the French, his troops being the first to enter Leipzig, the next day. In January 1814 he crossed the Rhine, and after winning the battle of La Rothière, pressed forward to Paris; but his scattered corps were routed by Napoleon, and he fought his way back to Chalons with great loss. On the 9th March, however, he defeated Napoleon at Laon; and at the end of the month he again

advanced towards Paris, although sickness compelled him to make the journey in a wagon. The day at Montmartre crowned the brilliant deeds of this campaign, and, on the 31st March, Blücher entered the French capital. Frederick-William III. created him Prince of Wahlstadt, in remembrance of the victory at the Katzbach, and gave him an estate in Silesia. In England, whither he followed the Allied Sovereigns, he received the freedom of the city of London, and the university of Oxford conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Laws. After Napoleon's return in 1815, Blücher once more assumed the general command, and promptly led the army into the Netherlands. On June 16, 1815, he suffered a severe defeat at Ligny, but he personally rallied his scattered troops, and Wellington's victory at the battle of Waterloo was completed by his timely appearance on the field. Blücher despatched his Prussians after the fleeing enemy, and the pursuit lasted all through the night. Declining the offered truce, he marched again against Paris, and on the second taking of that city manifested a strong desire to retaliate on Paris the spoliation that other capitals had suffered; but he was held in check by the Duke of Wellington. In order to reward Blücher's services, Frederick-William III. created a new order, the badge of which consisted of an iron cross surrounded by golden rays. In 1819 a colossal bronze statue was erected in his honour in his native town, and others were afterwards raised in Breslau and Berlin. He died September 12, 1819, after a short illness, at his estate of Krieblowitz, in Silesia. 'Marshal forwards' was not a great tactician, his victories being due mainly to his dash and energy. In speech and behaviour he was rough and uncultivated; his character was a noble compound of frankness, valour, integrity, and loyalty. His ardent enthusiasm for the liberation of Prussia and Germany from a foreign yoke, and his uncompromising pursuit of this noble aim, have justly rendered him a hero in the eyes of the German people. The statue of Blücher at Breslau is Raneh's masterpiece. The best biographies are those by Förster (Leip. 1821); Scherr (1865); Blasendorff (Berlin, 1877); and the second volume of Wigger's *Geschichte der Familie von Blücher* (Rostock, 1878).

Blue. The blue pigments in common use by artists are few in number, and consist of native and Artificial Ultramarine, Cobalt, Indigo, and Prussian Blue (q.v.). Genuine ultramarine, prepared from the mineral lapis lazuli, and ordinary cobalt blue, sold for artists' work, are permanent colours. They are used either alone, or mixed with other pigments, chiefly for skies and distances in landscape; and by themselves, or to make up grays and other mixed tints in figure-painting. Owing to the exceptionally high price of real ultramarine, the artificial colour, which is of doubtful permanency, is usually substituted for it. Prussian blue and indigo are highly useful colours, since it is only these that yield dark blues, and only from them, mixed with yellows or browns, that strong greens can be obtained. It is unfortunate accordingly that both are more or less fugitive. All the blues above named are used both in oil and water-colour painting, but indigo less than the others in oil, since it is most apt to fade in that medium.

A number of different names are used in commerce for what is essentially the same pigment, or for pigments closely resembling one another. The following statement gives some explanation of these.

Cobalt blues are mixtures of cobalt with earthy or metallic bases, which have been subjected to the action of heat, and have received the following names: Cobalt blue, cerulean blue, royal blue,

Dumont's blue, Saxon blue, Thénard's blue, Leithner's blue, Hungary blue, Zaffre or enamel blue, Vienna blue, azure blue, and Paris blue. The last name is also applied to a Prussian blue, and azure is also given to a variety of ultramarine blue.—*Smalt* is a powdered cobalt glass used in illumination and flower-painting.—*Artificial ultramarine* is also called French ultramarine, French blue, new blue, and permanent blue. Coarse qualities of this colour are largely used by house-painters.—*Intense blue* is a refined indigo.—*Prussian blue* (sesquiferrocyanide of iron) is otherwise named Berlin blue, Paris blue, and ferrocyanide of iron. The name Paris blue is also given to a cobalt colour.—*Antwerp blue* is a variety of Prussian blue made lighter by the addition of an aluminous base, and not so permanent.—*Blue ochre* (hydrated phosphate of iron) is a subdued permanent blue, but not much employed.—*Blue verditer* is a hydrated oxide of copper which changes and ultimately blackens by time. It is used in distemper work and paper-staining.

Blue was worn as a distinctive colour by the Scottish covenanters, and is in some places used by Conservatives. The traditional Whig colour was blue also, or blue and buff. *Navy blue* is a dark blue. Dark blue is the Oxford colour, light blue the Cambridge one.

For Blue Dyes, see DYEING; and for blue colours used in the manufacture of GLASS and POTTERY, see these heads. *Bluing* is a name for indigo or any material used for giving a bluish colour to linen. See also TEMPERING.

Bluebeard, the hero of a well-known nursery tale, so named from the colour of his beard. The story is widely known in Western Europe, but the form in which it has become familiar in England is not an independent version, but a free translation of that given by Perrault in his famous *Contes* (1697). In this story Bluebeard is a seigneur of great wealth, who marries the daughter of a neighbour in the country, and a month after the wedding goes from home on a journey, leaving his wife the keys of his castle, but forbidding her to enter one room. She cannot resist her curiosity, opens the door to find the bodies of all Bluebeard's former wives, and at once sees the fate to which she herself is doomed. Bluebeard on his return discovers, from a spot of blood upon the key, which would not be cleaned off, that his wife had broken his command, and tells her that she must die. She begs for a short respite to commend herself to God, sends her sister Anne to the top of the tower to look round if any help is near, and finally is just on the point of having her head cut off, when her two brothers burst in and despatch Bluebeard.

Nothing is more common in folk-tales than stories of forbidden rooms, the entrance into which is at once followed by severe punishment. In the eastern stories, according to Mr Clouston, the room does not usually contain anything very horrifying, unlike most of the western examples of which the story of Bluebeard is a type. A very close parallel to the classical form of the story is offered by a Swabian tale in Grimm's collection; so close, indeed, that in later editions than the first, Grimm omitted it as probably a direct loan from the French. Greek, Tuscan, Icelandic, Esthonian, Gaelic, and Basque versions of the story occur, with varying circumstances of detail, but the main situations identical. Bluebeard is usually a monster or ogre, and lives fittingly in the gloom of forest or cavern—the only really essential detail that has dropped out of the typical story. In one group the monster is the devil, and the forbidden door closes the entrance to hell. In many stories the heroine is the youngest of three or more sisters who have been less lucky, and sometimes, as in one of Camp-

bell's Gaelic variants, she is able to restore them to life. In Campbell's other version, as in the Basque story, it is the heroine herself who cuts off the monster's head.

In the face of such a wide geographical range and self-evident antiquity it is as idle to look for an historical 'Bluebeard' in Gilles de Laval, sire de Rais, who was executed in 1440 for his atrocious cruelties, as it would be to find him in our own Henry VIII., who was so unfortunate with his wives. Literary use has been made of the story by Tieck in his *Phantasus*, and by Grétry in his opera of *Raoul*. See an excellent study on 'The Forbidden Chamber,' by E. Sidney Hartland, in vol. iii. of *The Folklore Journal* (1885); and Andrew Lang's edition of Perrault's *Contes* (1887).

Blue-bell is the English popular name of the common wild hyacinth (*Scilla nutans*; see SCILLA, HYACINTH). The 'blue-bells' so familiar alike in the everyday rural associations and in the poetic literature of Scotland are the flowers of *Campanula rotundifolia*, commonly called Harebell in England (see CAMPANULA, HAREBELL).

Bluebird, BLUE WARBLER, BLUE RED-BREAST, or BLUE ROBIN (*Sylvia* or *Sialia sialis*), an American bird, which, from the confidence and familiarity it displays in approaching the habitations of men, and from its general manners, is much the same sort of favourite with all classes of people in the United States as the redbreast is in Britain. Except in the southern states, it is chiefly known as a summer bird of passage, appearing early, however, as a harbinger of spring, and visiting again 'the box in the garden, or the hole in the old apple-tree, the cradle of some generations of ancestors.'



Bluebird (*Sylvia sialis*).

Their soft agreeable note strikes one of the hours on the living timepiece of the seasons, and has been beautifully called by Burroughs the 'violet of sound.' They are celebrated in American poetry; thus Lowell speaks of

The bluebird, shifting his light load of song
From post to post along the cheerless fence.

Few American farmers fail to provide a box for their nest. In size the bluebird rather exceeds the redbreast, which, however, it much resembles in general appearance. Its food is also similar. The upper parts of the bird are of a rich sky-blue colour, the throat and breast are reddish chestnut, and the belly white. The female is duller in colours than the male. It lays five or six pale-blue eggs, and has two or three broods in the season. The male is remarkably attentive to his mate, and both exhibit extraordinary courage in driving away intruders from the vicinity of their nest. A hen, with her brood, has been seen to flee from the attacks of an

enraged and pugnacious bluebird. The bluebird is known as an inhabitant of the Bermudas, Mexico, the West Indies, Guiana, and Brazil.—In the western and in the more northern parts of North America its place is taken by nearly allied and very similar species.

Blue-books, the name popularly applied to the reports and other papers printed by parliament, because they are usually stitched up in blue paper wrappers. Some departments, however, issue their proceedings in drab, and some in white covers. The practice of printing, and to some extent publishing, the proceedings of the House of Commons, began in the year 1681, when disputes ran high on the question of excluding the Duke of York from the succession to the throne. It was stated that false accounts of the transactions were circulated, and, as a remedy, Sir John Hotham moved that the votes and proceedings of the House be printed. The motion after considerable discussion was carried. The documents printed by the House of Commons accumulated gradually in bulk and variety, until they reached their present extent. In 1836 the House adopted the practice of selling their papers at a cheap rate, and has since that date gradually increased the facilities offered to the public for acquiring parliamentary papers. These are now issued at the following rates: Single paper blue-books, &c., one halfpenny per sheet of four pages, except in particular cases where special prices are charged. For the sum of £20 annually a subscriber may obtain all parliamentary papers published during the year. If the papers relating to the daily votes and proceedings of the two Houses be excepted, a reduction of £3 is made in the cost. The papers of the House of Lords and the House of Commons may be obtained by annual subscription for £10 and £15 respectively. Since August 1886, under the authority of the President of the Board of Trade, a most useful journal has been issued each month (6d.) by that department. It contains in addition to its official notices much valuable information from British, colonial, and foreign sources relating to the trade of the world. In 1887 there were issued: Bills of the House of Commons, 341; bills and papers of the House of Lords, 276; papers of the House of Commons, 308; command papers, 309; total, 1234. Deducting the bills, a total of 680 blue-books is left. The chief contents of these papers at present are the votes and proceedings of the House; the bills read in their several stages; the estimates for the public services of each year; the accounts of the expenditure of the moneys voted in the previous year; any correspondence or other documents which the ministry may voluntarily, or at the demand of the House produce, as connected with a question under discussion; reports of committees of inquiry appointed by the House; reports of commissions of inquiry appointed by the crown; and annual reports by the permanent commissions and other departments of the government, stating their proceedings during the year. The blue-books of a session, when collected and bound up, now fill many thick folio volumes. Nothing can seem more hopelessly chaotic than those of a few sessions huddled together unarranged. It deserves to be known, however, that they are all printed according to a peculiar sequence, which enables the whole papers of a session to be bound up in such an order that any paper can be found by consulting an ample index in the last volume. A *précis* of the contents also is now usually given at the beginning of each blue-book. In any library where the blue-books are preserved and properly bound up, the most trifling paper of any session may thus be found with ease; and it need hardly be said that with

much that is useless or unimportant, there is an enormous mass of valuable matter hidden in the blue-books.

An important treasury minute having reference to copyright in government publications was issued August 31, 1887. It stated that while the larger proportion of official publications 'should not, with certain exceptions, be restricted in any form whatever' in their reproduction, a stringent veto would be placed upon the unauthorised publication of charts and ordnance maps, and literary or quasi-literary works e.g. the Reports of the *Challenger*, the forthcoming state trials, the *Board of Trade Journal*, &c.—The official books of foreign governments corresponding to our blue-books are designated by the colour of their covers. The principal are: France, yellow; Germany and Portugal, white; Italy, green; and Spain, red.

Blue-bottle. See CORN-FLOWER.

Blue-bottle Fly (*Musca vomitoria*), an insect of the same genus with the common House-fly (q.v.). It much exceeds the latter in size, but is smaller than the Blow-fly (q.v.). The head is black, with rust-coloured cheeks, the thorax grayish, the abdomen blue, with a whitish shimmer, and with three black bands. It flies with a loud buzz. The expanse of wings is nearly one inch. It is abundant throughout Britain and Europe generally from spring to autumn, and deposits its eggs on flesh, for which purpose it often enters houses, having a remarkably delicate sense of smelling. The maggots are of very frequent occurrence on meat in summer, notwithstanding all care that can be taken.—*M. erythrocephala* is also called Blue-bottle.—A nearly allied species (*M. caesar*), the Green-bottle fly, is distinguished by its golden-green colour, and is also common in Britain, especially on excrement. The maggots develop from the egg in about twenty-four hours; the whole metamorphosis occupies about a month. *M. cornicina* is another common green-bottle. There are many other species. See FLY.

Blue Cardinal. See LOBELIA.

Blue-coat School, a name commonly given to Christ's Hospital in London, and to similar schools in Bristol and elsewhere, the dress of whose scholars is a long dark-blue gown with a belt round the waist, and yellow stockings. Such dress is just that of boys in the first half of the 16th century. See CHRIST'S HOSPITAL.

Blue-eye (*Entomoga cyanotis*), a beautiful little bird, abundant and very generally dispersed in New South Wales, although not found in Victoria. It is one of the Honey-eaters (q.v.) or Honey-suckers, and is sometimes called the Blue-checked Honey-eater. It seeks its food almost exclusively among the blossoms and small leafy branches of gum-trees (Eucalypti), and finds it partly in insects and partly in nectar, though perhaps also in berries. It is a bold and spirited bird, of most elegant and graceful movements. Numbers are often seen together clinging and hanging in every variety of position, frequently at the extreme ends of the small thickly-flowered branches, bending them down with their weight.

Bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix* or *Tenmodon saltator*), a fish of the family Scomberide, of a genus having no detached finlets, no isolated dorsal spines, and no lateral armature of the tail, two dorsal fins, the first of which is small, and two deeply-hidden spines in front of the anal fin. The only known species is abundant on the east coast of North America. It goes southwards in winter, migrates northwards in spring, and is widely spread in tropical and subtropical seas. The upper parts are of a bluish colour, the lower parts whitish, a

large black spot at the base of the pectoral fins. The mouth is crowded with teeth, the jaws are furnished with large ones. The bluefish preys on other fishes, such as the menhaden, and mackerel, the shoals of which it pursues. It is very swift, strong, and voracious. It sometimes attains a length of 3, or even 5 feet, and a weight of 14 lb. It is much esteemed for the table. It is often caught by trolling, as it bites readily at an object drawn swiftly through the water. It frequently ascends rivers even to fresh water.

Blue-gowns, the name commonly given to a class of privileged mendicants in Scotland. The proper designation of these paupers was the King's Bedesmen, or Beadsimen. In ancient times, a beadsman was a person employed to pray for another (see BEAD). From practices of this kind, there sprang up a custom in Scotland of appointing beadsmen with a small royal bounty, who ultimately degenerated into a class of authorised mendicants. Each of the beadsmen on his majesty's birthday received a gown or cloak of blue cloth, with a loaf of bread, a bottle of ale, and a leathern purse containing a penny for every year of the king's life. Every birthday, another beadsman was added to the number, as a penny was added to each man's purse. The most important part of the privilege was a large pewter badge, attached to the breast of the gown, which, besides the name of the bearer, had the inscription, 'Pass and Repass.' This inferred the privilege of begging, and bespoke the kindly consideration of all to whom the beadsman appealed for an alms or a night's lodging. The fictitious character of Edie Ochiltree, in Sir Walter Scott's tale of the *Antiquary*, is a fair sample of this ancient and picturesque fraternity. The practice of appointing beadsmen was discontinued in 1833, at which time there were sixty on the roll. The whole have since died out. The last beadsman drew from the Exchequer in Edinburgh his last allowance in May 1863.

Blue Grass (*Poa pratensis*) is a permanent grass found in Europe and North America. By reason of its creeping root-stocks it forms a dense turf, but is more valued for pasture than for cropping. The blue grass pastures of Kentucky, where it grows spontaneously, have long been celebrated. It is also called June grass. See GRASS, PASTURE.

Blue-jay (*Cyanocitta cristata*), a common North American bird of the Crow family, and occupying in the New World the place held by the jays (*Garrulus*) of the Old. In the United States the blue-jay is sometimes persecuted, sometimes protected, becoming as shy and cunning in the one case, as he is familiar and impudent in the other. They are mischievous birds, but devour large numbers of injurious caterpillars. The length of the bird is almost a foot; the colour is 'grayish purple above, black on the neck, lilac-brown to white below.' The common blue-jay has a wide distribution, and there are several other North American species. The long-tailed blue-jays belong to a rarer genus (*Xanthura*) found in Central and in South America. See JAY.

Blue Light. See BENGAL LIGHT.

Blue Mountains, (1) the name of a branch of the Dividing Range, New South Wales, which run very nearly parallel with the coast, about 80 miles inland. It was not till 1813 that a practicable passage was found over them into the Bathurst Plains. The highest point of the Blue Mountains, Mount Beemarang, is 4100 feet high, and some parts of the road which crosses them are 3400 feet above the sea. A line of railway crosses the Blue Mountains, in the construction of which great engineering difficulties have been overcome. The

Fish River caves, in the limestone of the Blue Mountains, are remarkable for their great size.—(2) The Blue Mountains, in the centre of Jamaica, attain in the West Peak 7105 feet.

Blue Pill (*Pilula hydrargyri*) is the most simple form in which mercury can be administered internally. It consists merely of *two* parts of mercury rubbed up with three parts of conserve of roses, till globules of mercury can no longer be detected; to this is added one part of powdered liquorice-root, so that a pill of three grains contains one grain of mercury. In cases of torpid condition of the liver or inflammation of that organ, blue pill is much used as a purgative, either alone or combined with some other drug, such as rhubarb. When it is given with the view of bringing the system under the influence of mercury (Salivation, q.v.), small doses of opium should be added to counteract its purgative tendency, and the state of the gums watched carefully from day to day, so that the first symptoms of salivation may be noticed, and the medicine omitted. As a purgative, the common dose of blue pill is one or two pills of five grains each, followed by a purgative draught. When the system is to be saturated with it, or salivated, one pill may be given morning and evening, or one every night combined with $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain of opium, repeated till the gums become sore. But the sensibility to the action of mercury varies with the individual; some may take large quantities before it exhibits its physiological effects, and, on the other hand, three blue pills, one taken on each of three successive nights, have brought on a fatal salivation. When taking blue pills, all sudden changes of temperature should be avoided; and, indeed, though they are found in every domestic medicine-chest, neither they nor any other form of mercury should be given without good cause and without the greatest caution.

Blue Ribbon, a term applied to any great prize—as the 'Derby' stakes—from the blue ribbon worn by knights of the Garter.—*Blue Ribbon Army* was the name adopted, from the badge, by the association of total abstinents since 1883 calling themselves simply the Gospel Temperance Union. The organisation was introduced in 1878 from America, where it was known as the 'Murphy Movement' (from its founder), and in three years enrolled in its ranks 3,000,000 of members. It extends over the United Kingdom and the colonies.

Blue Ridge, the most easterly range of the Alleghanies, U.S. It forms the continuation of the chain called South Mountain in Pennsylvania and Maryland. It is known as the Blue Ridge till it crosses the James River; thence till North Carolina as Alleghany Mountain; and in North Carolina and Tennessee again as Blue Ridge.

Blue-stocking, a name given to learned and literary ladies, who display their acquirements in a vain and pedantic manner, to the neglect of womanly duties and graces. The name is derived from a literary coterie formed in London about the year 1750, which included both men and women. A Mr Benjamin Stillingfleet, who was in the habit of wearing blue stockings, was a distinguished member of this society; hence the name, which has been adopted both in Germany and France—*Bas Bleu* being a French translation. See Dr Doran's *A Lady of Last Century* (Mrs Montague), 1872, which contains a chapter on blue-stockings.

Bluetthroat, or BLUEBREAST (*Cyanecula svecica*), a beautiful and melodious bird, nearly allied to the nightingale. From its power of imitating the notes of other birds the Laplanders give it a name which signifies the bird of a hundred tongues. Another of its many names is *Luscinia svecica*, or Swedish Nightingale. It is

very little larger than a redbreast, and much resembles it, but has the throat and upper part of the neck of a brilliant light-blue, with a spot in the centre, which in some specimens is pure white, and in very old males is red. The females have less blue. Below the blue colour is a black bar, then a line of white, and again a broad band of bright chestnut. The bluetthroat is well known as a summer bird of passage in many parts of Europe, from the Mediterranean Sea to the Arctic Ocean, but is very rare in Britain, only a few instances of its occurrence having been recorded. It is supposed to spend the winter in Africa. The bird is one of those known by the names of Beclin and Beccalico (q.v.), and unfortunately falls victim to epicure tastes.

Blue-wing, a kind of duck, either a sub-genus of *Anas*, or a special genus *Cyanopterus*. The latter title and the popular name refer to the conspicuous colour. The best-known species, the Common or Lunate Blue-wing (*Anas* or *Cyanopterus discors*), is generally called the Blue-winged Teal in the United States of America, where it is very abundant. Vast numbers spend the winter in the extensive marshes near the mouths of the Mississippi, to which they congregate both from the north and from the coast regions of the east; but the summer migrations of the species extend as far north as the 57th parallel, and it is plentiful on the Saskatchewan in the breeding-season. It breeds, however, also in the marshes of the south, even in Texas; and is common in Jamaica, where it is supposed to be not a mere bird of passage, but a permanent resident. In size it is rather larger than the common teal; in the summer plumage of the male, the upper part of the head is black, the other parts of the head are of a deep purplish blue, except a half-moon shaped patch of pure white before each eye; the prevalent colour of the rest of the plumage on the upper parts is brown mixed and glossed with green, except that the wings exhibit various shades of blue, the lesser wing-coverts being of a rich ultramarine blue, with an almost metallic lustre; the lower parts are reddish orange spotted with black; the tail is brown, its feathers short and pointed. The flight is extremely rapid and well sustained. The flocks are sometimes so numerous and so closely crowded together on the muddy marshes near New Orleans, that Audubon mentions having seen 84 killed by the simultaneous discharge of the two barrels of a double-barrelled gun. There are other species of blue-wing, also American; but this alone seems to visit the more northern regions. No member of the duck tribe is in higher esteem for the table, and it has therefore been suggested that the blue-wing is particularly worthy of domestication, of which it seems to be very easily susceptible.

Blum, ROBERT, born in very humble circumstances at Cologne in 1807, was secretary and treasurer of a theatre at Cologne, and subsequently at Leipzig, until 1847, when he established himself as bookseller and publisher. His leisure was devoted to literature and politics, and in 1840 he founded at Leipzig the Schiller Society, which celebrated the poet's anniversary, as a festival in honour of political liberty. When the revolutionary movement broke out in 1848, Blum was one of its most energetic leaders. He was elected one of the vice-presidents of the provisional parliament at Frankfurt, and as such ruled that turbulent assembly by presence of mind and a stentorian voice. In the National Assembly he became leader of the Left, and was one of the bearers of a congratulatory address from the Left to the people of Vienna, when they rose in October. At Vienna he joined the insurgents, was arrested, and was shot

on the 9th November. Blum was a man of strong character, great natural intelligence, and stirring eloquence. The news of his execution excited great indignation among the democrats in Germany, who, besides instituting commemorations for the dead, made an ample subscription for his widow and children. See the Life by his son (Leip. 1878).

Blumenbach, JOHANN FRIEDRICH, a very eminent naturalist, whose influence extended to almost all branches of natural science, was born at Gotha, 11th May 1752. He studied at Jena and Göttingen, and at Göttingen he became extraordinary professor in 1776, and ordinary professor in 1778. Here he lectured for nearly 60 years on natural history, comparative anatomy, physiology, and the history of medicine. In 1785, consequently before Cuvier, he made natural history dependent on comparative anatomy, and zoology in his hands first attained full scientific rank, the real relations of animals being definitely ascertained. His doctor's disputation, *De Generis Humani Varietate Nativa* (1775), raised the great question as to the unity of the human race; his *Institutiones Physiologicae* (1787), and other treatises, gave a decided impulse to scientific research. His *Manual of Natural History* (1780) went through 12 editions in 50 years. His *Manual of Comparative Anatomy and Physiology* (1804) was translated into almost all the principal languages of Europe. The natural history of man was always a favourite study; and his *Collectio Craniorum Diversarum Gentium*, commenced in 1790, and completed in 1828, gave to the learned world the result of his observations on the skulls of different races, of which he had an extensive collection (see SKULL, ETHNOLOGY). He published other valuable works on natural history, and many essays and papers. Both as a writer and a lecturer he was eminently successful. In 1788 and 1792 he visited England, where he met with a distinguished reception from the most famous naturalists. On the 19th September 1825, his friends and pupils in all countries celebrated the jubilee of his doctorate. In 1835 the increasing infirmities of age compelled him to resign his academical functions. He died on the 22d January 1840. See Marx's Memoir (1840), and the work *Göttinger Professoren* (1872).

Blumenthal, JACOB, pianist, born in Germany in 1829, studied under Herz, and in 1849 came to London. There he received the appointment of pianist to the Queen, taught music, and composed many brilliant, pretty pieces, with songs, of which *My Queen* is the most popular.

Blunderbuss (Dutch *donderbus*, 'thunder-gun'), a kind of short musket with wide bore, capable of firing many balls at once. It is no longer in use, as it had a very limited range, though destructive enough at close quarters.

Blunt, JOHN HENRY, D.D., theologian, born at Chelsea in 1823, was for some years engaged as a manufacturing chemist, but in 1850 entered the university at Durham. He took orders two years later, and held several minor preferments, till in 1873 he received the crown living of Beverstone, Gloucestershire. He died in London, 11th April 1884. Among his numerous works are *The Atonement* (1855), *Household Theology* (1865), *Annotated Book of Common Prayer* (1867), *History of the English Reformation* (1868), *Book of Church Law* (1872), *Dictionary of Doctrinal and Historical Theology* (1870), *Dictionary of Serms* (1874), and *Annotated Bible* (3 vols. 1878-79).

Blunt, JOHN JAMES, divine, born in 1794, at Newcastle-under-Lyme, in Staffordshire, in 1812 entered St John's College, Cambridge, graduated fifteenth wrangler, and obtained a fellowship. Till 1834 a curate in Shropshire, then rector of

Great Oakley, in Essex, in 1839 he became Lady Margaret professor of Divinity at Cambridge, where he died 18th June 1855, having the year before declined the bishopric of Salisbury. The best known of his works is *Undesigned Coincidences* (1833). See Professor Selwyn's memoir of him prefixed to his *Two Introductory Lectures* (1856).

Blunt, WILFRID SCAWEN, traveller and poet, was born near Crawley in 1840. His mother being a Catholic convert, he was educated at Stoneyhurst and St Mary's, Oscott. He served for some years as attaché to various British embassies in Europe; married in 1869 Anne, daughter of the Earl of Lovelace, and granddaughter of Lord Byron; and thereafter travelled through Spain, Algeria, Egypt, and the Syrian desert, as recorded in Lady Anne Blunt's *Bedouins of the Euphrates*. In 1882 he championed the cause of Arabi Pasha in Egypt. The same sympathy with national aspirations afterwards plunged him into the Nationalist cause in Ireland, and led to his being imprisoned for two months in 1887-88 for taking part in a prohibited meeting at Woodford, in County Galway. During his imprisonment he unsuccessfully contested Deptford. Blunt is the author of two volumes of verse, *Sonnets and Songs*, and the *Love Sonnets of Proteus*, the last containing poetry of really striking merit.

Bluntschli, JOHANN KASPAR, jurist, was born 7th March 1808, at Zurich, where in 1833 he became professor in the newly-founded university. He took an active part in the political struggles that divided his country, and at first inclined to the party of reform, until the events of 1839 induced him to join the Conservatives, of whom he was for a time a leader. He was a councillor of state, and became a member of the government and of the federal directory, and afterwards worked for the formation of a moderate Liberal-Conservative party in Switzerland. In 1848 he went to Munich as professor of Civil and International Law. There he published his *Allgemeines Staatsrecht* (5th ed. 1876), on which his reputation as a jurisconsult chiefly rests; *Deutsches Privatrecht* (3d ed. 1864); and, in conjunction with Arnolds and Pözl, *Kritische Ueberschau der Deutschen Gesetzgebung und Rechtswissenschaft* (6 vols. 1853-58). In 1861 he removed to Heidelberg University, and became a privy-councillor of Baden, actively forwarding all liberal measures in the state. Liberty in ecclesiastical matters he had equally at heart; he acted several times as president of the *Protestantenverein*, and it was after delivering a closing speech at the general synod of Baden that he died suddenly at Karlsruhe, 21st October 1881. He is the author of valuable histories of Zurich and of the Swiss Confederation, and of a number of works on law, being especially an authority in international law. In 1884 his autobiography appeared in three volumes.

Blushing is a sudden reddening of the skin, induced by various mental states, particularly those involving shame or humiliation, shyness or modesty. It usually affects only the face and neck; rarely among civilised peoples the breast and other parts of the body. But 'the men of certain races, who habitually go nearly naked, often blush over their arms and chests, and even down to their waists' (Darwin). It is often accompanied by expressive movements; the face is turned aside, the eyes cast down or restlessly moved. It causes increased heat of the parts affected, with a sensation of heat and tingling, and often a general feeling of discomfort. It does not occur in young children.

Blushing is an excellent illustration of the control exercised over the circulation of the blood by the nervous system. Under ordinary circumstances, the muscular coat of the small arteries throughout

the body is constantly maintained in a state of partial contraction by means of the nerves distributed to it (*easomotor* nerves; see NERVOUS SYSTEM). The blood propelled into them by the heart is thus prevented from distending them to their full extent, and its passage to the capillaries in connection with them is controlled. When, however, from any cause the action of these nerves is suspended, the arteries under their influence at once dilate, the corresponding capillaries become fuller, and the tissues containing them appear much redder than in their ordinary condition.

Under the influence of shyness, shame, &c. an alteration takes place in the nervous influence proceeding from the brain, which, for the time, lessens or stops the action of the nerves controlling the arteries of the skin of the face and neck, and blushing is the consequence. Why it should result from these and not from other mental states, and why the effect should be confined in general to the face and neck, are much more intricate questions, which cannot be discussed here. For one answer to them, with many interesting facts on the subject, see Darwin, *Expression of the Emotions*, chap. xiii.

Boa, a term popularly applied to the large snakes of the Python and Boa Constrictor families. The former are Old-World, the latter New-World giants, and closely resemble one another both in structure and habit. Both are very large, not poisonous, with great powers of crushing, with an expansible gape, with prehensile tails, with rudimentary traces of the hind-legs beside the anus, and so on. Apart from general difference of habitat, the two families may be distinguished by the facts that in the pythons the premaxillæ (most anterior upper jaw-bones) bear teeth, but not in the boas; that the inferior shields of the tail are in two rows in the former, in one in the latter. Leaving the python family meanwhile, we may resume the characters of Boidæ in the strict sense.



Head of Boa.

The body of these large non-venomous crushing snakes is slightly compressed sideways, and is covered with smooth or keeled scales. The gape, tail, and hind-legs are referred to above. The genus *Boa* itself has smooth scales, a scaly head, lateral nostrils, and characteristic arrangement of shields. The common species (*Boa constrictor*), found in the north and east of South America, is usually about 12, but, according to report, may be over 20 feet in length. The colour of the back is reddish gray, with zigzag, broad, dark longitudinal stripes, including oval grayish-yellow spots; the head exhibits three dark stripes. It frequents dry bushy regions, is shy of man, and

little feared. To a large extent arboreal in its habits, it is aided in climbing by the rudimentary claw-like hind-limbs. From its concealment the boa swoops down on even comparatively large mammals, crushes them in its coils, and swallows them slowly. The bones are broken by the external crushing, a copious flow of saliva within the mouth makes the laborious swallowing of the large mass somewhat easier, but it is at the best a tedious and exhausting process. After a meal comes a period of digestion and quiescence, and in this state of torpid lethargy they may be readily killed. On waking up they are very hungry, and the demands of appetite at this time prompted a boa in the Zoo to swallow its rug, which, after a week or two of unsuccessful digestion, it put up again. The boa bears its young alive. The skin of the *Boa constrictor* is used for making boots, saddle covers, &c. The great water-snake *Anaconda* (*Eunectes murinus*), the Xiphosoma of the Amazon district, which occasionally visits houses; the *Enygnus* of Java, Amboyna, and New Guinea, with keeled scales, are closely allied genera of Boidæ. See ANACONDA, PYTHON, SNAKES.

Boabdil (properly Abu-Abdallah, and nicknamed Ez-Zogibly, 'the unlucky'), the last Moorish king of Granada, dethroned his father, Abu-l-Hasan, in 1481, and two years later was defeated and taken prisoner by the Castilians near Lucena. He was set free on condition of paying tribute, and returned to Granada to struggle with his father and with his heroic uncle, Ez-Zaghal, for the throne. Thus the Moors wasted the strength they sorely needed for the final struggle with the Christians. The fall of Malaga and Baza was but the prelude to the siege of the capital itself, which was finally starved out towards the close of 1491, spite of the reckless courage of the Moors and of Boabdil, whose weak and vacillating nature fell from him in the hour of battle. The unhappy king gave up to Ferdinand the keys of the city, then turned his back on Granada, and rode on towards the mountains. At Padul, on a spur of the Alpujarras, he turned to take a last look at the towers of the fair palace and city he had lost. 'Allahu Akbar' ('God is great'), he exclaimed, as he burst into tears. His mother stood beside him. 'You may well weep like a woman,' she said, 'for what you could not defend like a man.' The spot from which Boabdil looked his last on Granada still bears the name of *el ultimo suspiro del Moro*, 'the last sigh of the Moor.' He soon crossed to Africa and flung away his life in battle.

Boadicea, 'the British warrior-queen,' wife of Prasutagus, king of the Iceni, a tribe in the time of the Romans inhabiting the part of Britain now occupied by the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk. On the death of her husband about the year 60 A.D., the Romans seized her territory, and treated the inhabitants with the most brutal cruelty. The queen herself was scourged, her daughters were outraged, and the noblest among the Iceni were treated as slaves. Boadicea, roused to fury by her wrongs, gathered round her a large army, destroyed the Roman colony of Camulodunum (Colchester), took Londinium and Verulamium (London and St Albans), and put to death, according to Tacitus, as many as 70,000 Romans. Suetonius Paulinus, the Roman governor of Britain, who had been absent in Mona (Anglesey), now advanced against the queen, and with not more than 10,000 men inflicted an overwhelming defeat on an enemy twenty times as numerous. The British loss is said to have been 80,000, the Roman only 400. Boadicea, overwhelmed with despair, killed herself by poison. Her story is best remembered by the noble poems of Cowper and Tennyson.

Boar, WILD (*Sus scrofa*), a non-ruminant, even-toed hoofed mammal, with conical teeth (Ungulata, Artiodactyla, Bunodontia). The family (Suina) to which the boar belongs, and which also includes the river-hog, the babiroussa, the wart-hog, the peccari, &c., is characterised by the pointed head with familiar pig-snout, large ears and small eyes; by the thin legs, often curled tail, bristly hide; by the four toes on fore and hind feet, of which only the two inner reach the ground; by the prominent canines, especially in the males. They are also notorious for their voracious omnivorous diet, love for damp places, and rapid multiplication.

The wild boar is a large powerful beast, measuring 4 feet or more in length, with very strong and formidable canine teeth in the male. The head is more elongated than that of the domesticated form. The strong bristles are blackish-brown, mingled with yellow, and these, along with the brownish-gray under-hair, give the animal a dark grayish-brown colour, often approaching black.



Wild Boar.

The young ones are yellowish for six months, and have white and brown stripes or spots. The adult males usually live alone, but the female is accompanied by her family, and sometimes by other sows and families. Four to six young are born in a litter. The boars come from their places of concealment at night; they devour all sorts of things, but especially vegetable produce. The sense of smell is acute, and they do not miss much of what they root up. By their voracity and ruthless grubbing they do great damage to crops and to young trees. On account of this, as well as for the sake of their flesh and bristles (q.v.), they are much hunted in the regions where they occur, and the fury of the enraged male, and the zeal of the sow in protecting its young, add a spice of danger to the chase. In some parts of India 'pig-sticking' is the chief sport. Many species of *Sus* have been distinguished, but four or five alone are certain: *S. vittatus*, 'from Sardinia to New Guinea, from Japan to Damaraland (South-west Africa); *S. verrucosus*, from Java and Celebes; *S. barbatus*, from Borneo; and *S. scrofa*, formerly common throughout temperate Europe and Asia. At Chartley, in Staffordshire, the wild boar was not extinct so late as 1683; and at Sydnope, in Derbyshire, Alpine boars and sows, introduced from the Continent, bred between 1823 and 1837, when the last was shot (Harting's *Extinct British Animals*, 1880). The wild boar is still common in woody damp regions in some parts of the Continent.—Fossil species occur in the Miocene and Pliocene strata. Hyotherium is abundant in the upper Eocene and Miocene ages. The oldest representatives are Eohys and Achenodon (Parahysus?) from the lower and middle Eocene, the former 'with at

least four functional toes, and with certain peculiar carnivore modifications of the skull.' Heilprin calls attention in this connection to the remarkable *Pachysimia*, found in the phosphorite deposits of Quercy, France, which are held by Filhol 'to possess striking structural features allying them with the Primates.' It would be indeed curious if the monkeys should find their ancestors among such beasts (see PIG, UNGULATE, and for a boar's tooth, the cut at BABIROUSSA).

The BOAR'S HEAD, served up as the most important dish on the baronial table, was the subject of many a carol and poetical allusion connected with Christmas festivities in England. The ceremony is still kept up at Queen's College, Oxford (see CHRISTMAS).

The boar's head 'erased,' according to heraldic phraseology, is a well-known cognisance of a number of old families, as the Gordons; it also formed the sign of a tavern at Eastcheap, London, immortalised by Shakespeare, on whose site now stands the statue of William IV.

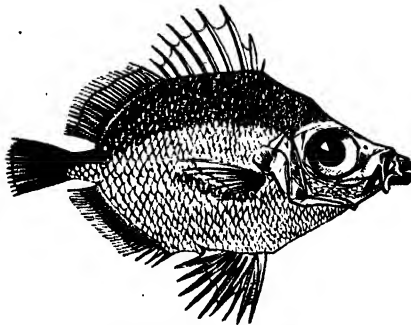
Board, the general name for a body of persons officially constituted for the management of some public office or department, bank, railway, charity, or other business. Thus, the Commissioners of Customs, when met for the transaction of business, are called the 'Board of Customs;' the Lords of the Treasury, the 'Board of Treasury;' Commissioners of Excise, 'Board of Excise;' directors of railways, 'Board of Directors;' poor-law guardians, 'Board of Guardians,' &c. 'School Board,' 'Parochial Board,' 'Sanitary Board,' 'Local Government Board,' 'Board of Trade' (see TRADE), 'Board of Works' (see WORKS), are other well-known combinations of the name.

Boarding is the name for an attack by one vessel on another, a company of armed men from the one forcing their way on board the other. In the days of ironclads, boarding of war vessels is less frequent than of old. See TACTICS (NAVAL). A *boarding-net* is a framework of stout rope-netting placed so as to obstruct boarders.

Boarding-out System. See POOR.

Boardman, GEORGE DANA, Burmese missionary, was born in the State of Maine in 1801, and educated at Andover. Ordained in the Baptist Church in 1825, he sailed the same year to the East Indies, and after mastering Burmese, began his labours at Maulmain in May 1827. He had great success, especially in his preaching tours; but the severe strain soon broke down his health, and brought on his death early in 1831. His widow married the more famous Burmese missionary, Judson.

Boar-fish (*Capros*), a genus of fishes in the

Boar-fish (*Capros aper*).

Carangida or Horse-mackerel family of Acanthopterygii or bony fishes with spinous rays. The

protrusible mouth presents a resemblance to a hog's snout as the name suggests. The body has an oval compressed form like that of the related John Dory, from which it differs conspicuously in the absence of spines at the base of dorsal and anal fins, and of long filaments on the dorsal spines. The common Boar-fish (*C. aper*) is a well-known inhabitant of the Mediterranean, rarely caught on the coasts of England. The eyes are very large, and placed far forward; the body is of a carmine colour, lighter below, and with seven transverse orange bands on the back. The flesh is little esteemed.

Boat is the general name for a small open vessel. Boats differ, however, greatly from one another. They may be slight or strong, sharp or flat bottomed, swift for despatch or roomy for cargo, ornamental for pleasure or plain for hard service, deep or light of draught for deep or shallow water. The royal navy formerly set the pattern for the large merchant-ships; but the introduction of steam-launches of all sizes has practically brought about the extinction of the largest kind of boats propelled by oars for the use of ships of war. The length of the steam-launches is usually 38 to 42 feet, and they weigh (without boiler) from 90 to 113 cwt. A steam-pinnace, 30 to 37 feet, weighs (without boiler) 52 to 83 cwt.; and a steam-cutter, 21 to 28 feet, weighs (also without boiler) from 13 to 33 cwt. A steam-launch will carry 70 men; a pinnace, 50; a cutter, 20. The boats kept for rowing are: *Barge*, a long, narrow, light boat, employed in carrying the principal officers to and from the ship. An 'admiral's barge' is 34 feet long, and weighs 23 cwt. (For other kinds of boats or vessels under this name, see *BARGE*.) A *Pinnace*, a boat for the accommodation of the inferior officers, ranging from 25 feet to 35 feet in length, has usually eight oars, whereas the barge has ten or more; a *Cutter*, broader and deeper than the barge or pinnace, ranging from 20 feet to 32 feet, and weighing from 10 to 20 cwt., is rowed with six oars, sometimes hoists a sail, and is chiefly employed in carrying light stores, provisions, and crew; a *Jolly-boat* is a smaller cutter, rowed with four oars instead of six; whilst a *Yawl* is small in size, and used for nearly the same purposes as cutters and jolly-boats. A *Gig* is a narrow boat, ranging from 22 to 32 feet, and weighing from 6 to 9 cwt.; it is rowed with six or eight oars, and employed by the chief officer on expeditions requiring speed. Some of the above-named boats are diagonal-built for strength; the others are clencher-built, to be as light as possible. Besides the foregoing, *life-boats*, ranging in length from 23 to 28 feet, and in weight from 8 to 11 cwt., are carried; also a *dinghy* of 12 or 14 feet, and weighing about 3 cwt. The latter are capable of being rowed by one or two men. A merchantman ordinarily carries a pinnace of from 25 to 30 feet; a life-boat, 20 to 30 feet; and a jolly-boat, 14 to 24 feet. Passenger-ships are, however, required by law to carry a sufficient number of boats to hold the whole number on board; but often this is not done.

In reference to the legal regulation of boats in the merchant-service, the following are the chief provisions: When a boat belongs to any ship or other vessel, the name of the vessel and of the place to which she belongs must be painted on the outside of the stern of the boat, and the master's name within-side the transom—the letters to be white or yellow on a black ground. Boats not belonging to ships or other vessels must be inscribed with the name of the owners and the port to which they belong. All boats having double sides or bottoms, or any secret places adapted for the concealment of goods, are liable to forfeiture.

The boats intended for the rescue of shipwrecked persons, or crews and passengers exposed to that danger, are described under *LIFEBOAT*.

Yachts' boats vary in size according to the dimensions of the yacht. A cutter for an 80-ton yacht would be about 17 feet long, and be rowed by four oars; whilst a yacht of 300 tons would have one 34 feet long, and capable of being propelled by six or eight oars. A yacht's cutter is of good depth and breadth, and employed by the crew in watering or other services, or by the owner in rough weather; the length is generally four times the breadth, and the depth one-tenth the length. A yacht's gig varies in length from 18 to 32 feet, and is rowed by four, six, or eight oars. The length is about 4·8 times the breadth, and the depth one-twelfth the length. A yacht's dinghy ranges from 8 feet to 14 feet in length, the breadth being one-third the length, and the depth one-seventh.

Boats differ very considerably at various parts of the coast, and are generally adapted to the nature of the beach and general condition of water they are employed in. Thus on the Thames, the waterman's skiff or wherry (fig. 1) is usually of



Fig. 1.—Thames Wherry.

very light build, whilst on the coast they are comparatively heavy, to bear the straining they are subject to in rough water and constantly beaching. On the south coast the square-sterned skiff is mostly in use, and is generally about 14 feet long, with three thwarts (or transverse seats), and the seat in the stern, with two side-seats. These boats are met with about the watering-places from the Thames to Weymouth, and are usually in charge of one man. At Portsmouth the waterman's boat is sharp-sterned like a whale-boat, and is usually termed a wherry. They are generally fitted with a sprit mainsail, a mizzen, and a foresail. These boats vary in length from 16 feet to 25 feet, and are admirably adapted for going through the broken water between the harbour and Spithead, the sea being very short and steep with an east wind on an ebb. Indeed, these boats often keep up communication with the fleet at Spithead when the ships' boats are not allowed to leave. On the north-east coast a peculiar flat-floored boat is in use, and termed a coble (fig. 2). They are of shallow draught, and when being sailed, the peculiarly deep rudder helps to check their tendency to make leeway when close-hauled.

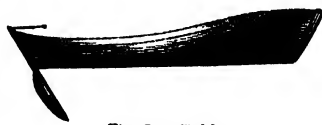


Fig. 2.—Coble.

On the Irish coast, the boats generally are of a very primitive form and construction. The Wexford cot is quite flat-bottomed, with two outside keels (see sketch); whilst on the west coast the boats are 'round' everywhere—round in the bottom, round in the bow, and round in the stern. There are many other varieties of boats around our shores, but those mentioned are the most distinct in type.



Fig. 3.—Wexford Cot.

Of the many boats used for pleasure, none are

more popular than the Thames Rander skiff (fig. 4), ranging in length from 20 to 40 feet. They are



Fig. 4.—Rander Skiff.



Fig. 5.—Four-oared Racing-boat.

usually built of cedar or mahogany, and beautifully finished and fitted like a state barge.

Competition among oarsmen has brought into existence the racing-boat with outrigger rowlocks. These boats are usually built of cedar for lightness, canvas-covered, and so light in construction that a sculling-boat (termed a wayer-boat) 30 feet long weighs no more than 30 lb. They are only of sufficient width to seat the sculler, and require expert handling to prevent an upset. The ends of the boats are decked over with oiled or painted canvas.

The dimensions and weights of racing-boats are as follows :

Description.	Length over all.	Extreme breadth.	Depth amid- ships.	Weight, including outfitters, but not oars.
	ft.	in.	in.	lb.
8 oars	59	23	9	240
6 oars	50	23	9	200
4 oars	42	20	8	140
2 oars	36	15	7	45
Sculling ..	31	10 to 12	5½	31

On the Thames, the London Rowing Club has twelve-oared racing-boats of about 75 feet long. See CANOE, CATAMARAN, PROA, &c.; for boat-racing, see ROWING; and for sailing-boats, see SAILING, YACHTS.

Boat-building.—Boats are usually built by eye, but occasionally their shape is delineated on paper

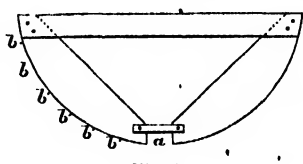


Fig. 6.

by a series of curved lines. In the latter case these lines are transferred to the floor of what is termed a 'mould loft,' and the drawing made of full size—i.e. of the size that the boat is actually to be. From this drawing moulds of the cross sections are made, as shown by fig. 6; α is a notch to fit over the keel. The stem, stern-post, and keel are then cut out of the required shape, and tenoned together. They are then fixed on building stocks consisting of blocks



Fig. 7.

of wood, or of what is known as a 'deal' secured edgeways in a horizontal position on uprights (see fig. 7).

The stem and stern-post, besides being tenoned to the keel, are further temporarily connected at their

upper ends by a fore-and-aft batten of wood. The stem and stern-post are held in position on the stocks by struts extending to floor and beams in the roof of the shop. The transom (see fig. 8) and moulds of the cross sections are then fixed into their proper places, and secured to the fore-and-aft batten and to the roof by struts. The moulds are then further secured by ribbons or bands of wood temporarily bent round their outside edges. These edges and the stem

and stern-post are then marked (see b , b , b , fig. 6) to represent the width of the plank, the latter usually being about 5 inches wide, with about ¾ inch overlap, termed the land in clinker-built boats (sometimes termed clinker or clinker). The bottom plank, known as the

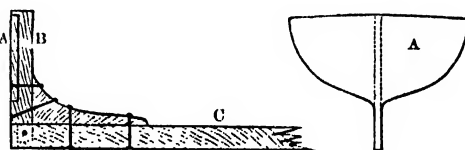


Fig. 8.

A, transom; B, stern-post; C, keel.

garboard strake, is first fitted into the rabbet or groove cut in the keel, stem, and stern-post to receive it, and nailed at intervals of about 3 inches. A plank is then taken and held over the upper edge of the garboard, and marked round with chalk or pencil. The plank is then removed and sawn through by the chalk line, care being taken to provide for the overlap. The plank is then further cut to the right width to fit the marks on the moulds, b , b , stem and stern-post, and then planed and edges bevelled as required to fit round the curve of the moulds. The plank is held in position by a series of wooden clamps, set up by wedges, as shown in fig. 9. The edges of the plank are then nailed together at intervals of 3 inches, the nails being clenched on the inside on rooves (small copper rings). When all the plank is on, the timbers or ribs are put in; these are usually made of American elm on account of its straight grain, flexibility, and toughness. The ribs having been cut to the required size, are put into a steam kiln (which is a long box supplied with steam from a boiler) until they are sufficiently pliant to be easily bent round the bilge of the boat inside. The timber is now nailed (from the outside) to the plank, each nail being clenched on a roove. After the timbers have been fitted and nailed, the 'in-wale' (a batten of wood inside the gunwale) is fitted over their heads, and nailed and rooved to the gunwale strake. A bearer or stringer is then fitted round the boat inside, to take the seats or thwarts, the latter being further secured to the sides of the boat by oak-knees. In the case of boat-building without moulds, the garboard strake is fitted as already described, and also the next strake. Each succeeding strake is fitted in the same manner, the boat-builder giving such a curve to the bilge and sharpness to the bow or stern as his judgment and experience may direct; and often



Fig. 9.

a 'rule-of-thumb builder' turns out a handsomer boat and better model than the man who works by lines. Fig. 10, A, shows in detail the construction of a clencher-built boat; *s* is an oak-knee

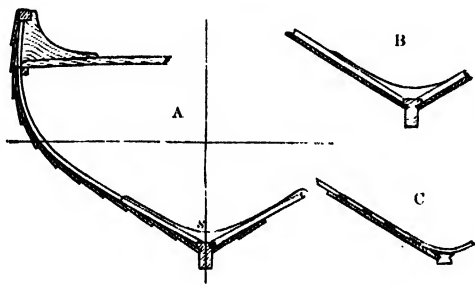


Fig. 10.

floor fitted to the sides of the timbers when the bottom of the boat is so sharp that the timbers cannot be bent round over the keel.

In a carvel-built boat the edges of the plank meet as shown by fig. 10, B. The seams are caulked with oakum or cotton, and payed with pitch or marine glue. Racing-boats and canoes are usually carvel-built, but the plank is too thin to admit of caulking, and a strip of canvas or wood is worked over the seams inside. When a strip of wood is used, the work is termed ribbon carvel (fig. 10, C).

Boatbill (*Canceroma cochlearia*), a bird of the Heron (q.v.) family, the only known species of a genus differing from the true herons in little else

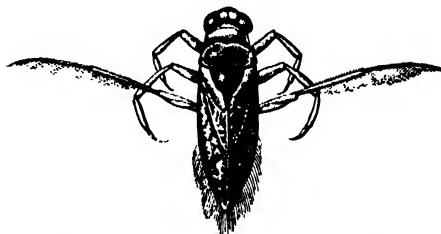


Boatbill (*Canceroma cochlearia*).

than the form of the brown bill, which is comparatively short and very broad, the mandibles resembling the bowls of two spoons placed one upon the other, the upper mandible overlapping the lower, keeled on its upper ridge, and hooked at the point. The boatbill is about the size of a domestic fowl, has shorter limbs than most of the herons, but resembles them in plumage, and is abundantly provided on the back of the head and neck with elongated feathers, which it erects when irritated. The front parts are white (the crown black in the male), the upper surface and tail whitish gray, the under side yellowish white, the belly rusty red. It inhabits Cayenne, Surinam, Brazil, &c., sits perched upon trees which hang over streams, and darts down upon fish, which seem to be its principal food.

Boat-fly (*Notonecta*), a genus of insects of the order Hemiptera (q.v.), sub-order Heteroptera, and family Hydrocores, or Water-bugs (q.v.).

The English name well describes their boat-like form, eminently adapted for progression in water. They have the peculiar habit of always swimming on their back, and of resting in this posture suspended at the surface of the water. Their hindmost legs are very long, and when these are thrown out at rest the insect looks like 'a waterman resting on his scull.' One species, *N. glauca* (sometimes called the *Water Boatman*), is common



Water Boatman (*Notonecta glauca*).

in Britain and throughout Europe; it is about half an inch long, and varies considerably in colour; but exhibits a general greenish tinge, the other colours being black, brown, and gray. They fly well, but seldom use their wings. They move with difficulty on dry ground, and prefer to keep to quiet water. When they descend into the water, they carry down a supply of air in a hollow between their folded wings. They feed voraciously on animal substances, often kill and devour those of their own species, and are said to do damage among fish-spawn. There are many species, but only two are European. An allied genus (*Corixa*) swims in the normal fashion, and is represented in almost every quiet pool.

Boat-lowering and Disengaging Gear, an inclusive term for the system of ropes, blocks, and davits or cranes, by which ships' small boats (see BOAT) are lowered to the sea, and sent clear of the fastenings. For a long time in the early history of shipping, no proper means were employed for launching boats, but afterwards, and especially as the passenger-carrying trade developed, vessels were built having davits with blocks and falls, or tackle. At first the davits were fixed wooden uprights at the side of the ship; then wooden uprights, moving upon hinges or pivots called 'topping davits'; then of curved iron, fixed in sockets, but capable of turning round. The last-named method is still the one most universally adopted, although a plan of working a curved iron davit upon a hinge or pivot, in a similar manner to the old wooden topping davit, has been sometimes fitted within recent years. Until within comparatively recent times, the almost universal mode of attaching boats to the falls and blocks was by a fixed hook on the bottom of the lower block, which hooked into an eye or ring fixed near the bow and stern of the boat. The many calamities befalling boats thus fitted when being launched in the hurry and excitement of shipwreck or other emergency at sea, led to the invention of more efficient and reliable means for safely disengaging them from the lowering tackle, and for regulating the process of lowering as well. The first recorded invention of an improvement in lowering and disengaging boats is that of Lieutenant Cook, R.N., in 1830. The next invention was by Shore in 1836; and in 1852 Stirling, Lacon, and Dewey each invented a system of disengaging boats. From that time till now, the records of the Patent Office show a continuous and plentiful list of devices, many of them, however, simply being modified forms of methods formerly patented. A goodly proportion

have related only to the mode of housing and *lowering* boats; but in the case of Clifford's apparatus, which, more than any other, at one time met with wide acceptance, the work of *disengaging* was also embraced. The aim in this apparatus, which began to be introduced in 1856, was the rapid and equable lowering of boats, by unreveing pennants placed round drums and rollers, and the simultaneous disengaging of both hooks; the whole operation being under the control of one man seated in the boat. When first brought out, and when fitted and worked properly, this plan was a most successful one, and without doubt its adoption led to the saving of many lives. As time went on, however, it was found that the pennants were allowed to get out of order, and being often made of inferior material, were unreliable, while in frosty weather they became almost useless. The necessity also of using the old blocks and falls to hoist the boat was too often the cause of the apparatus not being immediately and properly adjusted for lowering, and in consequence found worthless at the moment of necessity. Its adoption therefore did not extend, and at the present time, although other and better apparatus have been designed to accomplish the safe lowering of boats, the almost universal practice, as before stated, is to employ the old and primitive plan of simple blocks and falls.

With regard to *disengaging* boats (perhaps the most critical part of the whole operation of launching), the number of patented gears is very large. Captain Kynaston, R.N., in 1857 invented and patented a slip-hook which for several years received the approval of the Admiralty, and was fitted in the boats of many naval ships. An improved form of the same hook was designed by Mark Robinson. In 1870 Hill & Clark patented a novel hook—improved subsequently—which has been extensively adopted both in the naval and mercantile marine; and in 1872 a disengaging apparatus, similar in principle to previous gears, was patented by Douglass, and received for several years extensive adoption in merchant-ships. This consisted of a round ball attached to the end of the falls, and a cup or socket fitted in the seats at each end of the boat, the balls fitting into the sockets, and being held there by means of levers, the tops of which pressed partly over the balls, and gripped them. These levers were kept in position by means of a tightened chain held by a trigger in the centre; when this trigger was released, the chain slackened, and allowed the levers to open, and the balls to clear. This plan, like some of the other methods, had the disadvantage (a most serious one in cases of dire emergency or panic) of permitting the boat to be detached when suspended at any height; the disengaging thus being entirely dependent upon the judgment of whoever had charge of the trigger. Recent and more approved methods insure that a boat suspended from the falls cannot be unhooked or released until entirely water-borne, and all strains taken off the falls.

It would occupy too much space even to simply enumerate recently patented gears; it must suffice to illustrate and describe one of the simplest. Figs. 1, 2, and 3 illustrate a disengaging apparatus designed and patented by W. F. Rees, R.N., curator of the Naval Museum, Greenwich. Fig. 1 shows the disengaging hooks in position, with the boat under suspension. Fig. 2 shows an enlarged view of the hook as it appears with the boat suspended. It will be seen that it consists of a straight shank with, at its upper end, the hook proper, pivoted through its crown, and at its lower end the slot and pin-hole, wherewith to fix it to the standard or sling reaching down to the keel of the boat. Half-way up the shank, and pivoted to it, is a slotted tumbler which receives

and holds the bill or point of the hook when the boat is suspended. When, however, the fore and aft line, reaching from tumbler to tumbler and

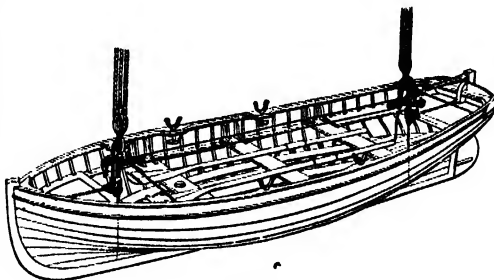


Fig. 1.

holding them up, is allowed to slack, the tumblers drop and allow the hooks to swing back on their pivot (see fig. 3), thus freeing the block and tackle. The fore and aft line is thus the key to the whole operation of disengaging. It is attached to the after-tumbler; the end, after passing through the



Fig. 2.



Fig. 3.

forward-tumbler, is belayed round the cleat or after-thwart, and is under control of the coxswain. By keeping the line hand-taut while the boat is being lowered, there is no possibility of the boat disengaging itself should one end of it touch the water before the other. Indeed, even when the boat is completely water-borne, the hooks of themselves cannot become disengaged, unless as the result of an intentional slackening of the line. The small safety-pin with chain shown on fig. 2 is used to keep the hook in position when there is no strain on the fall—i.e. the boat not under suspension—and the fore and aft line is not taut; for example, when attaching the falls, previous to hoisting up the boat. In rough weather or in the dark, the boat can be hoisted up by simply slipping the eye of the lower block over the second small fixed hook, shown at the back of the shank, the disengaging hooks being afterwards adjusted ready for lowering again.

Boat-plug. a wood, cork, or metal stopper, fitted through the bottom of ships' boats, wherewith to drain them of the water which may have been shipped or have leaked in while the boats were in use, or of rain-water. The Board of Trade require that each boat shall have two plugs—one a spare one—both to be attached to a fixed part of the bottom by lanyard or chain. To prevent accidents from the omission to restore the plugs, *self-acting* plugs have from time to time been

devised, but have never been very extensively adopted. One of these inventions consists of a metal valve and fittings secured into the bottom of the boat, the valve being formed of a hollow truncated cone, which remains close against the valve seat by the pressure of the sea as long as the boat is water-borne; but immediately the boat, or that portion of it containing the plug, is out of the water, the valve falls by its own weight, and drains the boat effectively.

Boat-racing. See ROWING.

Boatswain is an officer on board ship, who has charge of the boats, sails, rigging, cables, anchors, flags, and cordage. In the navy he is a warrant-officer, and is immediately under the navigating officer in some of these duties; he frequently examines the masts and yards, sails and ropes, to report on their condition and efficiency. He also keeps account of all the spare rigging, &c., and superintends the replacement of old by new. He assists in the necessary business of the ship, and in relieving the watch. The *boatswain's mate* assists in all the above-named duties.

Bobadil, a braggadocio, from a blustering captain in Ben Jonson's *Every Man in his Humour* (1578).

Bobbin-net, or BOBBINET, machine-made cotton net, an imitation of bobbin-lace. See LACE.

Bobbins are small wooden reels or rollers, flanged at the ends, and bored through the centre lengthwise, so that they can be placed on a spindle or skewer. The bobbin or pira on which ordinary sewing-thread is wound, although generally of small size, is a good example of their prevailing shape. Bobbins are used in the spinning processes for cotton, flax, wool, and silk, and are of various sizes, the largest being generally those used for the slubbing frames where the cotton, for example, first passes from the lap shape given by the carder into a loose kind of strand. After this the bobbins diminish in size for the various succeeding stages to the finished yarn. A 'slubbing' bobbin may be 15 inches long and 5 inches in diameter at the flange, but one or two exceptional kinds are larger than this. For special purposes, such as lace-making, the bobbins used are quite unlike the ordinary kinds. These and some other varieties are made of metal. Paper tubes are now largely adopted in certain cases where bobbins were formerly employed. Bobbins are made of birch, beech, ash, and plane tree, and machinery for their manufacture has been erected here and there in the Highlands of Scotland and other wooded parts of the country. But they are also largely made of American and other foreign woods, as well as from native material, in factories in Lancashire and Yorkshire. Ingenious automatic machinery is now employed, especially for making the smaller sizes. It will be readily understood that bobbins are used in enormous numbers wherever there are large spinning-mills.

Bobbio, a Lombard town, 3 miles SSE. of Pavia, near the confluence of the Bobbio and the Trebbia. Bobbio originated from a monastery founded here in 612 by St Columbanus (q.v.), whose famous library has mostly found its way to the Vatican. Since 1014 it has been the seat of a bishopric. Pop. 4635.

Bob-o-link, or BOB-LINK, REED BIRD, or RICE BIRD (*Dolichonyx oryzivorus* or *Icterus acipennis*), a common American bird found from Paraguay to Canada, the only one of its kind, and that difficult to classify. Some place it near the Baltimore bird (*Icterus*), others near starlings, but both the characteristics and the character of the bob-o-link exhibit much that is unique. The beak is short

and straight; the nostrils surrounded by a fold of skin; the wings are long, especially in their first feather; the tail-feathers are stiff-pointed. The



Bob-o-link.

plumage is unusually conspicuous for a ground bird. In the male the head, lower surface, and tail are black, while the upper surface is lighter, yellowish white in front, black with yellow streaks behind. The colour and the note change with the seasons and with the functions of the bird. The female is much plainer—yellowish brown with darker streaks above, and pale grayish yellow below.

The name—originally *Bob Lincoln*—is an imitation of the bird's note. In song, the full-throated male bob-o-link is unique, rivalling the lark, imitable by the mocking-bird, 'in qualities of hilarity and musical tintinnabulation,' according to Burroughs (*Birds and Poets*), quite unequalled. His volubility borders on the burlesque. In disposition also the male is interesting; he affords the 'most marked example of exuberant pride, and a glad, rollicking, holiday spirit, that can be seen among American birds.' His love-making emotions appear to be unusually strong, as strong indeed as his Quaker mate is shy, retiring, and indifferent. The change of the male in colour and form at the breeding time is very striking. He becomes black and white more emphatically, so as sometimes to be called the 'skunk bird,' and acquires a broad form and a curious 'mincing gait.' Robert o' Lincoln becomes 'an ornithological coxcomb' of the highest order. He sings on brier and weed, or jerking up and down in the air, while his mate may be brooding in a simple nest among the grass. The bob-o-link is said to exhibit the common trick of seeking by exaggerated fuss in some other quarter to lead intruders away from the nest.

The bob-o-link is a bird of passage, spending the winter in the West Indies. In summer it is found as far north as the banks of the Saskatchewan, in 54° lat., but is most plentiful in the Atlantic states and other eastern parts of America, where it is to be seen in every meadow and cornfield. It renders good service by the destruction of insects and their larvæ; but in the South, both in April and August, at seed-time and harvest, its ravages seriously cripple the rice-growing industry, and destroy about a fourth of the crop. Thousands of men and boys are then employed to shoot the trespassers, who are killed in great numbers for the table; their flesh is delicate, and resembles that of

the ortolan. On account also of their beauty and powers of song, many are caught, caged, and sold in the New York and other markets.

Bobruisk, a fortified town of Russia, on the Beresina, 87 miles SE. of the Minsk by rail. It has some trade in wood and corn. It was besieged ineffectually by the French in 1812, and was made a fortress of the first rank by the Emperor Nicholas. Pop. (1880) 40,079.

Boca Tigre, or **BOGUE**, the Portuguese translation of the Chinese name *Hu-mun*, 'tiger's mouth,' given to that portion of the estuary of the Canton River (q.v.) extending north from 22° 45' N. lat.; south of this point the estuary is designated the 'Outer Waters.' In the Boca Tigre are the rocky islands on which are situated the Bogue forts, which have been more than once captured by the British.

Boccaccio, GIOVANNI, was born either at Paris or at Florence in 1313. He was the illegitimate son of a merchant of Certaldo, and at the age of ten was apprenticed to a merchant of Paris. Disliking commerce, he attempted but quickly abandoned the study of canon law, and was then sent by his father to Naples, with the intention that he should follow a mercantile career. At Naples he gave himself to story-writing in verse and prose; mingled in courtly society; and fell in love with the lady whom, under the name of Fiammetta, he has made as famous as the Beatrice of Dante and the Laura of Petrarch. In the *Filicopo* she is said to have been an illegitimate daughter of King Robert of Sicily; in the *Fiammetta* she is represented as a beautiful Neapolitan, of noble but not of royal descent. She appears in a number of Boccaccio's works, and is one of the story-tellers in the *Decameron*. Up to the year 1350 Boccaccio lived alternately at Florence and at Naples. Between 1340 and 1350 he produced the prose tale of *Fiammetta*; the *Ameto*, a pastoral piece; and the *Amorosa Visione*, in which he sang the praise of his mistress in *terza rima*. To the same period belong the *Filicopo*, the *Teseide*, and the *Filostrato*. In the *Filicopo* the story of *Florc et Blanchefleur*, one of the finest of the French 'Romans d'Aventures,' is cast into prose and embroidered with fanciful rhetoric, but is hardly improved in the retelling. The *Teseide* is a graceful version in *ottava rima* of the mediæval romance of Palamon and Arceite, the same story as forms the subject of Chaucer's *Knight's Tale* (a poem which is to a great extent translated from Boccaccio's), and of Shakespeare and Fletcher's *Two Noble Kinsmen*. The *Filostrato*, which is likewise in *ottava rima*, deals with the loves of Troilus and Cressida, a story which had become widely popular in various forms after the appearance in 1287 of Guido of Messina's Latin romance of Troilus and Briseis. The heroine's name was changed by Boccaccio, from whose poem Chaucer translated nearly half of his *Troilus*. The year 1350 may be taken as the beginning of a new period in Boccaccio's life. Until then it is a life given to song and love and adventure. Thenceforth, for some fifteen years, it is the life of an honoured citizen, of a diplomatist intrusted with important public affairs, of a scholar devoted to the cause of the new learning. During this period, in which he formed a lasting friendship with Petrarch, Boccaccio, as Florentine ambassador, visited Rome, Ravenna, Avignon, and the court of the Margrave of Brandenburg. In 1358 he completed his great work, the *Decameron*, which he had begun some ten years before. In 1360 he lodged in his house the wandering Greek scholar, Leontius Pilatus, whom he persuaded the Florentines to appoint to a Greek professorship, and by whose aid he was enabled to transcribe and forward to Petrarch prose

versions of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. He for some time held a chair founded for the elucidation of the works of Dante, on whose *Divina Commedia* he produced a commentary, now mainly interesting from the light which it sheds on Florentine life in the 14th century. During his last years he lived principally in retirement at Certaldo, and would have entered into holy orders, moved by repentance for the follies of his youth, had he not been dissuaded by Petrarch. He wrote in Latin an elaborate work on mythology, *De Genealogia Deorum*, and treatises *De Claris Mulieribus*, *De Montibus*, &c. He died at Certaldo on the 21st December 1375.

Boccaccio ranks among the great writers of Europe in virtue of the prose tales of the *Decameron*. This famous book opens with a description of the plague at Florence in 1348. Seven ladies and three gentlemen are introduced, who leave the city and betake themselves in quest of security and distraction to a country villa. There they while away ten days (whence the name *Decameron*) by each in turn telling stories in the garden. In all, one hundred tales are thus told. Many of these are extremely licentious; others are full of pathos and poetical fancy; several are masterpieces of imaginative creation; all are related in exquisitely graceful Italian. Boccaccio selected the plots of his stories from amid the floating popular fiction of the day, and especially from the *fabliaux* which had passed into Italy from France. His originality lies in his consummate narrative skill, and in the rich poetical sentiment which transforms his borrowed materials. The influence of his great book upon European literature has been wide and profound. Among his countrymen, by whom he has been generally accepted as an almost incomparable master of Italian prose, he has found many imitators, the most notable being Firenzuola, Bandello, Cinthio, and Grazzini. In France the transformation of the *fabliau* into the *nouvelle* was partly due to the example set by Boccaccio. His influence is apparent in such collections of tales as the *Cent Nouvelles Nouvelles* ascribed to Antoine de la Salle, the *Grand Parangon de Nouvelles Nouvelles* of Nicholas of Troyes (1535), and the *Heptameron* (1558) of Marguerite of Navarre. Several of Boccaccio's stories are versified in the *Contes de La Fontaine*, in whose hands they assume a close resemblance to the form under which, as *fabliaux*, they had crossed the Alps into Italy. The debt of English writers to Boccaccio begins with the translations in Chaucer's *Troilus*. In the *Canterbury Tales* the stories told by the Reeve and the Franklin, and the story of Patient Griselda, are founded either on stories in the *Decameron* or on the same *fabliaux* as had been recast by Boccaccio. Sidney's *Arcadia*, says Mr Symonds, 'is a copy of what Boccaccio had attempted in his classical romances.' Cyril Tourneur's *Atheist's Tragedy*, Marston's *Parasitaster*, and Fletcher's *Women Pleased*, are examples of plays of which the plots were taken, wholly or partly, from Boccaccio. The scene of the caskets in the *Merchant of Venice* corresponds to a story in the *Decameron*. The plot of *All's Well that Ends Well* is taken from Boccaccio's story of Giletta and Beltramo, and the plot of *Cymbeline* is partly drawn from the ninth novel of the second day. None of Dryden's works have had more enduring popularity than his *Tales from Boccaccio*. In later days, Keats (in *Isabella*), Tennyson (in *The Falcon* and *The Lover's Tale*), Longfellow, Swinburne, and George Eliot are among those who have turned for their subjects to the deathless pages of the hundred tales.

Apart from the narrative interest and beauty of conception which mark its finest stories, the salient feature of the *Decameron* is the contrast between

the subjects and the style. The matter is medieval, while the form is classical. Boccaccio collected much that was choicest and most typical in the popular fiction of his day, and handed it down to modern times enshrined in imperishable language. The two great tendencies which run through European literature, the classical and the romantic, are seen working together in the *Decameron* as they are hardly to be seen elsewhere. The stories retain their medieval colour and flavour; yet the style preserves the classic dignity and elegance; the classic disdain of unessential detail. Despite the indelicacy of many of the novels, the impression left by the book as a whole is neither one of frivolity nor of grossness. The satiric malice and reckless levity of the *fabliaux* are replaced by a voluptuous melancholy, a refined pensive epicureanism. 'The central idea of the book,' says M. Emile Montegut, 'is that of love, represented as the chief motive force in social life, and the sovereign of the world. Love takes the place which fate held with the ancients, and which free-will holds among Christians.' The same fine critic maintains that the tales have been carefully linked in the order best suited to enforce this central conception. Whether or not they were so arranged, the frame in which they are set is a masterpiece of literary art. The impressive account of the plague at Florence—the description of the burning noon-day calm, which recalled to Ampère the opening of Plato's *Phædo*—the contrast which haunts the reader throughout the book, between death ravaging the world outside, and the quiet garden with its graceful inmates engrossed in song and story—the poetical fancy which invests Fiammetta and her companions with an undying charm—to these things there is no parallel in the works of Boccaccio's followers, as there is none to the golden perfection of his style. See Baldelli's and Tiraboschi's biographies; Marcus Landau, *Boccaccio, sein Leben und seine Werke* (1878), and *Die Quellen des Decamerons* (2d ed. 1884); and Montegut's *Poètes et Artistes de l'Italie* (1881).

Boccage, MARIE ANNE FIQUET DU (*née* Le Page), a French poetess, once famous, now almost forgotten, born at Ronen, 22d October 1710. She published a small volume of verse in 1746; next an imitation of Milton, *Paradis Terrestre*, in 1748; and in 1756, her most important work, *La Colombiade*. Her letters to her sister, written while travelling through England, Holland, and Italy, are her most interesting work. During her lifetime she was excessively praised by men so great as Voltaire and Fontenelle; but modern readers cannot help thinking that her beauty must have recommended her verses. She was elected member of many learned academies, and died 8th August 1802.

Boccherini, LUIGI, composer, born at Lucca, 14th January 1740, studied at Rome, and appeared with great success at Paris in 1768. He next went to Madrid, and became chamber-composer to the Infante Don Luis, afterwards holding the same post under Frederick-William II. of Prussia. With the king's death in 1797, however, Boccherini's salary ceased, and the remainder of his life was darkened by poverty and ill-health. He died at Madrid, 28th May 1805. He wrote three hundred and sixty-six instrumental works, mostly trios, quartets, and quintets for strings, in which the cello is prominent; of his vocal works, a *Stabat Mater* for three voices has alone been published. Melodious, dignified, and displaying great originality, his best works are still esteemed.

Bochart, SAMUEL, a learned Protestant divine, was born of a good family at Ronen in 1599. He very early exhibited a remarkable aptitude for learning languages, and after extensive studies,

especially in the Semitic languages, at Paris, Sedan, Saumur, and Leyden, was chosen pastor of the Protestant church at Caen. Here in 1629 he gained great reputation by his victory in a public discussion of nine days' duration over the famous Jesuit, Verin. In 1646 he published his *Geographia Sacra*, a work of marvellous erudition. In 1652 he went to Stockholm along with his disciple, Huet, on the invitation of Queen Christina. The court-life, however, did not suit him, and his visit was short. His great work, *Hierozoicon, sive de Animalibus Scriptura Sacra*, published in 1663, had afterwards the honour of being commended by Cuvier. He died suddenly, May 16, 1667. A complete edition of his numerous works was published at Leyden in 1712; and a new edition of the *Hierozoicon* at Leipzig, in 3 vols. (1793-99).

Bochnia, a town of Austrian Galicia, 24 miles ESE. of Cracow by rail. Extensive mines of rock-salt, the entrance to which is by a shaft in the centre of the town, employ upwards of 500 miners. Pop. (1880) 8199.

Bocholt, a town of Prussia, on the Aa, 13 miles N. of Wesel by rail, with manufactures of cotton goods, iron wares, and machinery. Pop. (1871) 6127; (1885) 10,576.

Bochum, a town of Prussia, 35 miles NE. of Düsseldorf by rail. Its great steel-works employ over 5000 hands, and produce about 150,000 tons annually; armour-plating for ships, steel ropes and cables, machinery, safety-lamps, coal-tar, oil, and carpets, are among its other manufactures. There are valuable coal-mines near by. Pop. (1871) 21,192; (1885) 40,767.

Bocland (i.e. book-land, or rather charter-land or deed-land), one of the early Anglo-Saxon forms of land tenure. Being proved by writing, it was distinguished from the Ethel, which had also been severed by an act of government from the Folcland (q.v.), and converted into an estate of perpetual inheritance, but which was proved by the pedigree of the owner and the witness of the community. It might belong to the church, to the king, or to a subject; it might be alienable and divisible at the will of the proprietor; it might be limited in its descent, without any power of alienation in the possessor. It was often granted for a single life or for more lives than one, with remainder in perpetuity to the church. It was forfeited for various delinquencies to the state, and was exempt from services, except the *fyrd* or military service, the repair of bridges, and the maintenance of fortifications. See Allen, *The Royal Prerogative*; Stubbs, *Constitutional History* (i. 76); Gneist, *Verwaltungsrecht* (i. 4); Robertson's *Early Kings of Scotland* (ii. 251).

Bode, JOHANN ELERT, astronomer, was born at Hamburg, 19th January 1747; in 1772 he became astronomer of the academy in Berlin, and in 1786 director of the observatory there. He published numerous astronomical works, including *Sternkunde* (3d ed. 1808), and *Uranographia* (2d ed. 1818), and founded the *Astronomische Jahrbücher*. He died 23d November 1826. The arithmetical relation subsisting between the distances of the planets from the sun, called after him Bode's Law, may be thus stated: Write, in the first instance, a row of fours, and under these place a geometrical series beginning with 3, and increasing by the ratio 2, putting the 3 under the second 4; and by addition we have the series 4, 7, 10, &c., which gives nearly the relative distances of the planets from the sun.

4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
	3	6	12	24	48	96	192
4	7	10	16	28	52	100	196
							388

Thus, if 10 be taken as the distance of the earth from the sun, 4 will give that of Mercury, 7 that of Venus, and so forth. The actual relative distances are as follow, making 10 the distance of the earth:

Mercury. Venus. Earth. Mars. Asteroids. Jupiter. Saturn. Uranus. Neptune.
3.9 7.2 10 15.2 27.4 52.9 95.4 192 300

Close as is the correspondence between the law and the actual distances, no physical reason has been given to account for it, although there is little room for doubt that such exists. Bode's law is therefore, in the present state of science, empirical. Kepler was the first to perceive the law, and Bode argued from it that a planet might be found between Mars and Jupiter, to fill up the gap that existed at the time in the series. The discovery of the Planetoids (q.v.) has proved the correctness of this prediction.

Bode, THE BARONS DE, a family known in England in connection with a claim for indemnity frequently brought before parliament. The claim was maintained by Baron Clement, the grandson of Charles de Bode, a baron of the Holy Roman empire, whose son, born in England of an English mother, was one of those originally included in the payment made by France in 1814 to indemnify British residents who had suffered by confiscation during the Revolution. As his estates had been held under German tenure, and he was not a British subject, the English government finally repudiated his claim in 1852.

Boden-See. See CONSTANCE, LAKE OF.

Bodenstedt, FRIEDRICH MARTIN VON, a German writer of appalling industry, born in Hanover, 22d April 1819. In 1840 he went to Moscow as tutor to the children of Prince Galitzin, and there translated the poems of Pushkin and other Russian authors. After extensive travels in the Crimea, Turkey, Greece, and Asia Minor, he returned to Germany in 1847, and published *Die Völker des Kaukasus* (1848). He edited for some years the *Weser Zeitung*, and in 1854 was appointed professor of Slav languages at Munich, afterwards obtaining also the chair of Old English there. These posts he resigned in 1866 for the superintendence of the Meiningen court theatre, which he retained only till 1873. Bodenstedt has published many translations from the Russian, English, and Persian, and has a high reputation as a poet. His most popular work is the *Lieder des Mirza Schaffy* (1851; 115th ed. Berlin, 1884), feigned to be a translation from the Tartar. His translations and studies of Shakespeare possess a high value, but his numerous romances and dramas are not of conspicuous merit.

Bodin, JEAN, a great political thinker of the 16th century, was born at Angers about 1530. After his studies in law at Toulouse, he settled in Paris, where his writings soon gave him great influence. By Henry III. he was appointed king's attorney at Laon in 1576, and by the Duc d'Alençon he was carried as secretary to England in his journey to solicit the hand of Queen Elizabeth. In the States-general at Blois in 1576 Bodin asserted with great energy and eloquence the rights of the people and freedom of conscience. The later years of his life were spent at Laon, the inhabitants of which he was able to persuade to declare for the League in 1589, and for Henry IV. five years later. Here he died of the plague in 1596. Bodin's greatest work is *Les Six Livres de la République* (1576), of which the author issued a Latin version in 1586. According to Bodin, property and the family form the basis of society, and a limited monarchy is the best possible form of government. In opposition to certain contemporary Protestant writers on politics, he held that under no circumstances are citizens justified

in rebelling against their ruler. One prince, however, may interfere in behalf of the oppressed subjects of another. Bodin's book is the greatest of its kind published during the 16th century; yet it had but little influence on contemporary opinion.

His *Methodus ad Facilem Historiarum Cognitionem* (1566) is considered by some writers as having laid the foundation of the true philosophy of history. His famous *Colloquium Heptaplomeres de Abditis Rerum Sublimium Arcanis*, left in MS., and indeed not published until 1857 by Noack, is a conversation between a Jew, a Mohammedan, a Lutheran, a Zwinglian, a Roman Catholic, an Epicurean, and a Theist, who come to the conclusion that henceforward they will leave off disputing on religion, and live together in charity and toleration. Bodin, though so broad and liberal in his opinions as to earn the reputation of an atheist, was not before his age in his notions about witchcraft, as is evidenced by his *Demonomanie des Sorciers* (1580). See H. Baudrillart's *Jean Bodin et son Temps* (1853), and vol. i. of Flint's *Philosophy of History in Europe* (1874).

Bodle, an ancient Scotch copper coin of the value of two pennies Scots, or (about 1600) one-sixth of an English penny; said to have been so called from a mint-master of the name of *Bothwell*.

Bodleian Library, the public library of Oxford University, restored by Sir Thomas Bodley (q.v.) in 1598, his first act being the presentation of a large collection of valuable books, purchased on the Continent at an expense of £10,000. Through his influence and noble example, the library was speedily enriched by numerous other important contributions. Among the earliest subsequent benefactors of the Bodleian Library, which was opened in 1603, with a well-assorted collection of upwards of 2000 volumes, were the Earl of Pembroke, who presented it with 250 volumes of valuable Greek MSS.; Sir Thomas Roe; Sir Kenelm Digby; Robert Burton, author of the *Anatomy of Melancholy*; and Archbishop Land, who made it a magnificent donation of 1300 MSS. in more than twenty different languages. Upwards of 8000 volumes of the library of the famous John Selden (q.v.) went to the Bodleian Library. General Fairfax presented the library with many MSS., among which was Roger Dodsworth's collection of 160 volumes on English history. The greatest benefactor in the 18th century was Dr Richard Rawlinson, who, dying in 1755, left his complete collection of books and MSS. to the Bodleian Library. The MSS. amounted to upwards of 4800. George Ballard, who died in the same year (1755), bequeathed to the library 44 MS. volumes of interesting letters, with other valuable MSS. During the present century, the most important bequests have been the collections of Richard Gough, on British Topography and Saxon and Northern Literature; the choicest books from the library of Edmund Malone, the editor of Shakespeare; and the valuable books, prints, drawings, and coins of Francis Douce; also a sum of £40,000, by the Rev. Robert Mason, the interest to be expended on books. By purchase, the library acquired some magnificent collections of Oriental, Greek, Latin, and Hebrew books and MSS. The Bodleian Library is particularly rich in biblical codices, rabbinical literature, and materials for British history. By the Copyright Act it is entitled to a copy of every book printed in the United Kingdom. The number of volumes it possesses is estimated at about 400,000, in addition to between 20,000 and 30,000 in manuscript. The first catalogue of the printed books was published by the first librarian, Dr James, in 1605; the last, nearly two centuries and a half later (in 1843), in 3 vols., by

Dr Bandinel, the eleventh who held the office since the institution of the library. In the interval, several catalogues of various departments of the library were published; and a supplemental volume was added by Dr Bandinel in 1851. By statutes drawn up for the government of the library by Sir Thomas Bodley, it was decreed that the vice-chancellor, the proctors, and the regius professors of divinity, law, medicine, Hebrew, and Greek, should be visitors and curators; a statute passed in 1856 added 'five more residents to be elected by congregation for ten years, if continuing to reside, and to be re-eligible.' The library opens daily at nine o'clock in the morning; from April to July it closes at five; in February, March, August, September, and October at four; and in November, December, and January at three. It is shut during certain holidays, and for visitation purposes, in the aggregate, about 34 days in the year, besides Sundays. Since 1861 the domed Radcliffe Library (now *Camera Bodleiana*) has served as a reading-room, open all the year from 10 A.M. to 10 P.M. Books neither rare nor valuable may be lent, by vote of Convocation, to persons working in other institutions of the university, and, by the authority of the librarian or curators, to professors of the university of Oxford. The history of the library has been very carefully traced in the Rev. W. D. Macray's *Annals of the Bodleian Library* (1868).

Bodley. SIR THOMAS, the restorer of the library originally established at Oxford by Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, was born at Exeter, March 2, 1545. His family, being forced to flee from England during the persecutions of Mary, settled at Geneva, where Bodley studied languages and divinity under the most distinguished professors of that city. On the accession of Elizabeth he returned to England and completed his studies at Oxford, where he took the degree of M.A., was afterwards elected a proctor, and officiated as public orator. He applied himself to the study of Hebrew, and four years spent abroad enabled him to become proficient in modern languages. He was now employed by the queen in diplomatic missions to Denmark, France, and Holland, and returned to his favourite city, Oxford, in 1597, where he devoted himself to literature, especially to the extension of the university library, now called the Bodleian (q.v.), in Bodley's honour. In collecting rare and valuable books from many parts of Europe, Bodley expended a very large sum, and also left an estate for salaries to officers, repair of the library, and purchase of books. He was knighted by King James, and died at Oxford, January 28, 1613. Having no family, he made the university his chief heir. Bodley's autobiography, extending to the year 1609, together with a collection of his letters, has been published under the title *Reliquiæ Bodleianæ* (1703).

Bodmer, JOHANN JAKOB, a Swiss poet and *littérateur*, was born at Greifensee, near Zurich, in 1698. The study of the Greek and Latin writers, together with the English, French, and Italian masters, having convinced him of the poverty and tastelessness of existing German literature, he resolved to attempt a reformation. Accordingly, in 1721, along with a few other young scholars, he commenced a weekly review, *Diskurse der Mäler*, in which the living poets were sharply handled. After 1740, when Bodmer published a treatise on the Wonderful in Poetry, a famous literary war broke out between him and Gottsched, the pedantic dictator of German literature. Bodmer's followers, the Swiss school, who were nourished on English poetry, maintained the claims of imagination and free poetic impulse against poetry according to hard and fast rules. The controversy partly prepared

the way for the Augustan epoch of German literature. Bodmer died at Zurich, where he had held the chair of History for fifty years, 2d January 1783. As an author, he was marked by inexhaustible activity; but his poems, dramas, and translations have no vigour or originality. He did greater service to literature by republishing the old German poets, the Minnesingers, and a part of the *Nibelungenlied*, as also by his numerous critical writings.

Bodmin, the county town of Cornwall, in the middle of the county, 30 miles NNW. of Plymouth. It has some trade in cattle and sheep, and shoes are manufactured. The chief buildings are a market-house, the county hall, and the Cornwall Lunatic Asylum. Bodmin arose out of a priory, which, founded in 936 or earlier, came at the Reformation into Sternhold's hands. The church, rebuilt in 1472, has been restored since 1879. From the time of Edward I. till 1868, Bodmin returned two members to parliament; then, till 1885, one. Pop. (1881) 5061.

Bodock. See BOIS D'ARC.

Bodoni, GIAMBATTISTA, a distinguished Italian printer, born in Piedmont in 1740, settled at Parma in 1768, and died at Padua in 1813. His edition of the *Iliad* and of Virgil, as also his Lord's Prayer in 155 languages, are admired for their elegance. See the Life by Bernardi (1873).

Böttcher, LUDWIG, one of the most finished poets the North has produced, was born at Copenhagen in 1793, and after a long residence in Italy, returned home in 1835, to die there in 1874. His poems are mainly love songs, and form but two small collections; but almost every one of them is a gem. See Gosse's *Northern Studies* (1879).

Body, HUMAN, will be treated of under the names of the several organs and functions, a list of which is given at ANATOMY.

Body-cavity, the space inclosed by the body-walls of an animal, and inclosing the gut and other organs. It acquires special names in different regions. In some cases, such as flat-worms, such a cavity is not present, either through non-development or in consequence of degeneration. In the Coelenterata (hydra, jelly-fish, sea-anemone) the body-cavity is not yet distinct from the alimentary system. The origin of the body-cavity is a very difficult problem which is not yet by any means satisfactorily solved. The brothers Hertwig have (1881) sought to distinguish two main ways in which the body-cavity arises—(a) from (coelomic or mesodermic) pouches growing out from the primitive gut, and gradually inclosing it (*Enterocæla*), or (b) from a splitting in a solid middle layer or mesoderm, which does not arise as pouches from the gut, but appears in the form of indifferent cells budded in between the two primitive germinal layers. The latter set includes Molluscs, Polyzoa, Rotifers, and flat-worms, the cavity being undeveloped in the latter. The former set includes all the other classes. This view cannot be said, however, to be generally accepted.

Body Colour, a term applied to such pigments as have body enough to be opaque, as distinguished from those which are transparent. As a general rule, pigments have more body the nearer they approach to white; consequently the light parts of pictures in oil are in body colour to give them brightness and strength, while the dark parts are transparent to give them depth. Water-colour painting, when executed by mixing the pigments with water after the manner of an oil-painting, is said to be painted in body colour.

Body's Island, a long, narrow strip of sand, off North Carolina, with a lighthouse (150 feet), the highest in the United States.

Boece (or, more properly, **BOYIS**), **HECTOR**, a distinguished Scottish historian, was born of an old family about 1465 at Dundee. He completed his education at Montaign College, in the university of Paris, where from about 1492 to 1498 he was a regent or professor of Philosophy. Among other learned men whose friendship he acquired here was Erasmus. About the beginning of the 16th century he was invited by Bishop Elphinstone to preside over the university newly founded by him at Aberdeen. Boece accepted the office after some natural hesitation, the yearly salary being but 40 merks, or about £2, 4s. 6d. sterling. The value of money, however, it has to be remembered, was immensely greater then than now, and the learned principal was at the same time made a canon of the cathedral, and chaplain of St Ninians. During his tenure of office the university was highly prosperous and produced many excellent scholars. In 1522 he published his *lives*, in Latin, of the Bishops of Mortheuch and Aberdeen. This work, a great part of which is occupied with the life of his excellent patron, Bishop Elphinstone, was reprinted by the Bannatyne Club in 1825. In 1527 Boece published the *Latin History of Scotland*, on which his fame chiefly rests, a work which, though proved to contain a large amount of fiction, was deemed distinctly critical at the time of its publication. The author was rewarded by the king with a pension of £50 Scots, until he should be promoted to a benefice of 100 merks, which appears to have occurred in 1534. By the excellence of his Latin style, and his sympathy with Erasmus, Boece may fairly be counted a humanist. He died in 1536, and was buried in the chapel of King's College. See **BELLENDEN, JOHN**.

Boeckh, **PHILIPP AUGUST**, classical antiquary, was born at Karlsruhe, November 24, 1785, and entered the university of Halle in 1803. The prelections of Wolf determined him to the science of philology, of which, in 1809, he became professor at the university of Heidelberg. In 1811 he was translated to the chair of Rhetoric and Ancient Literature at Berlin, where he lectured for upwards of forty years, and where he died, August 3, 1867. Boeckh's conception of philology as an organically constructed whole aimed at nothing short of an intellectual reproduction of antiquity, and consequently excited for a long time great opposition among his professional contemporaries, but it undoubtedly gave an impetus to a deeper study of the old classical world. His lectures include not merely a grammatico-historical interpretation of the ancient authors, but also archaeology proper, the history of ancient literature, philosophy, politics, religion, and social life. His four great works, which have in fact opened up new paths in the study of antiquity, are (1) his edition of Pindar (2 vols. 1811-21), in which the metre and rhythm of the poet, as well as his artistic skill, are investigated and discussed with profound knowledge of the subject; (2) *Die Staatshaushaltung der Athener* (2 vols. 1817; 3d ed. by Frankel, 1887), a work which remains unsurpassed for subtle research, surprising results, and clear exposition: it was translated into English by Sir George Cornewall Lewis under the title of *The Public Economy of Athens* (1828); (3) *Metrolologische Untersuchungen über Gewichte, Münzfusse, und Masse des Altertums* (1838); (4) *Urkunden über das Seewesen des Attischen Staats* (1840). His lesser works are all valuable, and besides investigations in ancient chronology, editions of the *Antigone* of Sophocles (1843), and of the fragments ascribed to Philolaus (1819), and dissertations on Plato's comical system, include lectures and critiques collected under the title *Gesammelte kleine Schriften* (7 vols. 1858-74). Boeckh has also the honour of having commenced in

1824 the great work entitled *Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum*, published at the expense of the Royal Academy of Berlin, which was continued by Franz, Kirchhoff, Curtius, and Rühl.

Boehm, **JOSEPH EDGAR**, sculptor, was born in Vienna, July 6, 1834. He was educated from 1848-51 in England, and finally settled there in 1862. He had previously gained the first imperial prize in Vienna in 1856, and his work soon attracted notice in the country of his adoption. In 1867 he executed a colossal statue of the Queen, and he has since received commissions for statues or busts of a large number of distinguished personages. Of the seated statue of Thomas Carlyle, enthusiastically praised by Mr Ruskin in his *Royal Academy Notes*, 1875, a replica was erected at Chelsea. His animal studies are also noteworthy. Boehm was elected a member of the Academy of Florence in 1875, an A.R.A. in 1878, and a member of the Academy of Rome in 1880. He was nominated in 1881 sculptor-in-ordinary to the Queen, and was made an R.A. in the following year. The Queen's effigy on the coinage issued in 1887 was from his designs.

Boehme, **JAKOB**, a German theosophist and mystic, was born of poor parents at Altseidenberg, near Görlitz, in Upper Lusatia, 1575, and spent his boyhood in tending cattle. He received no instruction till he was ten years of age; but even then, the contemplation of earth and sky had so excited his naturally pious imagination, that he conceived himself inspired. He learned the trade of a shoemaker, and industriously followed that calling for most of his life, but continued to devote much of his time to meditation on divine things. About 1612 was published his first book, called *Aurora*. It contains revelations and meditations upon God, Man, and Nature; betokens a remarkable knowledge of Scripture, especially of the apocalyptic books; as also a familiarity with the writings of the mystico-philosophic alchemists, from whom he largely obtained his phraseology. It was condemned by the ecclesiastical authorities of Görlitz; but the persecutions to which its author was subjected had not the effect of convincing him of his errors. The chief aim of Boehme is to explain the origin of things, especially the existence of evil, and this he does by a mystical process of thought expressed in material symbols, which it is not easy to summarise.

God is the *Ungrund* or *Urgrund*, the original and undistinguished unity, at once everything and nothing, which, however, has in itself the principle of separation, whereby all things come into existence. It is through the principle of negation, which in a way is identified with evil, that creation is explained. His philosophy, in fact, is an application of the principle of contradiction to explain the great problems of philosophy and religion; but the difficulties are only concealed or shifted about under a cloud of mystical language, in which a system of triads, suggested by the Christian doctrine of the trinity, have an important place. In Boehme we have an obscure presentation of the thesis, antithesis, and synthesis, which have such a large application in the philosophy of Hegel. Numerous attacks from theologians disturbed Boehme's last years, but he bore them all with great meekness. So great was the interest excited, that he was induced by the solicitations of certain courtiers and of his friends to visit Dresden for the purpose of having his doctrines investigated. The court applauded and protected him. On returning to Görlitz, he fell ill, and died in 1624. The first collection of his writings was published by Betke (Amsterdam, 1675); the most complete in 1730, at the same place; and the latest (1831-46) by Schiebler, at

Leipzig. Next to Germany, Holland and England are the countries in which Boehme's works have been received with most favour. In England, where Boehme was generally called Behmen, all his works were translated between 1644 and 1662 (new ed. 1764). Sir Isaac Newton studied him; William Law of Oxford might be called a disciple; in 1697, Jane Leade, a fanatical disciple of Boehme, founded a sect, called the Philadelphists, for the exposition of his writings; and John Pordage, a physician, is also famed among his English interpreters. Abraham von Frankenberg, who died in 1652, published the earliest biography of Boehme. In modern times, and in connection with speculative philosophy in Germany, his views, which had come to be regarded as empty mysticism, have acquired fresh interest and importance. This arises from the kindred character of his fundamental principle with the spirit pervading the systems of Spinoza, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel. See the works on Boehme and his philosophy by Hanberger (1844), Fechner (1857), Peip (1860), Harless (1870), and Martensen (Eng. trans. from Danish, 1885).

Boehmeria, a genus of Urticaceæ (q.v.), of which two species, or rather what were formerly considered as two distinct species, have been from a remote period cultivated in the East. The Indian variety was called by Roxburgh *Urtica tenacissima*, and the Chinese one *Boehmeria nivea* by Gaudichaud.



Boehmeria nivea :

a, male flower; b, glomerule of female flowers; c, single female flower; d, pericarp.

They are now distinguished as varieties, the one being called *B. nivea* and the other *B. nivea*, var. *candicans*. There are said to be other doubtful species. The fibre from *Boehmeria* has long been used in eastern countries for ropes and for cordage, and also for cloth in China and in Japan. This fibre is known in commerce as Rhea, as Ramie, or as China grass, and if the most recent views of botanists as to the identity of several locally distinguished species of this plant which yields it be correct, it has a very wide range, being found in several parts of India, China, Japan, and the Eastern Archipelago generally. It has been successfully introduced into a number of foreign countries, including the Cape, Mauritius, Algeria, and the south of France; in America, California, Louisiana, and some of the West Indian Islands. It may be propagated by cuttings, which can be readily grown, by roots, or by suckers, and it thrives best in moist shady places in the tropics.

Rhea fibre of commerce, which is composed of the bast-fibres on the inner side of the bark of the plant, is difficult to separate in a state suitable for the manufacturer except by a somewhat costly process. Twice over, first in 1869 and again in 1877, the Indian government offered, besides smaller prizes, sums of £5000 for a machine which would

prepare it economically, but with no satisfactory result.

In some respects rhea is the most remarkable of all known vegetable fibres. For fineness, strength, and lustre combined it exceeds any of them. It can be spun at least as fine as flax, is stronger, and has a more silky lustre. Jute has also this lustre, but it has neither the strength of rhea, nor its capability for bleaching and dyeing. Rhea has the additional advantage of being liker wool in its nature than other plant-fibres, and it can be used as a substitute for long-stapled wool. The knowledge of these valuable properties has, for twenty years past, stimulated an almost ceaseless activity among ingenious persons interested in textile manufactures, in order to discover some process by which the fibre could be prepared at a price that would make its extensive use remunerative.

The *pylla* fibre of the Himalayas is derived from *B. Puga*.

Boeotia, one of the ancient political divisions of Greece, extended between Attica and Megara on the south, and Locris and Phocis on the north, with an area estimated at 1120 sq. m., or a little larger than Cheshire. The mountain-closed country falls naturally into five divisions: the basin of the Lake Copais, now called *Topolius*, that of the Asopus, the plain of Thebes, and the coast districts on the Eubæan and the Corinthian Gulf. The principal stream was anciently called the Cephissus; which in the spring, when swollen by the rains, almost converted the Copais plain into a lake. There were several subterranean channels for the outlet of the waters towards the Eubæan Sea, but they were not sufficient to carry them off; and in the days of Alexander the Great a vast tunnel was cut in the rock for the discharge of the water. After this fell into ruin, the district became marshy and unwholesome; and it was not till 1886 that it was once more properly drained. The draining operations, carried on for five years by a French company, and not then quite finished, were expected to draw off two thirds of the water of Lake Copais, and render available sixty thousand acres of arable and fertile soil. Boeotia has always been fertile. Of the earliest inhabitants, the most powerful were the Minyæ, who were dislodged by the Boeotians, an Æolian people from Thessaly. The Boeotians excelled as cultivators of the soil, and were brave soldiers both on foot and horseback; but they were rude and unsocial, and took little part in the gradual refinement of manners and intellectual development of the rest of Greece, so that the name became proverbial for illiterate dullness. This was usually ascribed to their thick damp atmosphere. Yet their generals include Epaminondas; and among their poets and historians were Hesiod, Pindar, and Ptolearch. The fourteen greater cities formed the Boeotian League, with Thebes at its head. Of this league, a shadow still remained down to the times of the Roman empire. See PLATEA, and THEBES. — Along with Attica, Boeotia now forms a province of the kingdom of Greece, with an area of 2425 sq. m., and a pop. (1879) of 185,364.

Boerhaave, HERMANN, the most celebrated physician of the 18th century, was born at Voorhout, near Leyden, December 31, 1668. In 1682 he went to Leyden, where he studied theology and oriental languages, and took his degree in philosophy in 1689. In 1690 he began the study of medicine, and took his doctor's degree in 1693. In 1701 he was appointed lecturer on the Theory of Medicine at Leyden, and in his inaugural lecture recommended to the students the ancient method of Hippocrates in medicine; but in 1703 his views had become greatly enlarged. In 1709 he was

elected professor of Medicine and Botany. About this time he published the two works on which his great fame chiefly rests, *Institutiones Medicæ* (1708), and *Aphorismi de Cognoscendis et Curandis Morbis* (1709), both of which were translated into various European languages, and even into Arabic. In the first work—a model of comprehensive and methodical learning—he gives a complete outline of the theory of medicine; in the second, a classification of diseases with their causes and modes of treatment. Boerhaave also rendered important services to botany. His best lectures include those delivered on his resignation of the office of rector of the university, *De Comparando Certo in Physicis* (1714), and *De Honore Medici, Servitute* (1736); in the latter of which he declares that to be the servant of nature is the highest aim of medicine. To combine practice with theory, he caused a hospital to be opened, where he gave clinical instructions to his pupils. Though so industrious in his own profession, he undertook in 1718 the professorship of Chemistry, and published in 1724 his *Elementa Chæmiæ*, a work which did much to render this science clear and intelligible, and one that will always occupy a high place in the history of chemistry. His fame had meanwhile rapidly increased. Patients from all parts of Europe came to consult him. Peter the Great of Russia visited him; and it is even said that a Chinese mandarin sent him a letter, addressed 'BOERHAAVE, celebrated physician, Europe.' His character was amiable and unassuming, and tinged with a deep but cheerful piety. He died September 23, 1738, having realised from his profession a fortune of two millions of florins. See Burton, *Account of the Life and Writings of Boerhaave* (2 vols. Lond. 1743); Johnson, *Life of Boerhaave* (Lond. 1834).

Boerhaavia. See NYCTAGINACEÆ.

Boers (Dutch, 'agriculturists,' 'farmers'), the name applied to the Dutch colonists of South Africa who are engaged in agriculture and the care of cattle. The first settlement of the Boers at the Cape of Good Hope dates from the 16th century, and they have since been reinforced by Huguenots from France, but they retain in a pronounced form the old Dutch character, especially the old Dutch love of freedom. After the final cession of the Cape to England in 1814 they disliked the new government, especially its friendly policy to the natives and the emancipation of the slaves in 1833. Accordingly, in 1835, bands of them 'trekked' northwards. In this way they occupied Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal, seizing the lands of the natives as pasture-ground, and reducing them to a form of servitude. Some of the Boers who trekked from the Transvaal during English rule in 1874, settled in Portuguese territory. The Boers are the republican landholders of South Africa; by no means scrupulous and humane in their dealings with the natives; but remarkable for courage, love of freedom, sobriety and industry, of strong and well-developed physique, good horsemen and splendid marksmen. See G. M. Theal's *History of the Boers in Southern Africa* (1887); also the articles NATAL, ORANGE FREE STATE, and TRANSVAAL.

Boëtius (less correctly, BOETHIUS), ANICIUS MANLIUS SEVERINUS, a Roman statesman and philosopher, was born between 470 and 475 A.D. of a rich and illustrious family. His father had held the office of consul, but died while Boëtius was still a boy. Brought up under the care of men of rank, he studied with enthusiasm philosophy, mathematics, and poetry, translating and elucidating with laborious care the writings of Aristotle, Euclid, Archimedes, Nicomachus, and others. His talents soon attracted notice, and

having gained the esteem and confidence of Theodoric, king of the Goths, who had fixed the seat of his government at Rome in the year 500, he was appointed by that monarch *magister officiorum* in his court. His influence was invariably exercised for the good of Italy, and his countrymen owed it to him that the Gothic rule was so little oppressive. Boëtius was made consul in 510, and his good-fortune culminated in the prosperity of his two sons, who shared the same honour in 522. But his bold uprightness of conduct, springing apparently from his strong faith in the truth of his philosophic ethics, at last brought down upon his head the unscrupulous vengeance of those whom he had checked in their oppressions, and provoked by his virtues. He was accused of treasonable designs against Theodoric; and the king, having become despondent and mistrustful in his old age, was induced to listen to the charges. Boëtius was stripped of his dignities, his property was confiscated, and he himself, after having been imprisoned for some time at Pavia, was executed in 525; according to long subsequent accounts, with circumstances of horrible cruelty. During his imprisonment he wrote his famous *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*, in which the author holds a conversation with Philosophy, who shows him the mutability of all earthly fortune, and the insecurity of everything save virtue. The work is composed in a style which happily imitates the best models of the Augustan age, and the frequent fragments of poetry which are interspersed throughout the dialogue are distinguished by their truthfulness of feeling and metrical accuracy. The *Consolatio* is piously *theistic* in its language, but affords no indication that its writer was a Christian; and if the doctrinal treatises ascribed to him are, as the acutest criticism maintains, not genuine, we must class him in religion rather with Marcus Aurelius than with his alleged friend, St Benedict. Boëtius was the last Roman writer of any mark who understood the Greek language and literature. During the middle ages his translations formed to a large extent the medium by which men became acquainted with Aristotle; and his manuals on arithmetic, astronomy, geometry, and music were generally used in the schools. An edition of the entire works of Boëtius was published at Basel in 1570. There is a recent edition of the *Consolatio* by Peiper (Leip. 1871). Of this work many manuscript translations into various languages appeared long before the invention of printing. Among these may be mentioned that by King Alfred into Anglo-Saxon (ed. by Fox, 1864). Chaucer's version in English prose was published by Caxton in 1480.

Bog, land covered with peat, the spongy texture of which containing water, converts it into a kind of quagmire. The term Peat-bog, Peat-moss, or Moss is sometimes employed as distinguishing the true bog from every other kind of swamp or morass. Bogs of great extent exist in some of the northern parts of the world. A very considerable part of the surface of Ireland is occupied with them. The Bog of Allen (see ALLEN, BOG OF) is the most extensive in the British Islands. The Solway Moss (q.v.), on the western border of England and Scotland, is about 7 miles in circumference. Chatmoss (q.v.) in Lancashire is 10 sq. m. in extent. There are large bogs in some of the Hebrides and the Orkneys. The swamps of the east of England are in general not peat-bogs, but consist chiefly of soft mud or silt.

The general surface of a bog is always nearly level, but it is usually varied with rusky tussocks rising above the rest, and having a rather firmer soil. By the continued growth of peat, the surface of a bog is gradually elevated; that of Chatmoss,

for example, rises above the level of the surrounding country, having a gradual slope of 30 or 40 feet from the centre to the solid land on all sides. In rainy weather it sensibly swells, the spongy mass imbibing water, whilst the mosses and other growing plants on the surface prevent evaporation. Occasionally, the quantity of water becoming excessive, a bog *bursts*, and pours a terrible deluge down the course of a stream, causing great devastation, not only by the force of its torrent, but by the enormous quantities of peat which it deposits upon meadows and cultivated fields, as has happened in some memorable instances in Ireland. The depth of a bog is sometimes more than 40 feet. The spongy mass of which it is formed shakes on the least pressure. Sometimes it is impossible to traverse it; in other cases, it is possible only for those who are well accustomed to it, a false step being a plunge into a quagmire, in which a man sinks as in a quicksand. Safety is sometimes insured by 'pattens' boards fastened upon the soles of the feet—a method which has been also employed to enable horses to work upon the surface. Tradition reports that at the battle of Solway in 1542, a fugitive troop of horse plunged into the moss, which instantly closed upon them.

One of the remarkable phenomena of peat-bogs is the frequent presence of roots and fallen trunks of trees, in a good state of preservation, many feet below the surface (see BOG-OAK ORNAMENTS), and this frequently where no trees exist on the surface now. Hence it is inferred that in many instances these morasses originated in the decay or partial destruction of ancient forests (see the article PEAT). Bogs are popularly divided into two classes—*Red Bogs* and *Black Bogs*; the decomposition of the vegetable matter in the former being less perfect, and the substance, consequently, more fibrous and light than in the latter. There is indeed no precise line of distinction, and all intermediate conditions occur. The most extensive and deepest bogs are the red bogs; black bogs are more numerous. See BOG-PLANTS.

There can be no doubt that much of the land now occupied by bog is capable of being rendered very productive, whilst the effects of extensive bogs upon the climate are always injurious. The reclaiming of shallow mountain bogs is comparatively easy, and in some cases it is effected by a very simple and inexpensive drainage, and by throwing them at once under cultivation in a manner analogous to that known in Ireland as the *lazy-bed* method of planting potatoes—the soil upon which the bog rests being partially dugged up and thrown over its surface. Great difficulties, however, attend the reclaiming of red bogs; the chief being in some cases caused by the low situation of the bog, and the want of *fall* for drainage. Another serious obstacle is presented by the spongy substance of red bogs being extremely retentive of water, so that a deep ditch only drains a very narrow strip on either side of it. Drainage is certainly effective only when the drains are cut through the peat into the underlying soil, and this operation is often too costly. Where a good soil is known to exist below, the peat is sometimes removed bodily; thus it has been floated off, as in the long-continued operations at Blair-Drummond, on the banks of the Forth. A portion of the peat taken from the upper surface is not infrequently burned in heaps upon the spot, the ashes becoming a manure, and assisting in the formation of a soil.

Of course, the first essential in the reclaiming of bogs is drainage. The method of effecting this must be varied according to circumstances; but very frequently, after a general outlet with sufficient fall has been secured, wide open drains are cut, by which the bog is divided into strips,

which again are traversed and subdivided by smaller drains. When these drains begin to serve their purpose, the surface of the bog sinks, and their depth is reduced; they are then often deepened, and at last a permanent system of covered drains emptying themselves into open ditches is thus formed, and fits the land for all the purposes of agriculture. It is, however, often ploughed before this state of things is attained. Lime, calcareous sand, clay, and other manures are applied, according to circumstances, to promote the conversion of the peat into useful soil. Sometimes the first crop taken from the ploughed bog is a crop of oats; sometimes it is found preferable to begin with rape, turnip, or the like. In some places in the north of Ireland florin grass (see BENT-GRASS) has been sown on bogs in process of being reclaimed, and enormous crops have been obtained. See WASTE LANDS.

Bogardus, JAMES, American inventor, born in Catskill, New York, 14th March 1800, was apprenticed to a watchmaker, and early showed the bent of his mind by improvements in the construction of eight-day clocks, and by the invention of a delicate engraving-machine. The dry gas-meter is his invention, as is also the transfer-machine to produce bank-note plates from separate dies; and in 1839 his plan for manufacturing postage-stamps was accepted by the British government. Later he introduced improvements in the manufacture of india-rubber goods, tools, and machinery; and invented a pyrometer, a deep-sea sounding-machine, and a dynamometer. He died at New York, 13th April 1874.

Bog Asphodel (*Narthecium ossifragum*), a pretty liliaceous herb, with a characteristic raceme of small golden-yellow star-like flowers, common in early autumn on boggy mountain-sides in northern temperate regions.

Bogatzky, KARL HEINRICH VON, a German devotional writer, was born at Jankowe in Lower Silesia, 7th September 1690. Coming under the influence of Francke, the pietist, he studied theology at Halle from 1715 to 1718. He was a long time in the service of various noble houses of Silesia, and afterwards lived some years at the Silesian village of Glancha, engaged in the organisation of an orphanage there. In 1740 he was received into the family of the Duke of Sachsen-Saalfeld, and on the duke's death he removed to Halle in 1746, where he spent the rest of his life in writing books of devotion, and died 15th June 1774. His chief work is *Das goldene Schatzkästlein der Kinder Gottes*, which in 1876 had reached its 53d edition, and is well known in English translations as Bogatzky's *Golden Treasury*. He wrote also many popular hymns, which were collected in 1749 (3d ed., with 411 added, 1771). A new edition of his autobiography appeared in 1872.

Bog Butter (BUTYRITE or BUTYRELITE of mineralogists), a very peculiar mineral substance, which is found in some of the bogs of Ireland. It is evidently of vegetable origin, and has been formed by the decomposition of the peat amidst which it is found. In composition and qualities it exhibits a general agreement with bitumen, asphalt, amber, and the other mineral resins; all of which are not improbably supposed to resemble it also in their origin, although perhaps it is the most recent of them all. It contains about 74 per cent. of carbon; its remaining constituents being oxygen and hydrogen in nearly equal proportions. In colour and consistency it much resembles butter, and at 124° F. it becomes liquid. It is not soluble in water, but is readily soluble in alcohol or ether.

Bogdanovich, IPOLYT FEDOROVICH, a Russian poet, born in 1743, became president of the

imperial archives in 1788, and died near Kursk in 1803. The mock-heroic *Dushenka* (1778), the best of his poems, is based on the story of Psyche, and is characterised by a refined and graceful style, and vivacious playfulness of language. His works were collected in 6 vols. (1810).

Bogermann, JOHANN, the president of the famous Synod of Dort, was born in 1576, at the Frisian village of Oplewert. After studying at Heidelberg and Geneva, he became pastor at Lecwarden, and soon distinguished himself by the active part he took in the hot religious controversies of his time, especially that against Arminius. In 1618 he was elected president of the Synod of Dort; but his name is now remembered only for the translation of the Bible into the vernacular, mainly by him, which soon became the standard Dutch version. He died in 1633, at Franeker, where he was primarius professor of Divinity.

Boghaz-Keui (ancient *Pteria*), a village of Asia Minor, in the province of Angora, 150 miles S. of Sinope. In its vicinity are remains of a vast temple, described in Van Lennep's *Travels in Asia Minor* (1870). The remarkable bas-reliefs here have been recognised by Professor Sayce as of Hittite origin.

Boghead Coal (TORBANITE or BITUMENITE), a seam met with in the Carboniferous system in the lands of Torbanehill, Bathgate, Scotland. It occurs in a regularly stratified manner, and is closely related to cannel coal. It is very rich in volatile hydrocarbons, yielding as much as 120 gallons of crude oil per ton, and has been largely used for the production of paraffin and its products. It is not properly a *coal*, but rather a *bituminous clay or shale*.

Bog Iron-ore, a mineral of very variable composition, but regarded as consisting essentially of peroxide of iron and water; the peroxide of iron often amounts to about 60 per cent., the water to about 20. Phosphoric acid is usually present in quantities varying from 2 to 11 per cent. Silicic acid, alumina, oxide of manganese, and other substances, which seem accidentally present, make up the rest. Bog iron-ore occurs chiefly in alluvial soils, in bogs, meadows, lakes, &c. It is of a brown, yellowish-brown, or blackish-brown colour. Some of its varieties are earthy and friable, formed of dull dusty particles; some are in masses of an earthy fracture, often vesicular; and some more compact, with conchoidal fracture. It is abundant in some of the northern and western islands of Scotland, and in the northern countries of Europe generally; also in North America. When smelted it yields good iron (see IRON, ORES OF). Bog iron-ore owes its origin to the chemical action of organic acids arising from the decomposition of plants. These acids attack and dissolve the salts of iron which they meet with in the rocks and soils. The solutions thus formed, when they are exposed to the air, become oxidised, and iron is thus precipitated in the form of hydrous ferric oxide, which, along with the various impurities mentioned above, forms bog iron-ore. This mineral occurs frequently in boggy or badly-drained land, forming the hard ferruginous crust known in Scotland as 'moorland-pan.' Considerable accumulations of bog iron-ore or lake-ore occur in the bottoms of lakes in Sweden and Norway, forming with comparative rapidity on the shallower slopes where reeds grow more or less abundantly. According to Ehrenberg, the bog iron-ore in the marshes about Berlin owes its origin largely to diatoms, which separate iron from the water and deposit it as hydrous ferric oxide within their siliceous frustules.

Bog Moss. See SPIAGNUM.

Bog Myrtle, GALE, or SWEET GALE (*Myrica Gale*), an aromatic and resinous shrub, with small

lanceolate and serrate gland-dotted leaves, the only genus of the amnataceous sub-order Myricaceae. It covers large areas of bog and of wet moorland in northern regions, and was formerly put to many domestic uses. Its twigs were used to make beds, and to keep away moths and other insects, while its shoots and leaves served as a substitute for hops, its leaves were mixed with tobacco, and wax was obtained from its berries. See CANDLEBERRY.



Bog Myrtle:
a, male catkin; b, female catkin.

Bognor, a Sussex watering-place, 9½ miles SE. of Chichester by rail. Founded in 1786 by a London hatter, Sir R. Hotham, it has an iron pier (1865) 1000 feet long, and a good esplanade, restored since the great storm of 1876. Pop. (1861) 2523; (1881) 3289. For the Bognor beds, see LONDON CLAY.

Bog-oak Ornaments. In the peat bogs of Great Britain, Ireland, and other northern countries, trunks of oak, yew, fir, and other woods, which have been long buried, are often found of a dark colour and well preserved, owing to the antiseptic properties of the peaty water. Black oak so found is very suitable for turning and carving. In Dublin a considerable trade is carried on in bog-oak jewelry and other ornaments. The articles made are small models of Irish buildings, Paddy and his pig, brooches, necklaces, fans, crosses, and other trinkets. Upon some of these the harp and the shamrock are frequent adornments. Some patterns of the kind that used to be carved are now stamped by a heated die placed in a screw-press. Recent oak and other woods, stained black artificially, are much substituted for true bog-oak in these articles. The trade originated on the occasion of George IV.'s visit to Ireland in 1821. The annual value of the goods sold in Dublin has been estimated at fully £20,000, but the manufacture is capable of considerable development, if more attention were paid to the designs, which at present are often very inartistic.

Bogodukhof, a town of Russia, on the Mera, 43 miles NW. of Kharkoff. It has a cathedral, and an important leather industry. Pop. (1885) 10,904.

Bogomil'i (Slav., 'lovers of God'), a religious sect which arose in the 12th century within the Greek Church in Thrace and Bulgaria. Their theology was dualistic, and resembled that of the Paulicians and Cathari. Out of the eternal Divine Essence or Being sprang two principles—Satanal and Logos; the former, at first good, afterwards rebelled, and created in opposition to the original spiritual universe a world of matter and human beings. These human beings, however, received from the Supreme Father a life-spirit; but this was kept in slavery by Satanal until the Logos or

Christ came down from heaven, and assuming a phantom body, broke the power of the evil spirit, who was henceforth called only Satan. The Bogomili practised a severe asceticism, despised images, and rejected the sacraments. They accepted the whole of the New Testament, but of the Old Testament only the Psalms and Prophets, which they interpreted allegorically. In 1118, that vehement hater of heretics, Alexius Comnenus, burned their leader Basilus. Persecution, however, did not put an end to the Bogomili, and to the time of the Mohammedan conquest of Bosnia (16th century), we find that the greatest number of the renegade Christians who embraced the religion of the conquerors belonged to this sect. See Gaster's *Greeko-Slavonic Literature* (1887); Heard's *The Russian Church and Russian Dissent* (1887).

Bogotá. under Spanish rule SANTA FÉ DE BOGOTÁ, in South America, the federal capital of the United States of Colombia. It is situated within the limits of the province of Cundinamarca, on a tableland which, at an elevation of 8694 feet above the sea, separates the basin of the Magdalena from that of the Orinoco. The tableland has an area of about 400 sq. m., and is bounded on all sides by mountains which, though lofty enough to give shelter, are yet below the line of perpetual snow. This extensive plain, a temperate zone on the verge of the equator, with a salubrious climate and an average temperature of 60° F. is exceedingly fertile, being as rich in pasture as in grain. The greater number of its people, however, are sunk in poverty. This is largely due to the heavy cost and difficulty of transport, which hamper all industries. Bogotá is 65 miles from its port, Honda, the head of navigation on the Magdalena; and from this point, although a railway has been projected, at present goods must be conveyed over the mountains in packages of not more than 125 lb. The transport of heavy machinery is thus impossible. The few manufactures of the place include soap, leather, cloth, and articles made from the precious metals. Bogotá was founded in 1538, and in 1598 became the capital of the Spanish viceroyalty of New Granada; since 1554 it has been the seat of an archbishop. In 1800 it contained 21,464 inhabitants, and in 1821, 30,000; in 1887 its population was officially estimated at 100,000. Prospectively, the surrounding mountains promise one day to give to industry many valuable minerals, such as iron, coal, and salt. The last two, in fact, have already been obtained to some extent. Mines of emeralds, gold, silver, and copper are also said to exist within the same district. The town is regularly and handsomely built, although most of the houses have but one story, and little glass, owing to the prevalence of earthquakes. The streets are at right angles, and paved and lit, but not over clean. Bogotá teems with churches, its cathedral being famous for a statue of the Virgin, which is covered with costly jewels; its convents were suppressed in 1861. It likewise possesses, in addition to the capitol (still unfinished in 1887) and other official buildings, a mint, a university with six faculties, a number of schools, a free library, observatory, two theatres, and museums; and, supporting about forty journals, the city has been proudly named by its inhabitants the 'Athens of South America.' The river Bogotá, otherwise called the Fucha, is in itself an object of physical interest. It is the single outlet of the waters of the tableland, which, both from geological features and from aboriginal traditions, appears to have once been a land-locked basin, somewhat like the still loftier and larger plateau of Titicaca. Be this as it may, the river has found, if it has not forced, a passage for itself towards the Magdalena. At the cataract of Tequendama the waters plunge

over a precipice 700 feet high, their force having hollowed out a well 130 feet deep in the rock below; and the clouds of spray clothe the adjacent ground in the most luxuriant vegetation. Some miles from the fall stands the natural bridge of Icononzo, formed as if by the fortuitous jamming of rocks from the opposite sides of the cleft; and the plateau also contains a lake, Guatavita, into which the natives are said to have thrown their treasures when conquered by the Spaniards.

Bog-plants. The extensive areas, especially in the colder regions of the northern hemisphere, which are covered by bogs and marshes, have a highly characteristic flora which is distinct from the fully Aquatic Plants (q.v.) on the one hand, and from the ordinary terrestrial flora on the other. The most important and widely distributed of bog-plants are the bog-mosses (*Sphagnum*), of which the steady upward growth has formed the bulk of our peat-mosses; but higher cryptogamic plants also occur, notably the horsetails (*Equisetum*), and occasionally also rarer forms like *Ptilularia* and *Marsilea*. Many sedges and rushes, reeds and grasses, are also highly characteristic, most of all perhaps the curious cotton-grass (*Eriophorum*), while heaths constantly struggle for possession of the drier and denser spots. The Bog-myrtle, q.v. (*Myrica Gale*) often overspreads vast areas with its low, scanty brushwood, above which rise only occasional tufts of willow, or at most here and there an alder. The insectivorous plants are perhaps the most characteristic minor denizens, sundews (*Drosera*) and butterworts (*Pinguicula*) being thickly strewn, while the rarer blossoms of the bladderwort (*Utricularia*) rise golden from their stagnant pools. The margins of these are fringed by the beautiful bog-bean (*Menyanthes*) and the smaller and less spreading forget-me-nots (*Myosotis*), or in spring are gay with marsh-marigolds (*Caltha*) and ranunculuses; while the brown blossoms of the marsh-potentilla (*P. Comarum*), the purplish-pink louseworts (*Pedicularis*), and the curious yellow-rattle (*Rhinanthus*) make their appearance later in summer.

The progress of agriculture completely destroys this flora, hardly a single bog-plant, save the versatile *Polygonum amphibium*, being able to survive thorough drainage. Many beautiful bog-plants can, however, be easily cultivated where a supply of standing water renders possible an artificial re-establishment of their natural conditions, or at anyrate, the continual soaking of their garden border, which should, of course, contain a large proportion of peat. For the geological agency of bog-plants, see PEAT.

Bog Spavin. This singular name has been applied to a lesion of the hock-joint of the horse, consisting in distension of the capsule inclosing the joint. Usually arising suddenly from a sprain in action, it most commonly affects young horses with defective hocks, and is associated with other indications of weakness in the injured joint. As the immediate result of a violent sprain, the hock becomes swollen, hot, and tender, and there is considerable lameness. The acute symptoms subside readily, but a circumscribed swelling remains towards the front, inner, and lower part of the joint. The swelling is firm and tense, and partly disappears during exercise, to again reappear after rest. At every recurring strain, lameness supervenes, but commonly passes off within a short time. If the bog spavin has accidentally occurred in a young horse with good hocks, it may after disappearance of the acute symptoms never again be attended with inconvenience. The treatment of bog spavin consists in the application of a high-heeled shoe, without a toe-piece, to the foot;

the administration of a purge, soft diet, and rest, and the application of fomentations and mild stimulations to the part, succeeded after a few days by blisters, and perhaps, in cases of persistent lameness, both firing and blistering. We can, however, only obtain a reduction in the inflammatory symptoms and disappearance of the lameness, but hardly ever a disappearance of the swelling. See SPAVIN.

Bogue, DAVID, one of the founders of the London Missionary Society, was in 1750 born in Coldingham parish, Berwickshire. He studied at Edinburgh, and was licensed to preach by the Church of Scotland, but went to London to teach in 1771. He afterwards became minister of an Independent chapel at Gosport, and here he also took a tutorship in a seminary for Independent students of theology. This became a great school of missionaries, and out of it grew the scheme for foreign missions realised in the London Missionary Society. Bogue also took an active part in the establishment of the British and Foreign Bible Society and the Religious Tract Society. He was on the point of going as a missionary to India in 1796, when the East India Company refused to sanction the scheme. Bogue died at Brighton, October 25, 1825. He published numerous books, including an *Essay on the Divine Authority of the New Testament*. In conjunction with Dr James Bennet, he wrote a *History of Dissenters* (3 vols. 1809), of great value, though somewhat impaired by partisan prejudices.

Boguslav, a town of Russia, 70 miles SSE. of Kieff. Pop. 9030.

Bohemia (Ger. *Böhmen*), formerly one of the kingdoms of Europe, now forms the most northern province of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, touching Saxony and Prussian Silesia, Moravia, Upper and Lower Austria, and Bavaria. It has an area of 19,980 sq. m., or about two-thirds that of Scotland; pop. (1869) 5,140,544; (1880) 5,560,819; (1885) 5,697,883. It contains nearly 400 cities, of which the most important are Prague, the capital of the kingdom, and third city of the empire, with 177,026 inhabitants; Pilsen (38,883); Reichenberg (28,090); Budweis (23,845); Leitmeritz (10,854); and Rumburg (10,142). The country is surrounded on all sides by lofty mountain-ranges, the principal of which are the Riesengebirge (part of the Sudetic chain) on the north-east, dividing Bohemia from Silesia, and attaining, in the peak of the Schneekoppe, a height of 5330 feet; on the north-west, the Erzgebirge, attaining a height of more than 4000 feet; on the south-west, the Böhmerwald, reaching 4783 feet. Offsets from these traverse the interior of the country, which has an undulating surface, sloping generally to the north. The country belongs to the upper basin of the Elbe, which rises in the Riesengebirge range; and it is well watered by the affluents of that river. The chief of these are the Moldau, the Eger, Iser, Aupa, Mettau, and Biela.

The climate of Bohemia is generally healthy, but varies greatly in different districts. In the valleys it is mild and pleasant, but raw and cold in the mountainous regions, where the higher peaks are covered with snow during a great portion of the year.

The mountain-chains which rise on all sides of Bohemia consist largely of primitive rocks, principally gneiss, mica-slate, and granite. Basalt, clinkstone, greenstone, and red sandstone are also common, and with the last, diluvial and alluvial deposits are met with, often to a considerable elevation. The extensive Silurian beds near Prague are rich in fossils. The plains belong chiefly to the Middle or Miocene period of the Tertiary formation, with sand, gravel, and marl.

A remnant of volcanic action, of which traces are common, still continues in the eruptions of carbonic acid gas which have established so many mineral springs of deserved repute, at Carlsbad, Eger, Marienbad, Teplitz, and throughout the country.

The mineral wealth is varied and extensive, consisting of silver, tin, copper, lead, iron, cobalt, bismuth, antimony, alum, sulphur, graphite, and porcelain clay, with several precious and ornamental stones. More coal is produced than in all the rest of the Austrian empire. The swampy plains yield an enormous amount of peat, and a large quantity of asphaltum is also obtained. On the other hand, no salt at all is found.

The soil is generally fertile. More than one-half of the area consists of arable land; nearly one-eighth is laid out in meadows and gardens; pastures form about a twelfth; and forests cover nearly a third. The wheat, rye, barley, and oats raised in Bohemia amount to more than a sixth of the produce of the whole Austrian empire. Flax and hops are plentiful, and a great variety of fruit is exported in large quantities. The culture of the vine is confined to the vicinity of the Moldau and the Elbe. Horned cattle, sheep, goats, and swine are reared extensively in some districts; bees and geese form important items in the resources of the country.

In manufactures, Bohemia holds a very high place among continental countries. It is a great centre of dyeing and calico-printing. The linen manufacture is more extensive than that of all the other Austrian provinces together, and the flax-spinning employs more than 235,000 spindles. The chief seat of the woollen manufacture is Reichenberg and its neighbourhood. Other important branches of industry are the manufacture of paper, ribbons, lace, chemicals, porcelain-ware, and the Turkish fez. The glass-works of Bohemia are celebrated, and very numerous and extensive, affording employment to some 27,000 persons. Beet-root sugar is manufactured extensively, and there are hundreds of breweries and brandy distilleries throughout the country, mostly on a small scale, although Bohemian beer is sold throughout Europe. The manufacture of iron is considerable. Its position secures Bohemia a large transit-trade. Steamboats ply on the Elbe and Moldau, and a canal crossing into Upper Austria conveys the timber of the Böhmerwald from the latter into the Danube. There are good roads and an excellent system of railways centring in the capital, Prague. In 1885 there were 2625 miles of railway, besides the branch lines for mining purposes.

Population, Religion, and Education.—The Czechs, a Slavonic race, form the bulk of the people. They dwell chiefly in the centre and east of the country, and in 1880 numbered 3,470,000. The German population, amounting in the same year to 2,054,000, reside mainly on the outskirts, especially in the north-east, and in the cities; their influence on industry, trade, and commerce is great in proportion to their numbers. The distinction between Czech and German is very sharply drawn. There are about 100,000 Jews. The vast majority of the population (5,340,000) belong to the Roman Catholic Church, but other religions are tolerated; the Protestants only amount to 120,000, the majority belonging to the Calvinistic confession, and cherishing relations with the churches of Scotland. The Roman Catholics are under the supervision of the Archbishop of Prague and the three bishops of Leitmeritz, Königgrätz, and Budweis. The monasteries and convents number between 120 and 130. Education is much more widely diffused than in any of the other provinces of Austria. At the head of the educational establishments is the university of Prague, where since 1882 all subjects are taught in the German and

the Czech languages. The number of students in 1885 was 3218, 1450 of whom attended the German classes. There are over 50 higher schools, besides 2200 German and 2500 Czech public schools, and numerous seminaries and technical institutes. Bohemia sends 54—about a fourth of the 203—members to the Lower House of the Austrian Reichsrath, or parliament of the western part of the empire.

History.—The country derives its name from the Celtic *Boii*, who were expelled by the Germanic Marcomanni about the beginning of the Christian era. The victors themselves soon gave place to others, and as early as the 5th century A.D. we find Bohemia peopled by the Czechs, a Slavic race. In the latter part of the 9th century, Swatopluk, the king of Moravia, subjugated Bohemia, and introduced Christianity. After his death, the dukes of Prague, who in 1086 had the title of king conferred on them by the Emperor Henry IV., ruled the country as a state in the German empire until 1306, when the last of the dynasty was assassinated.

From 1310 to 1437 the country was ruled by kings of the House of Luxemburg. In the time of Wenzel IV. (Wenceslas), a reformation of religion took place under John Huss (q.v.) and Jerome of Prague (q.v.). After the death of Wenzel IV., the imprudent measures adopted by the Emperor Sigismund excited a war of sixteen years' duration, which ended in making Bohemia an elective kingdom, and, in 1458, the shrewd and able Protestant noble, George of Podiebrad, ascended the throne. His successor, the Polish prince Ladislaus (1471-1516), was elected (1490) to the throne of Hungary, and removed the royal residence to Ofen, where also his son and successor, Louis (1516-1526), resided. After his death in battle against the Turks at Mohacz, Bohemia and Hungary passed into the hands of Ferdinand I. of Austria, who had married Louis's sister. From that time the history of Bohemia merges in the history of Austria (q.v.). The Reformation was tolerated under Maximilian, and religious liberty formally granted by Rudolf II. (1609). The withdrawal of this freedom a few years later under Matthias, and especially Ferdinand II., led to the troubles that broke out in 1618 and the election of Frederick V. by the Palatinate (q.v.) to be Bohemian king (see THIRTY YEARS' WAR). The battle at the Weissenberg (1620) restored the Hapsburgs, and was followed by the merciless extirpation of Protestantism, the suppression of all national privileges, and the ruin of the country. The reforms of Josef II. stirred up in Bohemia a revival of Czech feeling; and from 1848—when a rising was swiftly suppressed—onwards, there has been a continuous struggle between Germans and Czechs for the supremacy. A Bohemian diet elected under the new constitution of 1861 made the Czech language a compulsory subject even in German secondary schools. In 1867 the Czechs refused to send their complement of members to the Austrian Reichsrath, and showed their growing sympathies with Pan Slavism (q.v.). In 1879 they resumed attendance at the Reichsrath, and as a section of the Right secured further concessions in favour of the Czech tongue. The aim alike of the fendal and clerical old Czechs, and of the Liberal new Czechs, is the restoration of the full crown-rights of Bohemia, and the predominance of Czech ideas, Czech culture, and the Czech language throughout the land. See the works cited at AUSTRIA; also the works of Pelzel (1817), Palacký (1836-60), Jordan (1847), Schlesinger (1870), and Tomek (1882).

Language.—The Czech language, spoken in Bohemia, Moravia, and, with variations, among the Slovaks in the north of Hungary, is one of the most cultivated dialects of the Slavonic.

Its complicated and difficult forms remind one of the Latin and Greek accidence. Its peculiarities are the sibilated *r*, which is harsher than the *rz* of the Poles, and the distinct possession of both quantity and accent, so that the Latin and Greek metres can be exactly reproduced in it, though such imitations are purely artificial, the native poetry being accentual. Its syntax resembles Latin. It has one guttural, *ch*. It has a passive participle, but no formal passive voice, and makes a very free use of reflexive verbs.

Literature.—Bohemian literature divides itself naturally into three periods:—(1) From the earliest time to the burning of Huss in 1415; (2) from 1415 to Josef II.'s Edict of Toleration in 1781; and (3) thence to the present time.

Period I.—The Greek Church is represented by a Glagolitic (q.v.) fragment (circa 900), the Latin by a fragment of St John's Gospel, with an interlinear Bohemian translation of somewhat later date. The greater part of the Bible was translated by the end of the 13th century, and in the 14th the whole was complete. A manuscript containing an unrhymed poem, the 'Judgment of Libussa,' was found in 1817, and another was found by V. Hanka, containing epic and lyric poems, all ascribed to the end of the 13th century. These manuscripts have both been attacked as forgeries, but it is difficult to conceive a forger in 1817 possessed of sufficient knowledge for the purpose, and microscopic examination has shown that Hanka both misread and misunderstood his manuscript in various places. The Latin *Alexandris* was freely translated into Bohemian rhyme between 1240 and 1250, and legends of Christ and of several saints were current towards the close of the century.

The first half of the 14th century, the great event of which was the foundation of the university of Prague by Charles IV. in 1348, presents a rhymed chronicle, called that of Dalimil, the earliest complete manuscript of which (circa 1350) lay for one hundred and forty years unrecognised in the library of Trinity College, Cambridge, and was unearthed only in 1876. In this century didactic and satirical poetry were well represented. The rhymed legend of St Catherine (discovered at Stockholm in 1850) is of considerable beauty, and that of St Prokop is amusing. The travels of Marco Polo were translated early, and those of Sir John Mandeville late in the same century. A cycle of chivalry was also current. A complete Life of Christ was written. Romances of Alexander the Great and of Troy were translated. Tkadlec's dialogues between 'The Complainer' and 'Misfortune' are a model of terse and elegant Bohemian. Thomas of Stitný (1373-1400) wrote, in order that higher matters might become generally accessible in the Bohemian as well as in the Latin tongue, first for the instruction of his children, and then for a wider circle, considering that 'the soul of a Bohemian was as precious to God as that of a Latinist.' Theologian, homilist, and philosopher, his equal cannot be found in English literature before the time of Elizabeth. As a writer it is impossible to separate John Huss (Jan Hus) from Stitný. Huss's activity lay between 1402 and 1415, first as a preacher, and then as a writer. His Latin works, except those written without books in prison, are little more than centos and adaptations of Wyclif; but his Bohemian writings are very different, though he apparently still used Wyclif as an encyclopædia. He wrote a long work on the Creed, the Lord's Prayer, and the Ten Commandments, sermons on the Gospels for every Sunday in the year, and many smaller treatises, the most beautiful of which is the *Daughter*, a manual of advice to the human soul. His Bohemian style is inferior to that of Stitný.

Period II., from 1415 to 1781.—The Hussite wars were not favourable to any but controversial literature. After the suppression of the military Taborites (1452), the teaching of Peter Chelczický, a great religious writer and thinker (1430-56), was adopted by the peaceful Bohemian brotherhood. But for many years the brethren disregarded human learning, until, under the influence of Jan Blahoslav, the translator of the New Testament, who first noticed the capacity of Bohemian for representing the classical metres, they proceeded in earnest to their new translation of the Bible, which was printed in 6 vols. at Kralitz, in Moravia (1579-93). In poetry the Hussite times produced a few songs, satirical and didactic poems and ballads, among which are a spirited ballad on the battle of Aunsig, and the war song of Ziska's soldiers on the march. Jan Ziska's military arrangements, which still exist in writing, are very remarkable. The *Diary of an Embassy from King George to King Louis XI. of France* (1464) is of historical rather than literary interest. During the Polish dynasty (1476-1524) John Hasensteinský wrote *Travels in Palestine* (1492) and *Advice to his Son* in excellent Bohemian, and Nicholas Konácz a grand book on the *Plaint of Justice, the Queen and Lady of all the Virtues*. Under Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. (1526-75) the study of the classics was much advanced by the Jesuit academy established at Prague in 1555. Many of the Jesuits wrote in Bohemian with great success. Sixtus of Ottersdorf's *Memoirs of the Years 1546-47*, so fatal to Bohemian freedom, are very valuable. But the literary glory of this era is the *Kronyka Ceska* of V. Hajek of Liboczan (1541), which in style rivals Herodotus, though its historical statements are so untrustworthy, that Palacký terms him 'the corrupter of Bohemian history'.

The time of the emperors Rudolf II. and Matthias (1576-1619), or rather of the former, has been termed the 'golden age' of Bohemian literature, although little rises much above mediocrity. But educational arrangements were excellent, and probably superior to those of any other country in Europe. The centre of literature in Rudolf's time was the printer Adam of Veleslavin. Translations were more abundant than original works. Matyas Gryll (1592) wrote the only good original poem, 'On the Providence and Government of God,' of this era. The travels of Harant of Polzie in Palestine, Egypt, and Sinai have been translated into German, and the adventures of Wratislav of Mitrovitz in Turkey, into German, English, and Russian. Of Jirák Zaveta's *Schola Aulica*, Balbinus said that, 'if translated into Latin, it need fear no criticism.' The greatest literary man among the Brethren was J. Amos Komenský (Comenius), the author of the *World in Pictures* and the *Labyrinth of the World*. From Ferdinand II. (1619) to Josef II. (1781) is a period of literary decline, succeeded by slumber. The Jesuits from the school of Ferdinand I. gradually died out, and their successors did not study Bohemian, but simply carried on an indiscriminate crusade (till 1760) against the native literature, one Jesuit boasting of having himself destroyed 60,000 volumes.

Period III., from Josef II. (1781) to the present time.—We now come to the unexampled resuscitation of a dead and buried language and literature. The Abbé Josef Dobrowský, the father of Slavonic comparative philology, devoted his life to grammatical, philological, and historical research, but wrote principally in Latin and German. In 1795 Fr. V. M. Kramerius established a Bohemian printing-press which, till his death in 1808, was the centre of Czech literary activity. In 1806 Jan Nejedly issued the first periodical, the *Ilascatel*

(Herald), in the Bohemian language. Dobrowský unfortunately constructed a prosody intended to reproduce the classical metres by accent irrespective of quantity, which was very embarrassing to poetry till overthrown (1818) by Palacký and Szafarzík (Schafarik). Still A. J. Puchmajer (1795-1814) is justly considered the reawakener of the Czech muse. The stores obtained by the researches of Dobrowský were edited in the *Starobylá Skladanie*, 'Ancient Collections' (1817-24), by V. Hanka, who also first successfully imitated the popular songs and ballads of the peasantry (1815-16). But the greatest impulse to Bohemian poetry was given by the 13th-century manuscripts above mentioned.

In 1818 Count Kaspar Sternberg and others succeeded in fully establishing and endowing the Bohemian Museum, which became the centre of research and progress. In 1819 appeared the first great poem of the revival, Polák's *Sublimity of Nature*. Next came J. Kollár, Fr. L. Czelskowský, and the Slovak Jan Holý. In 1821 J. S. Presl established the scientific magazine *Krok*, and ere long created a Bohemian terminology for chemistry and other sciences. In 1825 Jungmann published his *History of Bohemian Literature*. In 1827 the magazine (*Czasopis*) of the Bohemian Museum appeared under the editorship of Fr. Palacký in Bohemian and German. Contrary to expectation, the circulation of the German monthly dwindled to nothing, while that of the Bohemian quarterly rapidly increased. In 1831 the Matice Ceska, a bye-committee of the museum, was instituted for the republication of old and the publication of new works of value in the Bohemian language. By its aid J. Jungmann's gigantic Bohemian dictionary, the work of thirty years, appeared in five large volumes (1835-39), and in 1837 Szafarzík's *Slavonic Antiquities*, the first Bohemian work that obtained a European reputation. In 1831 Fr. Palacký was elected historian to the Estates of Bohemia. After searching the principal archives of Germany and Italy, especially the Vatican Library, he brought out the first volume of his history in German in 1836, in Bohemian not till 1848, the year of the abolition of the Austrian censorship of the press. In 1849 J. A. Purkyne, a physiologist of European reputation, effected the establishment of the periodical *Zira* for natural science. Other periodicals became numerous. Palacký's *History* (to 1526) was completed in German in 1867, in Bohemian not till 1876, the excisions and interpolations of the censorship being rectified. It is being continued by Gindeley. The translation of Shakespeare's dramatic works was completed (1854-72). K. J. Erben deserves especial notice as poet, archaeologist, translator, and editor of Huss's Bohemian works (3 vols. 1865-68), of Stitný, &c. V. V. Tomek, besides his history of the university of Prague (1849), is author of an exhaustive history of the city of Prague (vols. i.-vii. 1855-85). He was justly appointed the first rector of the re-established Bohemian University of Prague (1882).

Bohemian Brethren, a religious society, instituted in Prague about the middle of the 15th century, originally composed of remnants of the Hussites. In 1453 they settled on the borders of Silesia and Moravia. The Thirty Years' War entirely broke up the societies of the Brethren; but afterwards they united again, though persecuted. Their exodus and settlement in 1722 on the estates of Count Zinzendorf (q.v.) in Saxony, occasioned the formation of the Herrnhuters. See MORAVIANS.

Bohemond I., eldest son of Robert Guiscard (q.v.), was born about 1056, and during his youth distinguished himself in his father's war against the

Byzantine emperor, Alexius Comnenus (1081-85). After his father's death he was excluded from the throne of Apulia by his brother Roger, and only gained the principality of Tarentum after a long contest. He joined the crusade of 1092 with a large army—most of which he had won over from his brother's service—and took a prominent part in the capture of Antioch (1098). While the other crusaders advanced to storm Jerusalem, Bohemond remained in Antioch, where he established himself as prince, and routed the besieging forces of the sultan. He was afterwards made prisoner by a Turkish emir, and remained two years in captivity. Tancred, meanwhile, looked after his interests in Antioch. Bohemond returned to Europe to collect troops, and after defeating Alexius in several engagements, was acknowledged by that emperor as Prince of Antioch. He died in Apulia (1111). His son, a minor at the death of his father, assumed the government of Antioch (after Tancred had been regent for some years) in 1126, and was killed in battle (1130).—Four insignificant descendants reigned, under the same title, till the close of the 13th century, being merely suffered by Saladin and his successors.

Bohn, HENRY GEORGE, publisher, was born in London, January 4, 1796. His father, a German, was a bookbinder, and latterly a second-hand bookseller, and young Bohn, adopting the latter business, in 1831 started on his own account, amassed many valuable old books, and in 1841 issued his famous 'guinea catalogue,' containing 23,208 articles. Next he tried the 'remainder' trade, and in 1846 he began the issue of the series of works with which his name is identified. It is impossible to estimate too highly the services he has rendered to the community by republishing, at a cheap rate, a vast number of the most valuable works in literature, science, philosophy, theology, &c. The whole eventually numbered over 600 volumes. He also edited the *Bibliotheca Patristica*, Lowndes's *Bibliographer's Manual*, &c., and issued translations of Schiller, Goethe, and Humboldt, besides a *Handbook of Proverbs*, and a *Dictionary of English Poetical Quotations*. After retiring from business in 1864, his chief stock, copyrights, and second-hand books, realised about £100,000. The china and art collections, sold both before and after his death, realised £45,000. He died August 22, 1884.

Böhtlingk, OTTO, Sanskrit scholar, was born in 1815 of German ancestry at St Petersburg; from 1835 to 1842 studied oriental languages, especially Sanskrit, at Berlin and Bonn; and, after twenty-six years in his native city, settled in 1868 at Jena. Among his invaluable works are the first European edition of the Indian grammarian Panini (1839), a Sanskrit Chrestomathy (1845; 2d ed. 1877), and a great Sanskrit dictionary (7 vols. 1855-75). In 1888 he celebrated his jubilee.

Bohun, THE FAMILY OF, was founded by the Norman Humphrey de Bohun, and in 1199 the head of the house became Earl of Hereford. The then Earl of Hereford was taken prisoner at Bannockburn, and a kinsman was slain in single combat by Bruce. In 1380 the heiress of the earldoms of Hereford, Essex, and Northampton, married Henry Bolingbroke (Henry IV.).

Boiardo, MATTEO MARIA, Count of Scandiano, one of the greater Italian poets, was born in 1434 at Scandiano, a village situated at the foot of the Lombard Apennines. He studied at the university of Ferrara, and in 1462 married the daughter of the Count of Norellara. He lived principally at the court of Ferrara on terms of intimate friendship with Duke Borso and Duke Ercole, by the latter of whom he was employed on important

diplomatic missions, and appointed in 1481 governor of Modena, and in 1487 governor of Reggio. As an administrator he was distinguished for his clemency, and is said to have held that no crime should be visited with capital punishment. He died at Reggio in 1494. Boiardo has been called the 'Flower of Chivalry.' His fame rests on the *Orlando Innamorato* (1486), a long narrative poem in which the romances of the Carlovingian cycle are recast into *Ottava rima*. Full of rich and graceful fancy, this is the only work in which the spirit of chivalry is found in union with the spirit of the Renaissance. The chief characters, the Paladins of Charlemagne, are led in a maze of adventure from Paris to Spain, Hungary, Africa, and the far East; Orlando, whose love for the eastern princess Angelica is the central subject, being none other than the hero of the old *Chanson de Roland*. Ariosto adopted Boiardo's characters and magic machinery, and brought his narrative to a close in the *Orlando Furioso*, by which the fame of the earlier poem has been unfairly obscured. After going through sixteen editions before 1545, Boiardo's work became almost forgotten, its vigorous but rough and provincial style being uncongenial to the Florentine taste. Boiardo's other works comprise various Latin eclogues, a versification of Lucian's *Timon*, translations of Herodotus, the *Ass* of Lucian, and the *Golden Ass* of Apuleius, and a series of sonnets and *Canzoni* (Reggio, 1499). The best edition of Boiardo is by Panizzi (9 vols. Lond. 1830). See also Symonds's *Renaissance in Italy*.

Boieldieu, ADRIEN FRANÇOIS, an eminent French composer, was born at Rouen in 1775. His talent for music was early developed. At the age of eighteen he brought out a one-act opera in his native town, and two years afterwards he repaired to Paris, where he produced many successful compositions. When the Conservatoire de Musique was established, Boieldieu was elected a professor. The *Caliph de Bagdad* (1799) was his first brilliant success. His unhappy marriage with the celebrated dancer, Clotilde Malfemoy, induced him to accept an invitation to St Petersburg, where from 1803 to 1810 he filled the post of imperial *maître de chapelle*, wrote the music to Racine's *Athalie*, and produced several operas. Returning to Paris, he brought out *Jean de Paris* (1812), *La Dame Blanche* (1825), his masterpiece, and other popular works. His strength lies in bright and graceful melody, light but tasteful instrumentation, and pure harmony. He has been called 'the French Mozart.' He was elected an academicien in 1817, and on his death, 8th October 1834, the nation honoured him with a public funeral. His native city claimed his heart, and in 1875 erected a monument to him. The government further marked its sense of his merit by granting a pension to his son Adrien (1816-83), who himself composed several operas. See Pouglin, *Boieldieu, sa Vie, ses Œuvres* (1875).

Boil, a powerful Celtic people who dwelt originally in Transalpine Gaul, part of whom settled in the modern Bohemia, and bequeathed their name to that country.

Boil (Old Eng. *byl*, Middle Eng. *bile*; akin to prov. Eng. and Scotch *beal*, 'to suppurate'; its present spelling having arisen through confusion with the verb *boil*, which is from the French) is a hard painful swelling of the skin. It usually begins as a small hard point of a dusky red colour, which is hot, painful, and throbbing. This point extends, and these symptoms increase in severity till sooner or later, when the boil ceases to enlarge, it is of a conical form, with a broad firm base, and on the apex a whitish blister, which contains a little

matter; this opens, and after a few days more there is discharged the *core*, a little pellet of dead cellular tissue, and the small cavity left heals rapidly, leaving a white depressed scar. Sometimes boils subside without any breach in the skin, or any discharge. These are known as *blind* boils, and are generally less conical in shape, less painful, and slower in their progress than the common form. Boils rarely occur singly: very often the subjects of them suffer from successive crops during a period of some weeks or months. They may affect any part of the skin, except the palms of the hands and soles of the feet.

Boils are probably always caused by some abnormal condition of the blood or the nutrition of the body, though they often occur in people who appear to be in good health. They are most common in spring; are rare in young children, most frequent in older children and young adults. Any sudden change in diet and daily habits is very apt to cause them; thus persons undergoing a course of hydropathic treatment, or training for races, and country girls going into town as domestic servants, are very apt to suffer. They often occur also during recovery from exhausting diseases. 'In many cases they must be looked upon as salutary. After an outbreak of boils, the health often gradually improves' (Erichsen).

The best application to a boil in the early stages is collodion, frequently repeated, which often prevents its further development. Later, when the pain is severe, frequent bathing with hot water, or the application of small hot poultices, which may be made of poppy-heads, or of oatmeal or linseed-meal, will give relief and hasten the progress of the case. Incision is sometimes advisable if the patient's suffering is great. The constitutional condition must always be attended to, and any error in diet or habits corrected. Aperient medicines are generally useful, with, in enfeebled conditions, tonics; in plethoric conditions, alkalies. Sulphide of calcium, in doses of a tenth to a quarter of a grain, greatly hastens the ripening of boils, and prevents the formation of fresh ones.

Boileau, NICOLAS, was born at Paris, where his father was a registrar in one of the law-courts, on the 1st November 1636. He was educated at Beauvais, and received both a legal and a theological training. In his twenty-first year, however, he inherited a competence, and decided to follow a life of purely literary activity. In his youth he appears to have been most generally known by the surname Despréaux; which he had taken in accordance with a practice of the time. He published his satirical *Adieu d'un Poète à la Ville de Paris* in 1660, and in 1663 we find him united with Molière, La Fontaine, and Racine, in the famous 'society of four.' In 1666 he published a collection of satires from which the royal privilege was for a time withdrawn, through the influence of Chapelain, one of the writers whom he had gibbeted. Boileau, however, soon gained the favour of the king, who awarded him various pensions, and in 1677 appointed him, along with Racine, to the post of royal historiographer. *L'Art Poétique*, which contains the exposition of his literary creed, and which was imitated by Pope in the *Essay on Criticism*, was published in 1674, along with four cantos of the *Lutrin*, a clever serio-comic description of an ecclesiastical squabble over a reading-desk. Two cantos, concluding the poem, appeared in 1681. Between 1669 and 1677 Boileau published nine epistles, written, like his satires, on the Horatian model. To celebrate the capture of Namur in 1692, he composed an ode which remains a glaring example of servile flattery and bad verse. This deplorable production was admirably burlesqued by Prior. In his last years Boileau retired

to Auteuil, where he died on 13th March 1711. His works include several critical dissertations in prose, a collection of epigrams, a translation of Longinus *On the Sublime*, a *Dialogue des Héros de Roman*, and a series of letters, a number of which are addressed to Racine, extending from 1672 to 1710. He appears to have been of a jealous, arrogant nature, but not without generosity. Though he secretly preferred Corneille to Racine, he did his best to exalt the younger at the expense of the elder dramatist. Nevertheless, when Corneille's pension was stopped, he is said to have made a courageous protest to the king against 'so barbarous a spoliation.' His verse has wit and vigour, but he never rises to the level of the great satirists. His influence as a critic has been profound. The 16th century had flooded French literature with new words and new ideas. The riches which it had imported and developed required to be sifted, refined, and reduced to order. This task, which had been begun by Malherbe, was carried out with drastic energy by Boileau. He set up good sense, sobriety, elegance and dignity of style as the cardinal literary virtues. He discountenanced the conceits of the salon coteries, and the grossness and grotesqueness of the earlier writers. Through his influence more than any other man's, French prose became almost identical with clear, precise, and polished composition. But for more than a hundred years, while his authority was at its height, there was a distinct falling-off in poetry. Verse was robbed of fire and melody and the power of vague suggestion. The drama was divorced from real life, and restricted to certain prescribed situations and conventional characters. Boileau led Frenchmen to look with ignorant contempt on the nation's early literature. While he refined he impoverished the vocabulary. The language lost its old pith, colour, and flexibility, and became for a time incapable of reflecting vivid passion or complex character. Boileau's immense influence has thus been both beneficial and hurtful to French letters. For more than a hundred years he was accepted by his countrymen as the infallible 'lawgiver of Parnassus.' His authority has been reduced to a closer conformity with his deserts since the rise of the French Romantic school. See Fournier's edition of Boileau (Paris, 1873), and Laverlet's *Correspondance de Boileau* (Paris, 1858).

Boiler, the name given to a vessel in which steam, usually for a steam-engine, is generated. In its simplest form, it consists of a close vessel made of metal plate, having apertures for the admission of water and egress of steam, fitted with apparatus for showing the level of the water and the pressure of the steam, and in connection with a furnace, either internal or external. When water is boiled in an open pan, the temperature of the water and of the steam rising from it remains at or very near 212° F., and the tension or pressure of the steam is no more than sufficient to make its way into the atmosphere, being exactly equal to that exerted in all directions by the atmosphere itself—namely, 14·7 lb. per square inch. In a close vessel, on the other hand, the temperature and pressure to which we can raise the steam are only limited by the strength of the vessel or boiler against bursting.

The form of a boiler is determined by two considerations—namely, strength to withstand internal pressure, and efficiency in producing steam; and the object of the designer is to combine in one apparatus sufficient strength to work safely at the proposed pressure, with such a form and arrangement as shall abstract the maximum of heat from the gases of combustion, and at the same time be in all-respects suitable to the special circumstances of the case. The globular form is that best adapted

for strength, and was the earliest to be used. It presents to the fire, however, the minimum area in proportion to its contents, and therefore has a minimum efficiency. After spherical boilers, cylindrical ones came into use, at first set on end, and afterwards laid on their sides, and later on, these were furnished with internal cylindrical tubes for furnaces. Watt's 'wagon boiler' (so called from its shape) was used for many years, but being quite unfit for any but the lowest pressures, it has long been discarded; and the 'egg-end' boiler, or plain cylinder with hemispherical ends, also much used at one time, has now almost disappeared on account of its small evaporative efficiency. At present, it is quite common to use a working steam-pressure of 60 to 80 lb. per square inch in ordinary factory boilers, and in some cases this is already greatly exceeded, while the tendency to use higher pressures seems to grow yearly. Already in marine work and elsewhere pressures of 120 to 150 lb. per square inch are as common as half those pressures were fifteen years since. Under these pressures, the only forms of boiler which can be used without heavy and expensive internal stays to prevent the danger of bursting, are the globular and the cylindrical. The former shape is rejected for the reason already given, and the latter form is used almost invariably in the construction of modern boilers, as will be seen from the examples given below. The ends of the cylinders, when it is necessary to make them flat, must, of course, be strengthened by stays.

Boilers may be classified in several ways—as (1) Horizontal and Vertical; (2) Internally and externally fired; and (3) Plain, Multitubular, and Tubulons. Large boilers are almost invariably horizontal, but small vertical boilers are often used. They are employed in Steam-cranes (q.v.) and other situations where great length would be an inconvenience, and otherwise very frequently when small powers are required, especially for temporary purposes. In Great Britain, where moderately good fuel is used, boilers with an internal furnace are generally preferred; but on the Continent the common brown coal is much inferior to our fuel, and a correspondingly larger quantity of it must be used to generate a given volume of steam. As the size of a furnace limits the fuel which it can burn, this frequently involves having a much larger grate than could be conveniently arranged inside the boiler, and on this and other accounts boilers are, on the Continent, more frequently externally fired than in this country. Under the head of 'plain' boilers come all ordinary cylindrical boilers, with or without internal furnaces, horizontal or vertical. They are the cheapest and simplest which can be made, and, if properly proportioned, possess a considerable evaporative efficiency. When it is necessary, however, to economise fuel, or space, or both, 'multitubular' boilers are frequently used. These derive their name from the fact that in them the flame and gases of combustion are made to pass through a great number of small tubes (surrounded by the water) on their way to the chimney. The steam-generating power of a boiler depends greatly on the extent of surface which it presents to the flame, and it is obvious that a great number of small tubes present a much larger surface than one large tube occupying the space of them all. Thus, with the same heating surface, a multitubular boiler will occupy much less space than a plain one, and at the same time the efficiency of its surface is found to be greater. It is, however, necessarily more expensive and more liable to get out of order. Tubulous boilers differ from multitubular boilers in not only containing tubes, but *consisting* of them, and having no large cylinders whatever. Their chief advantages are (a) their great strength, for it is easy to

make a metal tube strong enough to withstand pressures far higher than any at present in use; and (b) the peculiarity, that if any accident happens or explosion occurs, it will only be to one tube at a time, and not to an immense boiler shell (as with the common boiler), and its evil consequences will thus be greatly reduced. For this reason tubulous boilers are often called 'safety' boilers. It will be readily understood that there is no distinct line of demarcation between the three classes of which we have been speaking, but that, on account of the immense variety of boilers which have been designed and constructed, those of one class pass through gentle gradations into those of the next.

The commonest form of boiler for factories, &c. is that known as the 'Cornish,' and shown in fig. 1. It consists simply of a cylindrical shell, *a, a*, inclosing a much smaller cylinder, *f, f*, called a *flue*. The ends of the flue are open, but the space between it and the shell, which contains the water, is of course closed up and made steam-tight. The fire-grate, *d*, is in the interior of the flue, and at the end of it is a brick bridge, *e*, made so as to cause the flame to impinge on the upper side of the flue.

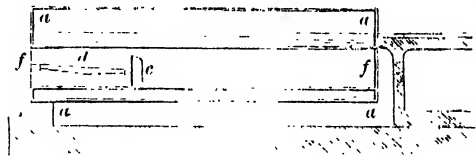


Fig. 1.

The boiler is set in brickwork; and the flame, passing out at the back end of the flue, is made to traverse the whole length of the boiler twice through brick flues before passing away to the chimney.

The Cornish boiler has often two internal flues or tubes, which is a much more advantageous construction than that shown in fig. 1. A Cornish boiler with two flues is known as a 'Lancashire' boiler. In the 'Galloway' boiler, a very excellent modification of the Cornish, which in outward appearance it exactly resembles, there are two furnaces, but these join together in one chamber just behind the bridges, and the gases are made to pass through a space considerably narrowed by side *pockets* projecting inwards in order that they may be well mixed. From this point to the back of the boiler there is just one flue, made oval in section, and crossed by a considerable number of vertical taper tubes, which form a direct communication between the water beneath and that above the flue. These tubes (called 'Galloway tubes') both promote circulation and strengthen the flue. Multitubular boilers of many kinds are used, both for stationary engines and other purposes, but the largest number of those constructed are certainly for steamers, and a common type of marine boiler is shown in fig. 2. The shell, *a, a*, is cylindrical, and contains one or more cylindrical furnaces; *c* is the fire-grate; *d*, a brick bridge; *e*, a combustion chamber or flame-box; *f*, the tubes through which the flame passes back to the front of the boiler; and *g*, the smoke-box at the base of the funnel, *h*. The line *k, k*, shows the ordinary level of the water in the boiler. On board ship it is of course an object to take up as little space as possible with the boiler and machinery, and at the same time to have boilers which shall use as little coal as possible, both because of the saving in cost, and because of the saving in the room taken up by coal. For all these reasons, marine boilers are invariably multitubular.

The varieties of vertical boilers are as numerous as those of horizontal. When dirty water, or water containing much insoluble sediment, has to be used (as e.g. in steam-cranes frequently), they are of the simplest construction, with nothing but an inner fire-box and an outer shell (both cylindrical), the space between them being filled with water all round and over the top of the fire-box. If clean water can be had, however, and it is desired to be at all economical of fuel, some kind of multitubular vertical boiler must be used, and of these probably the best is that known as the 'Field' boiler, and shown in fig. 3. The peculiarity of it consists in

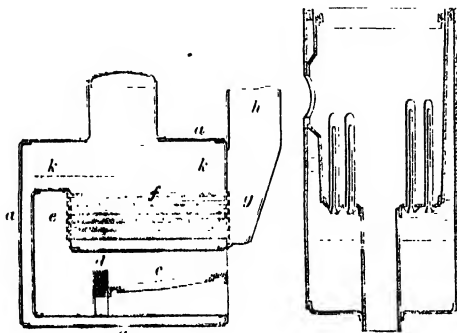


Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

the tubes, which are closed at the bottom and hang down from the top of the fire-box over the grate bars, containing inner tubes of much smaller diameter. The latter are intended to aid the circulation of the water, which passes down the inner tube and up again through the annular space around it, where, being most exposed to the action of the flame, it is hottest. Of the different varieties of tubulous boilers, those best known are perhaps the Babcock and Wilcox, the Root, and the Howard boilers. The great difficulty about all of them is the obtaining sufficiently free circulation for the water and the steam formed below its surface. But this difficulty seems to have been overcome in those first mentioned. Locomotive boilers are always multitubular, for much the same reasons as marine boilers. The boiler of a single locomotive often contains 1500 or 1800 square feet of heating surface, and occasionally as much as 2000 square feet.

The principal test of the efficiency of a boiler is the quantity of water (generally expressed either in pounds or gallons), which it will evaporate from and at a temperature of 212° F., with the consumption of one pound of coal. Of course, this varies very much with the quality of the fuel, but with good pit coal (not dress), a Cornish boiler often evaporates 6 to 8 lb. of water per lb. coal, and a multitubular boiler, such as fig. 2, about 10 or 11 lb. per lb. coal. Good Cornish or Lancashire boilers, however, often attain as great economy as those of any other type. The best rate of combustion on the grate varies with the construction of the boiler, from 10 to 18 or 20 lb. per square foot of grate surface per hour, and much more with forced draught, as in a locomotive.

Until very recently boilers were almost invariably made of wrought-iron plates riveted together. The parts most exposed to the action of the flame were made of the best quality of iron, and the other parts of inferior qualities, according to their position in reference to the flame. Now, however, for all first-class work, and work where high pressures are to be used, the common material for boiler construction is 'mild' steel made by the

open hearth process, and having a tenacity of about 28 tons per square inch. Copper is often used in the fire-boxes of locomotives, but seldom in any other description of boiler. Brass boiler tubes are sometimes seen, and on account of its better conducting qualities, brass is to be preferred to iron, but its dearthness prevents it superseding iron in the great majority of cases, and there are other drawbacks to its use.

Every boiler has, to render it complete and workable, a number of *fittings* or *mountings*, of which the following are the principal: A glass gauge to show the level of the water inside the boiler, and gauge-cocks for the same purpose; a gauge to show the pressure of the steam; a valve for admitting water; a cock at the bottom for emptying or 'blowing off'; a valve for the discharge of the steam; one or two safety-valves, weighted so that when the pressure of steam in the boiler reaches a certain height, they open and allow the steam to rush into the air; a door by which a man can get in to clean the boiler, &c.

In order to induce a current of air through the furnace so that a proper combustion may be maintained, stationary boilers are generally provided with a chimney of considerable height, and made of brick or sheet-iron, to which the products of combustion are conducted after they have left the boiler. In locomotive boilers, and in some other cases where a sufficiently tall chimney cannot be made use of, a very powerful current is made by the ejection of the waste steam through a blast-pipe with a contracted nozzle at the base of the chimney. To prevent loss of heat by radiation, and the consequent waste of fuel, boilers should always be covered, in all parts exposed to the atmosphere, with felt or some non-conducting composition.

For further details see also BOILING, MANOMETER, SAFETY-VALVE, STEAM, and STEAM-ENGINE.

Boiling. Boiling-point. When heat is applied to a vessel containing a liquid (say water) at ordinary temperatures, the temperature of the liquid gradually rises. Vapour may be seen rising from its surface; and, after a time, bubbles of vapour form in the interior and move upwards, but disappear before they reach the surface. The disappearance of the bubbles is caused by the condensation of the contained vapour, and is accompanied by the so-called *singing* of the water. This noise is produced by the falling in of the walls of the bubbles when the vapour is condensed, and increases in intensity as the number of the bubbles increases. If heat be still applied, the temperature rises to such an amount that the bubbles no longer condense, but pass freely to the surface of the liquid. The liquid is then said to *boil*. When this occurs the temperature remains constant on the whole until all the water is boiled off. This temperature is called the *boiling-point*. It may be defined as the temperature at which vapour comes off *freely* from the surface of the liquid. Different liquids boil at different temperatures; and, for each liquid, this temperature increases with increase of the atmospheric pressure. The following numbers, extracted from Regnault's tables, show how the boiling-point of water is affected by pressure:

Temperature Centigrade.												
0°	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°	60°	70°	80°	90°	100°		
Pressure in Atmospheres.												
0.006	0.012	0.023	0.042	0.072	0.121	0.196	0.306	0.466	0.691	1.000		

Thus, if the pressure be 0.023 atmospheres, water will boil at 20° C. or 68° F. And if water at a temperature much below its ordinary boiling-point be placed under the receiver of an air-pump and the pressure be reduced, it may be made to boil.

It will give off vapour under these conditions until the pressure rises to that corresponding (as in the table above) to the given temperature. When this condition of equilibrium is reached, the vapour is said to be *saturated*. Thus we obtain another definition—the boiling-point of a liquid is the temperature at which its saturated vapour has a pressure equal to that to which its surface is subjected.

Abnormal boiling-points may be obtained artificially. Thus, if water be carefully heated in a very smooth and clean glass vessel, its temperature may be raised considerably above the ordinary point before it boils. But in this case the boiling takes place explosively when it does begin.

Since the atmospheric pressure depends upon the height above the earth's surface, the boiling-point of water varies with the height. This furnishes the principle of the hypsometric thermometer (see BAROMETER, and HEIGHTS, MEASUREMENT OF). Under the surface of a liquid the pressure increases with the depth. Hence the boiling-point increases with the depth. This explains the phenomena of the Geysers (q.v.). See also PAPIN'S DIGESTER, and SPHEROIDAL STATE OF LIQUIDS.

Boiling. In Cookery. One important preliminary rule in boiling rests on the fact explained in the preceding article, that water cannot be heated in an open vessel, or in one with the ordinary fitting lid of a cooking utensil, to a higher point than 212°. When a vessel, then, has once begun to boil, a stronger fire than is just sufficient to keep it boiling will only evaporate, or waste, the water in steam, but will not cook the food any faster. To boil a joint of meat successfully, it is necessary to place it in water already heated to the boiling-point, in order that the albuminous matters of the skin, &c. may be coagulated as speedily as possible. The coagulated albumen forms an impenetrable coating or varnish, as it were, thus preventing the soaking out of the nutritious juices of the meat. After this has been accomplished, the pot should be withdrawn from the fire, so as to allow the water only to simmer. The cooking goes on through the agency of the natural moisture of the flesh. Converted into vapour by the heat, a kind of steaming takes place within the piece of meat; it is, when skilfully done, cooked by its own steam.

The meat should be trimmed, washed, and dried before it is placed in the water. As it simmers, the water should be kept well skimmed, but with due remembrance of the fact that raising the lid of the vessel lowers the temperature of the water; and the preservation of an equal degree of heat throughout the operation is of the greatest importance. For fresh meat, 20 minutes is the allowance for each pound. The weather must also be considered: in frosty weather, or with very thick joints, extra 20 minutes should be given. Mutton loses in boiling, in 1 lb., 3½ oz.; beef, in 1 lb., 4 oz. Meat that has been salted and dried has its outer coat already sealed up; it requires, therefore, to be thoroughly washed, soaked for 2 hours in cold water, dried, and put to boil in cold water, gradually brought to the boiling-point, and kept simmering for a time proportioned to the size of the piece. Hams and tongues to be eaten cold, should be allowed to cool in the water in which they have been boiled. The following is a time-table for the cooking of these meats, reckoning from the time the water boils: A ham of 16 lb. takes 5 hours; a tongue of 16 lb., 2 to 4 hours; a pig's face of 16 lb., 2 hours; a piece of bacon of 4 lb., 2 hours.

Before boiling poultry or fish, it is advisable to rub the outside skin with a cut lemon. This insures a snowy-white appearance in the cooked food. Fish should be placed in cold water, in which a tablespoonful of salt and one of vinegar is mixed;

should be gradually brought to the boiling-point, and simmered carefully, lest the outer part should crack before the thick part is done. If on drawing up the fish-plate, a thin knife will easily divide the flesh from the bone in the thick parts, and if the eyes contract, and become like balls, the fish is sufficiently cooked. Drain by laying the plate across the kettle covered with the lid, and dish perfectly dry on the strainer, which should be covered with a napkin.

Vegetables require generally to be well washed, and placed in boiling water, in which is mixed a large spoonful of salt. To preserve the green colour they are best boiled in a pan without a cover. When they sink they are done. Green vegetables should be well picked, soaked in salt and water, drained and boiled in plenty of water, in a vessel without a lid. Cabbage requires two waters; spinach, very little, as it is full of moisture. Pease and beans should not soak, but be merely rinsed in a colander. Winter potatoes should soak for an hour or more; whether they should be placed in cold or boiling water depends on the description. A piece of soda the size of a small marble assists the boiling of pease and cabbage, if the water is very hard.

Frying is practically boiling in fat or oil, and when properly carried out, with a pan full of oil, is the preferable way of cooking fish and some vegetables.

Bois d'Arc (sometimes corrupted into BOBOCK), also Bow-wood, or Osage-orange (*Maulura aurantiaca*), a tree belonging to the Artocarpaceæ, sub-order Moraceæ, is a native of the Southern United States. Its large beautiful orange-like fruits are scarcely eatable, but its spines make it useful as a hedge plant. Its wood is strong, and hard, and elastic, and hence was used by the Indians in the manufacture of their bows.

Bois-de-Boulogne. See BOULOGNE.

Boisé City, since 1865 capital of Idaho Territory, U.S., stands in a fertile valley, near the Boise River, 520 miles N.E. of San Francisco. The public buildings include a United States assay office, gold being the principal article of export. A branch railway, 20 miles long, now connects the city with the Oregon Short Line Railroad. Pop. (1887) about 3000.

Boisgobey. FORTUNE DU, a French novelist, was born in 1824 at Granville in Normandy, and, after several campaigns in Algeria as army-paymaster, made his first appeal to the public in 1868 with a story in the pages of the *Petit Journal*. It was followed in quick succession by a crowd of sensational stories which soon gained a certain popularity even in England, spite of the exceptionally poor quality of the current translations. A close follower of Gaboriau, he has all his master's vigour and ingenuity, but lacks that sense of dramatic fitness and respect for verisimilitude which saved the original from the impossible absurdities of the imitations. But lovers of 'police-novels' are not exacting in literary workmanship, and Du Boisgobey's stories are at least always readable. Among the best are *L'Homme sans Nom* (1872), *Le Forçat Colonel* (1872), *L'As de Cœur* (1875), *Les Mystères de Nouveau Paris* (1876), *Le Crime de l'Opéra* (1880), and *Le Secret de Berthe* (1884).

Bois-le-Duc (Dutch, 's Hertogenbosch, 'Duke's Forest'), a city of the Netherlands, capital of North Brabant, is situated at the junction of the Donmel and the Aa, 28 miles SSE. of Utrecht by rail. It is a clean, well-built town, about 5 miles in circumference, intersected by canals, and was strongly fortified till 1876. Bois-le-Duc is the seat of a Catholic archbishop, and has a very fine cathedral (1312-1498), a town-hall, college, arsenal,

an academy of arts, a grammar-school, several hospitals, &c. Iron-founding, book-printing, the making of beer, spirits, woollens, cigars, jewelry, linen-thread, ribbons, and cutlery, are the principal industries. Bois-le-Duc was founded in 1184 by Godfrey III., Duke of Brabant, in a wood, hence its name. His son Henry strengthened the town with walls. The town was ineffectually besieged in 1601 and 1603, but surrendered to the Dutch in 1629. In 1794 it was taken by the French; and in 1814 retaken by the Prussians. Pop. (1869) 24,395; (1887) 25,906.

Boisserée, SULPIZ, was born at Cologne in 1783. Inspired with the idea of collecting the scattered specimens of early German art, he and his brother Melchior gathered together two hundred pictures in a gallery in Stuttgart. In 1827 the collection was sold to the king of Bavaria, and in 1836 transferred to the Munich *Pinakothek*. Sulpiz, who died in 1854, was author of *Geschichte des Doms von Köln* (1823-32) and other important works. See his Life by his widow (1862).

Bolssonade, JEAN FRANÇOIS, Hellenist, born at Paris in 1774, became in 1809 titular, and three years later actual professor of Greek in the university of Paris; in 1813 member of the Academy of Inscriptions; and in 1828 professor of Greek Literature in the College of France. His more important works are *Philostati Heroica* (1806); *Marini Vita Procli* (1814), *Tiberius Rhetor de Figuris* (1815), *Sylloge Poetarum Græcorum* (1823-26), *Babrii Fabula* (1844). He died at Passy, 8th September 1859.

Bolssy d'Anglas, FRANÇOIS ANTOINE, COUNT, French statesman, born at St Jean Chambre, in Ardèche, in 1756, was for some time major-domo to the Count of Provence (Louis XVIII.), and a member of the States-general. During the Reign of Terror, fear of the 'Mountain' kept him quiet; but, yielding to the solicitations of Tallien and Barrère, he joined the conspiracy against Robespierre. Two months after the execution of the tyrant, he was elected secretary of the Convention; and shortly after, a member of the Committee of Public Safety, in which capacity he displayed remarkable talent and discretion. As director of the supply of provisions for Paris, he was exposed more than once to popular hatred, but firmness and presence of mind preserved him. He was afterwards president of the Council of Five Hundred; was called into the Senate by Napoleon; and made a peer by Louis XVIII. Through all the changes of the times he maintained the principles with which he had commenced his career. He died in Paris, October 20, 1826. His chief writings are: *Recherches sur la Vie, les Écrits, et les Opinions de Malesherbes* (1819), and *Études Littéraires et Politiques d'un Vieillard* (1826).

Bolto, ARRIGO, Italian composer and poet, was born 24th February 1842, at Padua, and studied at the Milan Conservatorium. His first important work is the opera *Mefistofele*, produced without success in 1868, but which has steadily grown in popularity. It betrays the influence of Wagner. Other operas are *Ero e Leandro*, *Nerone*, *Odda all'Arte*. He wrote his own librettos, and has published several songs, lyrical dramas, and novels.

Bolvin, MARIE, a French midwife, born in 1773, became a nun; but after the destruction of the nunnery at the Revolution, she devoted herself to midwifery. So distinguished was she as superintendent of the Maternité at Paris, that the king of Prussia conferred an order on her, and Marburg University the degree of M.D. She died in 1841.

Bojador, CAPE, a headland on the west coast of Africa, in 26° 7' N. lat., 14° 29' W. long. The Portuguese doubled this cape in 1432.

Bojano, an ancient Italian town with a cathedral, on the Biferno, 13 miles SW. of Campobasso. Pop. 3506.

Bokha'ra is the name given to the countries of Independent Tartary under the rule of the khan (or emir) of Bokhara. The most important part of it formed the ancient Sogdiana. The extent of the khanate of Bokhara has been constantly undergoing changes. Until recently it included the whole basin of the Zarafshan; but the Russians have now annexed Samarkand, and the lower basin of the river forms the essential part of the territory. The population of the present khanate has been estimated at from 1,000,000 to 2,500,000; its area is about 90,000 sq. m.

Only in the neighbourhood of the rivers is cultivation possible. The rest of the soil is composed of a stiff arid clay, interspersed with low sandhills. Bokhara has only three rivers of any importance—the Amu-Daria or Oxus, the Zarafshan, and the Karshi. Entering Bokhara at Kosh-tupa, the Amu flows through the country in a north-west direction to the Sea of Aral. Its banks in some parts are very fertile, especially in the neighbourhood of Balkh. The Zarafshan, which rises among the glaciers of the Alai range, issues out into the plain near Samarkand, and fertilises the district thence to the city of Bokhara. Before reaching the city, it sends out a northern branch, which, after a fertilising course of several miles, is absorbed in the sand. The southern branch, which passes Bokhara to the north, formerly extended to the Lake of Kara-köl, a salt-water sheet about 25 miles in circumference, which is connected with the Amu by irrigating canals; but of recent years its volume has been seriously lessened for purposes of irrigation, and now it, too, is lost among the ever encroaching sands. Its upper banks, however, have been benefited by the process, and its valley is the richest as well as the most populous in Bokhara. The Karshi has a course of about 60 miles before it is also lost in the desert. Outlying provinces of Bokhara, separated by mountains, are Darwaz, Karategin, Hissar, and Kulab.

The climate is healthy, but subject to great extremes of heat and cold. The rains usually commence and end with February. Violent sandstorms are frequent, and occasion ophthalmia among the inhabitants. Minerals are scarce. The sands of the Oxus yield gold. Salt deposits are numerous. Alum and sulphur are found in the vicinity of Samarkand, and sal-ammoniac in the mountainous districts. The other products include rice and cotton, wheat, barley, beet-root, vegetables, hemp—only used in the preparation of *bhung*—silk, fruits in immense abundance, and tobacco. The camel's thorn, a plant that grows luxuriantly in Samarkand and Karshi, exudes a saccharine gum or manna, extensively used as sugar.

Sheep and goats form a great source of wealth. Camels are numerous and valuable; the horses are celebrated for their strength and endurance; and the breed of asses is excellent. Myriads of silkworms are fed on the mulberry-trees that clothe the banks of every stream. The industry includes the manufacture of silk-stuffs, cotton-thread, shagreen, jewelry, cutlery, and firearms. Its geographical position secures Bokhara the transit-trade between Russia and the south of Asia; and the Transcaspian Railway has probably increased the commercial prosperity of the country in proportion as it has lessened its prospect of maintaining its independence. The population, like that of the other khanates of Turkestan, consists chiefly of the aboriginal Tajiks of Persian, and of the dominant Üzbegs and

Turkomans of Turkish origin. Nomadic Arabs and Persian slaves are also numerous. The army numbers about 30,000, formerly badly armed, but since 1885 vigorously drilled by Russian officers, and armed with Berdan rifles.

Bokhara was conquered in the beginning of the 8th century by the Arabs, who were dispossessed of it in 1232 by Genghis Khan. It fell into the hands of Timur in 1403, and in 1505 was taken by the Uzbeks, its present masters. During the 18th century the khans were characterised by the worst abominations of eastern vice and fanaticism; and Bokhara lost its political pre-eminence among the khanates of Turkestan. The canals, which alone gave fertility to the country, were neglected; large areas were again overspread by the desert; and the population diminished. With the accession of the Khan Nasrullah (1826), a barbarous and incapable tyrant, the country became an object of rivalry to England and Russia, who sent envoys to cultivate his friendship (see BURNES); but he and his successor, Mozaffar-ed-din, treated both with equal insolence and contempt. After the capture of Tashkend by the Russians in 1865 (see TURKESTAN), a religious war was preached against the Russians, and the khan was compelled to oppose them. He was defeated at the battle of Irdjar, May 20, 1866; and in May 1868 Samarkand (q.v.), one of the most important cities of Bokhara, was taken. The command of the upper course of the Zarafshan, which fertilises the central part of the country, placed the khan entirely under the power of Russia. In July 1868 a peace was concluded by which Samarkand was ceded to the czar, and stipulations were entered into favourable to Russian trade. The treaty caused great dissatisfaction to the fanatic Mussulmans of Bokhara. They rose in rebellion, placing at their head Abd-ul-Melik Töre, the son and heir of the khan. The Russians aided the khan at his request; and in October the rebels were defeated near Karshi. The rebel prince sought refuge in Afghanistan. Shere Ali, the Afghan ruler, gave him a warm welcome, and would have invaded Bokhara had he not been restrained by Lord Mayo, the Indian viceroy, who told him that England could not encourage him in any attack on his neighbours. While Shere Ali was meditating this invasion, Abdurrahman, his nephew, who had married a daughter of the khan of Bokhara, endeavoured to obtain Russian aid in invading Afghan Turkestan with a Bokharian army. But, in this case, Russia opposed the enterprise (see AFGHANISTAN). During the invasion of Khiva in 1873 the khan efficiently assisted the Russians, and was rewarded by a large addition to his territory from the Khivan possessions on the right bank of the Oxus, under the treaty entered into between Russia and Khiva in July 1873. On the death of Mozaffar-ed-din in 1882 he was succeeded by Abd-ul-Ahad, his younger son, whose mental and physical weakness has rendered him anxious to secure the protection of Russia, and her assistance in governing his country. Since his accession, a Russian political agent has been appointed, and a Russian bank established in Bokhara, and everything points to the early absorption of the country into Russian Turkestan, in which the annexation of Merv in 1884 has practically inclosed it. See Vambéry's *History of Bokhara* (1873), and Lansdell's *Russian Central Asia* (1885).

Bokhara, capital of the above khanate, is situated on a plain a few miles from the Zarafshan, in 39° 48' N. lat., 64° 26' E. long., in the midst of trees and gardens. It is between 8 and 9 miles in circumference, and surrounded by embattled mud walls about 24 feet high, and pierced by eleven gates. The houses, which are small and ill lighted,

are built of sun-burned bricks on a wooden framework; and the roofs of all are flat. The streets are ill paved and very narrow, the widest barely sufficing for the passage of a loaded camel. The palace of the khan occupies an eminence of between 200 and 300 feet in height in the centre of the city. It is surrounded by a brick wall 60 or 70 feet high. The mosques, which are said (fabulously) to be 365 in number, necessarily form one of the greatest features of Bokhara, which is the centre of religious life in Central Asia. The most imposing one occupies a square of 300 feet, and has a cupola 100 feet high, ornamented with blue tiles. Attached to it is a tower of about twice the height, built by Timur, from which criminals are hurled. The city has long been celebrated as a seat of learning, and contains, in addition to a vast number of schools, about 80 colleges, which are attended, it is stated, by some 5000 students; among these, in past times, have been pupils from India, Cashmere, and Chinese Turkestan. A canal intersects the city, but the water, which becomes very scarce in summer, is at all times a source of disease from the filthy state in which it is kept. Bokhara is still the most important commercial town in Central Asia, although the gradual drying up of the Zarafshan, through the Russian irrigation-works at Samarkand, has lessened the population by about a half. Silks, woollens, and swords are manufactured, and large slave-markets are held; but the most striking feature of the town is its numerous bazaars, gorged with the richest wares of Europe and of Asia. Bokhara was in 1888 connected by the Transcasian Railway with Merv, and so with the Caspian ports. The pop. is estimated at 70,000. See TURKESTAN.

Bokhara Clover. See MELLILOT.

Bolan' Pass, a narrow, precipitous gorge, ascending in a generally north-west direction from a point 5 miles NW. of Dadur to the broad plateau of Dasht-i-Bidaulat, in Beluchistan, and lying pretty directly between Sind and Kandahar. Its entrance and its outlet are respectively 800 and 5800 feet above the level of the sea. The total ascent, therefore, is about 5000 feet, which, on a length of barely 55 miles, gives an average of fully 90 feet to the mile. Along the bottom of the pass descends a torrent, now repeatedly bridged by a good military road; and in 1885 86 a railway, 56 miles in length, was laid for military purposes. Over part of it there are three rails, the central one being toothed to catch a cog-wheel on the engine. The route, without being impracticable, is highly defensible in a military point of view, and is commanded by the fortress at Quetta, now British. It is bounded throughout by eminences which sometimes attain a height of 800 feet; and yet, in 1839, a British column of artillery accomplished the whole distance in six days. From the northern outlet there is no fall, and a good road runs to Quetta, 25 miles away.

Bolas (Span., 'balls'), missiles used by the natives and *gauchos* of southern South America, consisting of two heavy balls, generally of stone covered with leather, connected by a plaited thong 6 to 8 feet long. One bola is held in the right hand, while the other is swung rapidly round the head, at the full extent of the thong, and both are discharged at the animal to be captured, so as to wind round its feet, and bring it to the ground. In another form of bolas, there are three balls, not of the same size, connected at the common centre by three short thongs or ropes.

Bolbec, a busy town in the French department of Seine-Inférieure, 19 miles ENE. of Havre by rail. A stream of the same name supplies water-power for several mills, where woollens,

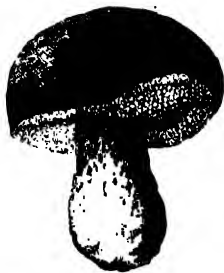
linen, cotton, and chemicals are manufactured. Pop. (1872) 10,009; (1886) 11,102.

Bolchov. See BOLCHOV.

Bole is the term applied to an earthy mineral resembling clay in structure, and consisting essentially of silica, alumina, red oxide of iron, and water. It occurs in nests and veins in basalt and other trap rocks, in Scotland, Ireland, France, Armenia, Italy, Saxony, and South America. It feels more or less greasy when placed between the fingers; is of different colours—yellow, red, brown, and black; has a dull resinous lustre, but a shining streak; is readily friable; and often adheres to the tongue when brought in contact therewith. In water it emits a crackling noise, separating into small pieces with the evolution of air-bubbles. It is not plastic. Armenian bole has a red tint, is often used for colouring false anchovies, and is also employed in colouring tooth-powders. Lennian Earth (containing a large percentage of silica) is the bole from the island of Lemnos; it is red in colour, and was at one time prescribed by medical men as a tonic and astringent medicine; and acted beneficially, no doubt from the large percentage of oxide of iron present. The boles which are employed in veterinary practice in Europe are generally made from Armenian bole. The savage tribes in South America eat bole to allay the pangs of hunger; and the inhabitants of Java use cakes made of it, under the name of *Tinampu*, when they wish to become slender. When bole is calcined, it becomes hard; and when afterwards levigated, a coarse red kind is used as a pigment in Germany under the names of English Red and Berlin Red. French bole is pale red; Bohemian bole, reddish yellow; Silesian bole, pale yellow; and Blois bole is yellow.

Bole'ro, a Spanish national dance, invented in 1780 by the dancer Sebastian Zerezo. It is danced in moderately quick three-quarter time by two persons to the accompaniment of the castanets and the guitar. The name is also applied to the air to which it is danced. Like the *fandango* it is said to be originally a refinement of an African dance still performed by the Congos under the name of *chika*.

Boletus, a genus of Hymenomycete Fungi (q.v.). The older botanists included in it the numerous species now forming the genus *Polyporus* (see AMADOR, DRY ROT, and POLYPORUS) and other genera; but even as now restricted, it includes about one hundred European species. Most of the species resemble the common mushroom and other species of *Agaricus* in general form, but are distinguishable at a glance by the pore-like surface occupying the place of gills. Unlike *Polyporus*, the whole spore-bearing tissue (hymenium) is easily detached. Some of the species



Boletus edulis

are edible. *B. edulis* is much used in France, also in Germany, Hungary, Russia, &c. It is the *ceps ordinaire* of the French markets. It grows on the ground in thin woods of oak, chestnut, or beech, and sometimes in mountainous districts, in places covered with moss, heath, or grass. In moist warm summers it sometimes appears in prodigious quantities. It has also been partially cultivated by inclosing a portion of a wood, and watering the ground with water in which the plant has been steeped, thus, in fact, sowing its minute

spores. In Britain it is comparatively rare. The cap is smooth, 6 or 7 inches across, with a thick margin, varying in colour from light brown to brownish black; the tubes at first white, then yellow, and finally yellowish green; the stem thick and solid, beautifully reticulated. The tubes are removed along with the skin and stem, and only the flesh of the cap is eaten, which is firm, white, delicate, of agreeable smell, and is prepared like the common mushroom, dried to flavour sauces, ragouts, &c., or eaten raw with salt and pepper. It is wholesome and nutritious, and is certainly to be reckoned one of the very best of the edible fungi. —*B. scaber* is another edible British species, but much inferior. —*B. aculeus* is the *ceps noir* of the French markets, and *B. aurantiacus* is the *girolle rouge* or *roussille*. They are used like *B. edulis*. Forms of which the flesh turns blue when broken and exposed to the air, should be avoided as probably poisonous.

Boleyn, ANNE, second wife of Henry VIII., was born in 1507, and was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, afterwards Viscount Rochford and Earl of Wiltshire, by Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the Duke of Norfolk. She spent some three years (1519–21) at the court of France, and soon after her return to England was wooed by Lord Henry Percy, the heir to the earldom of Northumberland, and by King Henry himself, who in the April of 1522 began to shower wealth and honours on her father, and who ere this had dishonoured her sister Mary. Not till the king's divorce from Catharine of Aragon was set afoot (in May 1527) does Anne seem to have favoured his addresses; but long before Cranmer pronounced the divorce (23d May 1533) she was Henry's mistress, and in the preceding January they had been secretly married. She was crowned with great splendour in Westminster Hall on Whitsunday; but within three months Henry bade her 'shut her eyes to his unfaithfulness, as her betters had done, for he could abuse yet more than he had raised her.' His cooling passion was not revived by the birth, in September 1533, of a princess, the famous Elizabeth, still less by that of a still-born son, on 29th January 1536, barely three weeks after the death of Queen Catharine. On next May-day the king rode off abruptly from a tournament held at Greenwich, leaving the queen behind, and on the morrow she was arrested and brought to the Tower. The story runs that his jealousy was kindled by her dropping a handkerchief to one of her lovers in the lists below; anyhow, a week before, a special commission had been secretly engaged in examining into charges of Anne's adultery with her own brother, Lord Rochford, with Sir Francis Weston, Henry Norris, and William Brereton, gentlemen of the privy chamber, and with Mark Smeaton, a musician. Only Smeaton made any confession; but on the 12th the four commoners, on the 15th Anne and her brother, were tried and convicted of high treason. Her own father and her uncle, the Duke of Norfolk, were instrumental in her death, the latter presiding over her judges, the twenty-six peers, and pronouncing her doom. No vestige of the evidence remains. On the 17th Smeaton was hanged, and the other four beheaded; and two days later, upon Tower Green, Anne submitted her slim neck to the executioner's axe. Henry the next day married Jane Seymour. That Anne was guilty of adultery with Henry is certain; that she was guilty of incest with her brother, or even of adultery with her other alleged paramours, remains at least not proven. The character of this 'mother of the English Reformation' was not saintly; but she probably was not the Jezebel that Saunders, the Jesuit, would have us believe.

According to him, she was even in person ugly, misshapen, monstrous; whereas we know that she was a comely brunette, her only defect a supplemental nail. See Hepworth Dixon's *History of Two Queens* (1874); Paul Friedmann's *Anne Boleyn* (2 vols. Lond. 1885); and works cited under HENRY VIII.

Bolgary, a village in the Russian government of Kazan, near the Volga, with about 150 houses. It occupies the site of Bolgar, capital of the old Bulgarian kingdom, remains of which, in the form of ruined buildings, walls, and minarets, yet attest its former state.

Bolgrad, a town in the Russian province of Bessarabia, 28 miles NW. of Ismail, at the head of Lake Yapuch, a feeder of the Danube. It is well built, and has some trade and manufactures of soap, candles, pottery, &c. Pop. (1880) 7530, many Bulgarian.

Boli, an ancient town of Asia Minor, on the left bank of the river Boli, 136 miles E. by S. of Constantinople. Pop. 5000.

Bolide is a name given to a large meteor which explodes and falls in aerolites; a fire-ball. See METEORS.

Bolingbroke, HENRY ST JOHN, VISCOUNT, one of the most gifted of English statesmen and orators, was born at Battersea, on October 1, 1678. He belonged to a good family, and was educated at Eton. The statement which his various biographers have repeated of his having matriculated at Christ College, Oxford, has been disproved by recent research. After travelling on the Continent, he entered parliament in 1701 as member for Wootton Bassett. There were at the time three political parties, the Jacobites, the Tories, and the Whigs. Bolingbroke joined the Tories, and gained immediate distinction by his vigorous and polished eloquence. From 1704 to 1708 he was Secretary for War in the Godolphin ministry; in 1710 he became Foreign Secretary, and shared the leadership of the party with Harley. He was called to the House of Lords in 1712, and in 1713 he negotiated the Peace of Utrecht. This was the one act of his political career which was of benefit to his country. It did not, however, bring him popularity as a statesman, and he estranged his followers by his morbid love of secret scheming, his desire to do everything alone and in the dark. After plotting successfully for Harley's downfall, he set to work to form a Jacobite ministry in July 1714. A week afterwards his designs were shattered by the death of Queen Anne. George I. came to the throne, and Bolingbroke, who had intrigued on behalf of the Stuart cause, fled to France. He was attainted in 1715, and acted for some time as Secretary of State to the Pretender. While living abroad he wrote his *Reflections on Exile*, and addressed a letter to Sir William Wyndham, in vindication of his political career. His first wife, a daughter of Sir Henry Winchcomb, having died in 1718, he married in 1720 the rich widow of the Marquis de Vilette. By the shrewd use which he made of this lady's wealth, he obtained permission to return to England, where he was not allowed, however, to sit in the House of Lords. He then settled at Dawley, near Uxbridge, and became the associate of Pope, Swift, and other men of letters. It was his ambition to be ranked among philosophers, but the ethical studies in which he engaged could not wean his attention from politics. He intrigued in London for an office which he never obtained, and attacked Walpole with the utmost bitterness in a series of letters which appeared in the *Craftsman*, and were reprinted as *A Dissertation on Parties*. Disappointed in his hopes of readmission to political life, he returned to France, where he

remained from 1735 to 1742. During these years he produced *A Letter on the True Use of Retirement*, and his most important contribution to literature—the *Letters on the Study of History*. The precepts which he laid down for the historian's guidance were indorsed by Voltaire and carried into practice by Macaulay. Bolingbroke's last years were spent at Battersea, where he wrote his *Letters on the Spirit of Patriotism*, and his *Idea of a Patriot King*. He died, after a long illness, on the 12th December 1751. 'The Alcibiades of his time,' Bolingbroke is one of the most interesting and brilliant figures in English history. He was idolised by his contemporaries for the grace of his person, the charm of his manner, and the splendour of his talents. An admirable speaker and writer, he was not a great statesman—hardly a skilful party leader. He was the arch-intriguer of his time; as a politician he was thoroughly selfish and insincere. In his writings he preached a double morality; while he considered Christianity a fable, he held that a statesman ought to profess the doctrines of the Church of England. His philosophy is sensational; and as a cynical critic of revealed religion, he was accounted one of the notable English deists. His works, philosophical and political, are written in an oratorical strain. They are models of polished, pointed, declamatory prose. They deserve to be studied if only for the merit of the style; their matter is of less interest, but their wit retains its edge, and their eloquence its glow. Bolingbroke's collected works were published by David Mallet in 1753-54. See Brosch, *Lord Bolingbroke und die Whigs und Tories seiner Zeit* (1883), and *Bolingbroke, a Historical Study*, by John Churton Collins (1886).

Bolivar, the name of several states and territories of South America.—(1) A state of Colombia, lying W. of the Magdalena. Area, 21,345 sq. m.; pop. officially estimated in 1887 at 300,000. The surface is mostly low and well watered, with many swamps; the climate in some parts is hot and unhealthy. Capital, Cartagena; chief port, Barranquilla.—(2) The largest of the United States of Venezuela, extending across the centre of the country from Colombia to the Atlantic. Area, 88,383 sq. m.; pop. (1884) 267,251, in which are included some sparsely settled districts around. The state is better known as Guayana; for its capital, Ciudad Bolivar, see ANGOSTURA.—(3) A national territory of Colombia; pop. 7751.—(4) An agricultural settlement of Venezuela, 30 miles NE. of Caracas, founded in 1874 to receive immigrants.—(5) One of the new territories of Buenos Ayres, 170 miles SW. of the capital. Area, 2070 sq. m.; pop. 2055.

Bolivar, SIMON (named *El Libertador* for having rescued South America from the Spanish yoke), was born in Caracas, in what is now Venezuela, July 24, 1783, and was descended from a noble and wealthy family. He studied law at Madrid, and visited several other capitals, witnessing in Paris the closing scenes of the Revolution. In 1801 he returned to Caracas, but on the death of his young wife he came to Europe again in 1804, and in 1809 visited the United States, from which he returned with the determination to free his country from foreign despotism. Arriving in Venezuela, he at once associated himself with the patriots there; and after the insurrection at Caracas in 1810, he was sent to London with a view to interest the British cabinet in their aims. The British government, however, declaring its neutrality, Bolivar speedily returned. On the declaration of independence by Venezuela on July 5, 1811, war was commenced by the Spaniards, and

Bolívar fought under General Miranda in several successful engagements. The royalists having again obtained possession of Venezuela, Bolívar had to flee to Curaçao; but in September 1812 he joined the insurgents in New Granada, and driving the Spaniards back beyond the Magdalena, recrossed the frontier with a force of 500 men, and proclaimed a war to the death. His army increased with each victory; and on August 4, 1813, he entered Caracas as a conqueror, and proclaimed himself dictator of western Venezuela. Fortune soon deserted the patriots, however; in June 1814 they were routed at Cura, and 1500 slain. Bolívar was compelled to retire to Cartagena, and, after some further service in New Granada, to Kingston in Jamaica, where an assassin, hired by the Spaniards, tracked his steps, but by mistake murdered his secretary. Having visited Hayti, and assembled there the insurgent refugees (1816), Bolívar twice landed in Venezuela; he was finally compelled to flee to Barcelona, and there formed a provisional government. The following two years were marked by a series of conflicts in which the scattered parties of patriots were most frequently beaten. In 1819 a congress was opened at Angostura, and Bolívar was confirmed in the supreme power. Having conducted his army, of which the British legion formed a third, over the almost impassable Cordilleras to New Granada, he achieved the victories of Tunja and Boyaca, and soon afterwards declared New Granada united with Venezuela as a republic, under the name of Colombia. Nevertheless, although Bolívar had a force at least twice as large as Morillo, the dissensions of the patriots prevented any concerted action, and it was only in June 1821 that the victory of Carabobo virtually ended the war in Venezuela; while it was not till July 1824 that the royalist troops were finally driven out of the country. The constitution of Colombia was adopted on August 30, 1821, and Bolívar was chosen president.

In 1822 Bolívar added Ecuador to the republic, and was summoned to help the Peruvians. Bolívar was named dictator of Peru, from which possession also the Spaniards were driven, after more than two years' fighting. In 1825 Bolívar visited Upper Peru, the name of which was changed in his honour to Bolivia. A constitution prepared by him in 1826, at the request of the Bolivians, excited dissatisfaction and even alarm, chiefly on account of its proposal to intrust the executive power to a president for life, without responsibility, and with power to name his successor. In September he intrusted the government of Peru to a council appointed by himself, and returned to quell a disturbance in Venezuela. His personal influence prevailed, and he was re-elected president, in spite of his expressed unwillingness; but meantime, in Peru his famous code had been renounced, and the Colombian troops had been expelled from Bolivia. His assumption of supreme power in August 1828 roused the apprehension of the republicans; the dread of a second Napoleon led to a conspiracy against his life; and in November 1829 Venezuela separated itself from Colombia. In consequence, Bolívar laid down his authority in April 1830, when the congress of Bogotá, now largely made up of his enemies, voted him a pension of 3000 dollars, on condition of his residing abroad. He died at San Pedro, near Santa Marta, 17th December 1830. Bolívar has been described as the Washington of South America. The difficulties of the war of liberation compelled him to assume a dictator's power, but there is no proof that he was ever insincere in his devotion to liberty; and in the service of his country he not only gained no wealth, but freely spent his own large fortune. In

1842 his remains were removed with great pomp to Caracas, where a monument has been erected to his memory; statues have been raised to him at Bogotá, Lima, and New York; and the Liberator's centenary was celebrated at Caracas with great enthusiasm in 1883, when sixteen foreign states were represented at the various functions, which extended over forty days.

Bolivia, a republican state on the west side of South America, formed in 1825, and deriving its name from Bolívar. Formerly called Upper Peru, it was till 1825 part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. It extends between 8° and 23° S. lat., and 57° 30' and 73° W. long., and is inclosed by Peru, Brazil, Paraguay, the Argentine Republic, and Chili. A portion of the Argentine frontier has been for some time undetermined. Its coast provinces Bolivia lost to Chili in consequence of the war between Bolivia and Peru with Chili in 1879-83. The area of the republic—842,729 sq. m. in 1869 was estimated in 1888 at only 438,175 sq. m., which is still, however, almost four times that of the United Kingdom; meanwhile the population has risen from 1,987,352 in 1858 to 2,303,000, of whom rather more than half are native Indians.

Surface and Hydrography.—Prior to the treaty of 1884, Bolivia contained the loftiest and most mountainous district of America; but as since then her western frontier has been bounded by the Andes, this claim would now be only partly true. The Peruvian frontier is, however, unchanged; and the lofty plateau of Oruro, with an average height of 13,000 feet, and about 150 miles broad, is inclosed between the Andes proper and the Cordillera Real, to the east. There are also intermediate ranges and isolated groups; and the volcanoes, confined to the western region, include Sahuana, Illimani, and Illimani, all over 21,000 feet high. The great plateau falls into two parts, of which the northern is the more inhabited, the Lake of Titicaca and the many well-watered valleys around making the district not so unproductive as its great elevation would otherwise render it. This lake, with an area of more than 3200 sq. m., and a depth of 120 fathoms, incloses several islands, the largest of which was the home of the founders of the empire of the Incas. The Rio Desaguadero, with a course of 160 miles, connects it with the salt lake and swamps of Anllagas or Paria, scarcely one-third the size of Titicaca; and somewhat to the west lies the Laguna de Coipasa, a basin covered, in the dry season, with a thick crust of salt. The southern and lower tableland is chiefly a desert, where the mountain streams either sink into the sand, or flood, in the rainy season, what are salt pampas throughout the rest of the year. The Cordillera Real system descends abruptly, on the north, to the plain of the Amazon; but its eastern edge is a series of terraces, sinking gently to the plains of eastern Bolivia, which in the north belong to the Amazon basin, and in the south to the pampas of the Plata. This eastern region is a cradle of both rivers, gathering for the latter the Pileomayo, with its tributary streams, which flows through the Gran Chaco to feed the Paraguay, and for the former the Guapey or Rio Grande, which afterwards becomes the Mamoré, and unites with the Beni (q.v.) to form the Madeira. See AMERICA, ANDES.

Climate and Vegetation.—Although situated entirely within the tropics, Bolivia, from its varied elevation, possesses a wide range of climate and productions. The regions with an elevation of over 11,000 feet are called *punas*, while the *puna brava* is the region of snow and ice above 12,500 feet. This division includes the whole tableland of Oruro and the loftier mountain peaks. The

climate is cold and dry, but generally healthy, in spite of the cutting winds, the extreme rarity of the atmosphere, and the occasional days of great heat, followed by bitterly cold nights. Vegetation is scanty, and cultivation mainly confined to potatoes, barley, and coarse grasses, which maintain the animals of this zone. Here, and in the higher parts of the next region, the dry and rainy seasons are distinguished, the latter extending from November to March. The *cabezeras de valles* are the heads of valleys descending to the lowlands, in the eastern terraces, between 9500 and 11,000 feet; the deeper valleys, between 5000 and 9500 feet, are called *medio yungas*. The former have a temperate climate, and wheat and maize are produced in large quantities; in the latter, tropical fruits begin to flourish. East of the inner Cordillera lie the *yungas*, or plains under the 5000 feet limit. This district, with its numerous streams, its luxuriant tropical vegetation, its rich forests of valuable trees in the north, and its immense open savannahs in the south, surpasses most countries of South America in fertility and resources. Coffee, rice, cacao, coca, pine-apples, bananas, tobacco, cotton, and the valuable cinchona are cultivated; and among other important plants are the copal and caoutchouc trees. The rainfall here is uncertain. Intermittent fevers are confined to the northern plains, where the overflowing rivers and rank vegetation are added to a hot and moist atmosphere.

Animals.—In the *pinus* are found the guanaco, llama, alpaca, and vicuña—animals almost as independent of water as the camel—and the chinchilla; in the east, jaguars, tapirs, and other wild animals common to Brazil. The first three are prized for their skins, and are also largely employed as beasts of burden; the vicuña yields a long, soft wool; and the chinchilla skins also form a valuable article of commerce. Large numbers of sheep are herded in the highlands, and of cattle in the plains.

Minerals.—While agriculture and stock-raising have never received proper attention in Bolivia, the development of its mineral resources has always been the most important industry of the country; for its great yields of gold, silver, copper, and tin ores have for centuries given a large profit, in spite of the excessive cost of transport. The mines of Potosi, which have been worked since 1545, are estimated to have produced, up to the present, over £600,000,000 sterling of silver. Since the war of independence (1809-25), the industry has been practically uninterrupted, and specially fostered by favourable fiscal regulations. The want of good roads or accessible seaports, and a lack of better fuel than llama-dung or moss, have seriously impeded the work; but the approach of railways, and the discovery of coal in several provinces, promise to remove these checks. Consequently, a great revival in mining enterprise has been noticeable since 1883, many abandoned mines having been reopened. Potosi still produces about 2,800,000 ounces; Oruro yields as much; and the richest mine, Huanchaca, to the south-west of Potosi, more than twice that amount. The product of all the silver-mines is estimated at over £3,000,000 annually. Lead and quicksilver are frequently found along with the silver. Gold-mining has been abandoned, except by the Indians, who carry it on in a primitive way; but the metal is still washed in grains from the rivers of the eastern slope and foot-hills of the Cordillera Real. The rich copper-mines have recently been less worked, chiefly owing to difficulties of transportation.

Commerce, Communication, &c.—From the landlocked position of the republic, its foreign trade labours under heavy disadvantages, which the nature of its great rivers, rendered unnavigable by

rapids, has increased. An uninterrupted route was reported to have been discovered in 1887, by the Acquir, Purus, and Amazon; but as this would connect Brazil only with the extreme north of Bolivia, beyond the Madre de Dios, its practical value is doubtful. More is to be hoped for from the railways, which are now steadily approaching the country from the south. Prior to the Chilian war, its favourite marts were the Peruvian port of Arica and its own Cobija, in Atacama. But both Argentine and Brazil having granted gratuitous egress through their ports, a great part of Bolivia's productions have since been drained through these countries, chiefly the former. In order to restore the trade to the Pacific, a railway is being rapidly pushed forward from the now Chilian port of Antofagasta; in 1886 it reached the Rio Loa at Santa Barbara. In 1887 the Paraguayan government granted a concession for a line by the Pilemayo to Bolivia and Peru; in the same year concessions were granted by the Argentine Republic to two contractors, for parallel routes through the Gran Chaco, and another road approached Jujuy. A railway to connect Potosi with the Argentine frontier is also projected; meanwhile, the bulk of the trade of La Paz is still by rail to Aygacha (50 miles), and by steamer across Lake Titicaca to Puno, in Peru, and thence by rail to Mollendo. Concessions granted in 1868, for opening up the Mamoré and Madeira to navigation, have produced no result, although the Brazilian government is reported to be willing to render the Madeira navigable for 400 miles from its junction with the Amazon, and to levy no transit dues. The La Paz-Aygacha is the only railway in Bolivia; but in 1886 there were about 400 miles of telegraph lines, mostly connecting with the Argentine system. Recent customs returns there are none, but a careful estimate would give the annual value of exports at slightly over £2,000,000, and of imports at about £1,400,000. Two-thirds of the exports consist of silver. In 1885 there were shipped to various countries through Arica 555 tons of copper, 796 tons of copper ore, 515 tons of tin, and 588 tons of silver in bars and ore. The exports to Great Britain amounted in 1886 to £190,619; the imports from thence amounted to £53,594, being chiefly iron, cotton, woollen, and manufactured goods. A considerable trade is carried on also with Germany and France, but there is no direct commerce with the United States. Bolivian manufactures are very backward, firearms and brandy alone showing any recent advance; but the coca and cinchona plantations are attracting a great deal of attention and capital. In 1885 there were over 5,000,000 cinchona-trees, yielding 200,000 lb. of bark; and the coca-leaf is in large demand, both for home consumption and for export.

Population.—The population of Bolivia is a mixture of various races, half-caste Spaniards and Indians, with some descendants of negro slaves formerly brought from Africa. About a third of the people live in the towns, the remainder in hamlets or in the *Compañia*. All the Indians are divided into three classes—civilised, semi-civilised, and wild. To the first belong the Quechua and Aymará Indians, chiefly inhabiting the highlands of the west. The former are direct descendants of the Incas, whose language and manners they preserve, and form 50 per cent. of the pure native population; the Aymará are a kindred race, about half as numerous. They are devout Catholics, mild in character, apathetic, with more endurance than energy, and are mostly *arrieros*, or drivers of llama-trains, or engaged in llama and sheep raising and rude agriculture. The second division is filled by the Chiquito and Moxos Indians of the great north-eastern llanos, who retain part of the

civilisation introduced by the Jesuits in the 17th century; while the several tribes of nomadic Indians inhabiting the eastern plains belong to the third. These last are quite wild, but although more or less maliciously disposed towards the Spanish race, their dislike seldom finds expression in overt acts; and in consequence, travel in Bolivia is comparatively safe. The half-bred population is about a third as numerous as the pure Indian; the *cholos*, a Spanish and Indian mixture, form the most important element, and to them Bolivia largely owes her independence. The religion of the country is Roman Catholic, but others are tolerated; there are four dioceses, including an archbishopric of La Plata. Education is extremely backward. Of the four universities, three are for law students alone; and in 1884 only 5 per cent. of the children of school age attended the schools. Consequently, literature is at a low ebb in Bolivia, and its few newspapers have the least weight of any in South America.

Government, &c.—According to the constitution, the executive is vested in a president, with two vice-presidents, and a ministry divided into five departments; while the legislature consists of a congress of two chambers, the Senate and the House of Representatives, both elected by universal suffrage. In practice, the law requiring the election of the president every four years has seldom been observed; and since the presidency of General Santa Cruz (from May 1828 to January 1839), the history of Bolivia is a record of military insurrections, the supreme power having been almost invariably seized by successful commanders. There have been no returns of the actual revenue and expenditure for several years; in the budget for 1887–88 the receipts are calculated at £610,965, the expenditure at £733,159. The public debt is set down at about £6,000,000, including a 'forced war loan' to equip troops against Chili, and a foreign debt of £1,700,000, contracted in England in 1872 to open up the Madeira route. The United States consul-general, however, returned the total debt in 1884 at £2,540,185, of which the foreign debt amounted to £1,444,432; and a general uncertainty, in which the Bolivian government seems to share, apparently exists as to the precise amount. Some two-thirds of the annual revenue is expended on the standing army, which consists of about 1400 men, commanded by 8 generals and 1013 other officers.* Bolivia is divided into fourteen provinces. The seat of the executive government, formerly La Paz, was transferred in 1809 to Oruro, and is now at Sucre. The chief towns are La Paz (26,000), Cochabamba (14,705), Chuquisaca or Sucre (12,000), and Potosi (11,000).

Bolivia declared its independence 6th August 1825, and took the name of Bolivia on the 11th of that month. The first congress met in the following year, and adopted a constitution prepared by Bolivar (q.v.), which has since, however, been greatly modified. The subsequent history of the state has been largely a series of restless and purposeless revolutions. Slavery was abolished in 1836. In 1879 a war broke out between Chili and Bolivia allied with Peru, of which the issue was disastrous to the allies. The terms of peace were severe, and stripped Bolivia of her seaboard district, with its stores of nitre and guano, besides demanding a heavy war indemnity.

Bolkhov, a cathedral city of Russia, on the river Nugra, 37 miles N. of Orel. It manufactures leather, gloves, hosiery, and soap, and has an active trade in tallow, hemp, oil, fruit, and vegetables. Pop. (1883) 26,395.

Boll, a measure of capacity for grain, &c., used in Scotland and the North of England. In Scot-

land it is usually equivalent to 6 imperial bushels, but in England it varies from that to 2 bushels—the 'new boll.' It is also a measure of weight, containing, for flour, 10 stone (= 140 lb.). The word is pronounced *bow* in modern Scotch; being entirely a northern word, it may be distinct from the English *bolc*, and be rather an old Norse word—the Scandinavian equivalent of the old English *bolle*, modern *bowl*. See a table of its local values in *Old Country and Farming Words* (English Dialect Society, 1880).

Bollandists, an association or succession of Jesuits by whom the *Acta Sanctorum* (q.v.), or Lives of the Saints of the Christian Church, were collected and published (1643–1794). They received their name from JOHN BOLLAND, born in the Netherlands 1596, died 1665, who edited the first 5 vols., containing the month of January in 2 vols. published in 1643, and the month of February in 3 vols. published in 1658. The vast undertaking had been projected by a Flemish Jesuit, Heribert Rosweyd, and on his death in 1629 his collections were intrusted to Bolland, who established himself in Antwerp, opened a correspondence all over Europe, and associated young men of his order with himself in the work. The suppression of the Jesuit order in 1773 caused the removal of the Bollandist Society to the monastery of Coudenberg, in Brussels, till the persecutions under Joseph II. brought about its dissolution. In 1789 the abbey of Tongerlo in Brabant took up the colossal task of carrying on the *Acta Sanctorum*; but scarcely had the 53d volume appeared in May 1794, bringing the calendar down to October 6, when the French occupation, and their destruction of the MSS. collections, put an end to the work. In 1837 a new Bollandist association of Jesuits was formed under the patronage of the Belgian government, which set aside a yearly sum of 6000 francs for this object, and in 1845 the 54th volume appeared. Upwards of 60 volumes have now appeared (the part published in December 1887 carrying the work into November); and there is thus a prospect of the completion of this vast work, of which Gibbon has truly said, that 'through the medium of fable and superstition it communicates much historical and philosophical instruction.' A new edition, in 61 vols., was published in Paris (1863–67), and since 1882 supplements, with facsimiles of the more valuable MSS., have appeared at Paris and Brussels, under the title *Analecta Bollandiana*. See SAINTS.

Bologna, one of the most ancient cities of Italy, beautifully situated on a fertile plain at the foot of the lower slopes of the Apennines, 82 miles N. of Florence, and 135 SE. of Milan by rail. An irregular hexagon, it is inclosed by a high brick wall, 5 to 6 miles in extent, with twelve gates, and is intersected by the canal of Reno, while, on either side, the rivers Reno and Savena sweep past its walls. The streets in the newer parts of the city are spacious and well paved, with rich and varied colonnades, affording shelter alike from sun and rain; in the older portion, the streets are narrow and dirty, and the arcades correspondingly low and gloomy. The city is adorned with many fine palaces of the nobility, which are rich in fresco paintings by the great masters. Pre-eminently worthy of notice are the Palazzo Pubblico, and the Palazzo del Podestà. The former contains some fine frescoed rooms and galleries; the latter is interesting as having been the prison and death-scene, in 1272, of Enzo, the son of the Emperor Frederick II., and also as containing the archives of the city. There are numerous and important charitable institutions. The great feature of Bologna, however, is its religious

edifices, which are remarkable both for the beauty of their architecture, and the abundance and splendour of the art-treasures they contain. It has more than 70 churches, the most remarkable of which are San Stefano, which is rich in reliefs, Madonnas, and Byzantine frescoes of the 11th and 12th centuries; San Petronio—which, though unfinished, is the largest church in the town—a noble specimen of Italian Gothic, with a meridian traced on the floor by the astronomer Cassini, and numerous masterpieces both in sculpture and in painting; San Domenico, where the founder of the order lived and died, and where his tomb has been richly ornamented by Michael Angelo and others; and the cathedral dedicated to St Peter, also rich in works of art. In the centre of the city are two remarkable leaning towers, constructed about the beginning of the 12th century: the Asinella, with a height of 274 feet, and an inclination of 3 feet 4 inches, and the Garisenda, with an elevation of 137 feet, and a lean of 8 feet 2 inches. The university of Bologna, the oldest in Europe, claims to have been founded in 425; it certainly dates as a law-school from the 11th century. Its reputation early became so great, chiefly on account of its school of jurisprudence, that students from all parts of Europe were attracted to it. In 1262 the number receiving instruction is stated to have been 10,000, and it was found necessary to appoint professors specially for the students from each country. Medicine has long been the principal study, and the discovery of Galvanism by one of its professors has shed a lustre on the university, which is also celebrated as the earliest school for the practice of dissection of the human body, as well as for the fact, that for centuries learned female professors have prelected within its walls. Though the students now number less than 900, the university still holds a first rank among Italian educational institutions; its eighth centenary was celebrated in 1888. Bologna also possesses an academy of music of some note (1805), at which Rossini studied. The university library contains 160,000 vols. and 6000 MSS., many of which are very rare and valuable, and there is besides a city library of 120,000 vols. The Accademia delle Belle Arti is particularly rich in the works of those native artists who founded the far-famed Bolognese school of painting, and it has also some fine specimens of other schools. Bologna has given 8 popes and more than 200 cardinals to the Church. There are some important manufactures, including silk goods, velvet, crape, wax candles, musical instruments, chemical products, paper, cards, and sausages almost as celebrated as its paintings. Pop. (1872) 115,957; (1881) 103,998.

Bologna owes its origin, which is said to be much more remote than that of Rome, to the Etruscans, by whom it was called *Felsina*. It was afterwards, as *Bononia*, the chief town of the Boii, from whom it was taken by the Romans and made a colony (189 B.C.). After the fall of the Roman empire, it passed into the hands of the Lombards, from whom it was taken by the Franks. Charlemagne made it a free city, and the citizens were afterwards invested with the choice of their own judges, consuls, and magistrates. The feuds of the Guelph and Ghibelline factions led in 1506 to the downfall of the republic, and the supremacy of the papal see. In 1796 Bologna was taken by the French, and was constituted the chief town of the Cisalpine Republic; in 1815 it reverted to the pope. In 1848 the Austrians vainly attempted to obtain possession of the town; in the following year, however, they captured it after a ten days' siege. From the commencement of the Italian campaign of 1859, the Bolognese gave an active sympathy to

the national cause; intimated their intention of placing themselves under the rule of Victor Emmanuel; and when the question of annexation to Italy, or separate government, was submitted to the universal vote of the people, in March 1860, the votes for annexation were 1000 to 1.—The *Province of Bologna* forms part of the *compartimento* of Emilia. It is very fertile, and its numerous small streams and canals are largely utilised in the irrigation of rice-fields. Large numbers of silkworms are reared. Area, 1380 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 457,474. See Burton's *Etruscan Bologna* (1876). For the Bolognese School of painting, see CARACCI, PAINTING.

Bologna Phial, or PHILOSOPHICAL PHIAL, is a short, thick, narrow glass vessel, close at one end, and open at the other, which the glass-blower prepares from each pot of metal before employing it in the fashioning of tumblers, glasses, bottles, &c. (see GLASS). It serves the purpose of enabling the glass-manufacturer to judge of the colour and other conditions of the fused glass or metal; and as the flask is not subjected to annealing, it is very friable, and a small angular fragment of any mineral allowed to drop into it, at once causes it to fly in pieces. It is curious to notice, however, that a Bologna phial will bear a very heavy blow on the outside without being fractured.

Bologna Stone, or BONONIAN STONE. In the end of the 16th or beginning of the 17th century, Vincent Casciorolo, a shoemaker of Bologna, made the very remarkable discovery that the mineral now known as heavy spar (barium sulphate), which is found near Bologna (as it is in a great many other places), when reduced to a fine powder mixed with gum, dried, and strongly heated in a covered crucible, is converted into a substance having the property of shining in the dark. Casciorolo mentioned his discovery (1602) to the alchemist Scipio Begatello and the mathematician Maginus, and the latter made the substance (first called by its discoverer '*cupis solaris*,' but soon from the place where it was prepared, '*the Bologna, or Bononian Stone*') famous by the specimens which he sent about. Peter Potier (or Poteras), a French chemist resident in Bologna, first published (1622) a recipe for making it.

The substance is essentially sulphide of barium, but its phosphorescent character depends very much on the way in which it is prepared, and many processes have been described. It shines in the dark only if it has previously been shone on, seeming slowly to give out the light it has absorbed. The now well-known 'luminous paint' is made up of this or of other similar and similarly prepared sulphides. See PHOSPHORESCENCE.

Bolometer, an instrument invented (1881) by Professor Langley for the measurement of the intensity of radiant heat. It consists essentially of a Wheatstone's Bridge (q.v.), arranged so that no current passes through the galvanometer. The arms of the bridge are made of a substance the resistance of which varies greatly with the temperature. Hence, if one arm be exposed to radiation from which the other is screened, the galvanometer needle will be at once deflected. The instrument may be made much more sensitive than a thermopile. A good one can measure variations of temperature of $\frac{1}{100000}$ th of a degree centigrade, and can detect a variation of $\frac{1}{1000000}$ th.

Bolor-Tagh is a lofty border-ridge of the Pamir plateau, ranging SW. to NE., which falls abruptly to Kashgaria (see ASIA, PAMIR, TURKESTAN). There was near this an ancient kingdom of Bolor; see *Proceedings of Geographical Society, for 1881*.

Bolsena (ancient *Volsinii*), a town in the province of Rome, on the north shore of the Lake of Bolsena (*Lacus Volsinensis*), 20 miles NNW. of Viterbo. It now has only 2200 inhabitants; but prior to 280 B.C. it was a place of great importance, forming one of the twelve Etruscan cities. At Bolsena, in 1203, a doubting priest was said to have been convinced of the truth of the doctrine of transubstantiation, by witnessing the flow of blood from the Host he had just consecrated; and in commemoration of this miracle (the subject of a masterpiece), Urban IV. instituted, in 1264, the festival of Corpus Christi. Half a mile from Bolsena are a few traces of the Etruscan city, and many fragments of the later Roman one remain.—The Lake of Bolsena is a fine expanse of water about 10 miles long and 8 broad, but its shores are very unhealthy. It occupies a volcanic hollow. The Marta River carries its waters into the Mediterranean. It has two islands, Bisentina and Martana, which were favourite autumnal retreats of Pope Leo X.

Bolsward, an old town of Friesland, 15 miles SW. from Leeuwarden. It has a fine Gothic church. Pop. (1883) 5939.

Bolton, or BOLTON-LE-MOORS, an important English manufacturing town and parliamentary and municipal borough in South Lancashire, on the Croud, 11 miles NW. of Manchester. The river Croud divides the town into Great and Little Bolton. It was celebrated as far back as the time of Henry VIII. for its cotton and its woollen manufactures, introduced by Flemish clothiers in the 14th century. Emigrants from France and the Palatinate of the Rhine subsequently introduced new branches of manufacture; and the improvements in cotton-spinning of the middle of the 18th century rapidly increased the trade of the town. Though Arkwright was at one time a resident, and Crompton was born and all his life lived in the parish of Bolton, the opposition of the working-classes long retarded the adoption, in the town, of their inventions—the spinning-frame and the mule. Bolton, containing more than 100 cotton-mills, with about 4 million of spindles, is now one of the principal seats of the cotton manufacture in Lancashire. Muslins, fine calicoes, quiltings, counterpanes, dimities, &c. are manufactured. There are also extensive foundries and iron-works, bleaching-mills, chemical works, paper-mills, and numerous dye-works. Bolton parish has numerous coal-mines. There are public reference and lending libraries and museum, town cemeteries, public park and recreation grounds, town-hall, which cost in all £170,250, opened in 1873, market-hall, fish-market, exchange, mechanics' institute, and many churches and schools. The cost of bringing the water from Entwistle Moor, a distance of 5 miles, was, up till 1887, £766,270. Bolton is an important railway centre, being a principal station on the London and North-western and the Lancashire and Yorkshire railways. It is the birthplace of the daily evening press (*Bolton Evening News*), and has now three evening and three weekly newspapers. During the Civil War, the Parliament garrisoned Bolton; in 1644 it was stormed by the Earl of Derby. A canal was made from Manchester to Bolton in 1791. Pop. (1871) 92,655; (1881) 105,973. Since 1832 it has returned two members to parliament.

Bolton Abbey, Yorkshire, is situated in a highly picturesque district on the river Wharfe, 6 miles E. of Skipton, and 18 NW. of Leeds. Founded for Augustinian canons about 1150, it has been celebrated by Wordsworth in *The White Doe of Rylstone* and *The Force of Prayer*. The remains range from Early English to Perpendicular; and the nave of the church has been restored

for service. The old barn of the abbey is still in use; and the gateway, familiar through Landseer's picture, has been incorporated in Bolton Hall, a modern seat of the Duke of Devonshire.

Bolus (Gr. *bolos*, 'a hump'), a soft mass of any kind of medicine, intended to be swallowed at once. It differs from a pill in being larger.

Boma, the capital of the Congo State (q.v.).

Bo'marsund, a Russian fortress on Aland Island (q.v.), commanding the Gulf of Bothnia. In August 1854 it was destroyed by an Anglo-French force, after a six days' bombardment. The Treaty of Paris bound Russia not to restore it.

Bomb, BOMB-SHELL, or SHELL, is a hollow projectile, usually of cast iron, fired from a mortar or other large piece of ordnance, filled with gunpowder, and fitted with a time-fuse, which causes it to burst at any required instant after it is fired. The fragments are most destructive both to men and material, and the flame of the explosion sets fire to anything inflammable with which it comes into contact—even earthen parapets are much damaged by bombs, which, lodging in them and then bursting, have the same effects as a mine sprung under them. Such projectiles were formerly fired from mortars only; but all modern pieces of artillery now fire them. The name *shell* has, however, been generally substituted for that of *bomb*, especially since the introduction of rifled guns firing elongated projectiles. The largest spherical bomb ever made is 26 inches in diameter and weighs 21 cwt., for Mallet's gigantic mortar, now in Woolwich Arsenal, but only a few were ever fired, as the mortar was found to be too weak to bear the shock of discharge. The 13-inch is the largest spherical shell in ordinary use. It weighs about 195 lb., with a thickness of metal varying from 1½ to 2 inches at different parts; it bursts with about 8 lb. of powder. The 10-inch bomb, weighing about 90 lb., is proportionately less in all dimensions than that just described; and so on for those of smaller diameters. The smallest is the hand-grenade of 3 lb. weight. The elongated projectiles used with modern heavy guns, some weighing as much as three-quarters of a ton, are all hollow, and used as bombs. See SHELL, MORTAR.

Bomba was an opprobrious epithet bestowed in Italy on Ferdinand II. of Naples (1810-59), in consequence of his cruel bombardment of Naples, Messina, and other cities of his realm during the revolutionary troubles of 1849.

Bombard, a kind of cannon in use about the close of the 14th century and later, short, thick, and wide in the bore, sometimes capable of throwing balls of stone of 200 and even 500 lb. weight.

Bombardier, the lowest non-commissioned officer in the British artillery, ranking with corporals in the infantry and cavalry. The name was applied in the 17th and 18th centuries to a man employed about the mortars and howitzers—pieces of ordnance employed in bombarding.

Bombardier Beetle, a name given to several species of beetles, of the genera *Brachinus* and *Aptinus*, in the sub-family Carabidae. The name refers to their offensive and defensive habit of discharging an acrid volatile fluid with explosive force from the abdomen. Some ants and other insects exhibit the same curious protective device. The discharge has a pungent odour, acid and caustic properties, and evaporates with effervescence in the air. These beetles are usually found under stones or at tree roots, often in great companies. The larger and more brilliant species are tropical. Several small species of *Brachinus* are natives of England. The most common English species is only about four lines long. When

roughly handled, it will make more than a dozen discharges in rapid succession.

Bombardment is an attack upon a fortress or fortified town by means of shells, red-hot shot, carcasses, rockets, &c., to destroy the fortifications, burn the houses, and kill the people. It is most likely to be successful against a place destitute of bomb-proof cover; or one having a large civil population. A bombardment is a cruel operation, especially when, as is often the case, it is directed against the civilians and their buildings, as a means of inducing or compelling the governor to surrender the place, and terminate their miseries. It requires little engineering science; whereas a regular siege, which is a much slower process, requires the aid of engineers to direct the attack against fortifications, guns, and soldiery, leaving the inhabitants and buildings untouched. In modern times, a bombardment is generally adopted as an adjunct to a siege, distracting the garrison by an incessant fire from mortars and heavy guns day and night. At Sebastopol, for instance, the mortars fired shells into the centre of the city, while the forts were cannonaded by the siege-guns. A bombardment is more frequently a naval than a military operation, and in that case is undertaken without an investment, or any intention of capturing the place, but simply with the object of destroying it. The stores required for a vigorous bombardment are immense. Thus, in 1759 Rodney threw 20,000 shells and carcasses into Havre; in 1792 the Duke of Saxe-Teschen threw 36,000 shot and shell into Lille in 140 hours; in 1795 Pichegrin threw 8000 shells into Mannheim in 16 hours; and in 1807 the English threw 11,000 shot and shell into Copenhagen in 3 days. In January 1871 the Germans, bombarding Paris and its forts, threw 10,000 shells daily into the place, of which 500 fell in the city itself. The siege and bombardment of Strasburg in August and September is also memorable. The bombardment of the forts of Alexandria by the British fleet on the 11th July 1882, is a recent example of the effect of the enormous modern shells. It was directed against the fortifications with the intention of destroying them, and not against the town, though the latter was set on fire in several places by these far-ranging projectiles. The forts were silenced in 24 hours.

Bombardon, in Music. See SAXHORN.

Bombax. See SILK-COTTON TREE.

Bombay, the Western Province of India, with a Governor appointed by the crown, a Legislative Council, and a European and native garrison under a local Commander-in-chief. Bombay, including Sind and Aden (q.v.), comprises 24 British districts, and 19 native or feudatory states, and contains 197,887 sq. m., of which 73,753 are in native states. The Nerbudda River divides the presidency, as in accordance with the old name it is still often called (see INDIA), into two portions: in the north is Guzerat, chiefly consisting of alluvial plains, with the Cutch and Kathiawar peninsulas; to the south is the Mahratta country, which includes parts of the Deccan, Carnatic, and Konkan or coast-districts. The political control of Baroda (q.v.) was transferred in 1875 from Bombay to the supreme government of India. The small territories of the Portuguese—Goa, Daman, and Diu—have an area of 1062 sq. m. The coast-line is irregular, broken by the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch, with several fine natural harbours, Bombay and Karachi (Kurrachee) being the most important. The chief mountain-ranges run north and south: in the north are the Kirthur Mountains; in the south-east are the Western Aravalli range; south of the Tapti are the Sahyadri Mountains or Western Ghats, which run almost parallel with the coast;

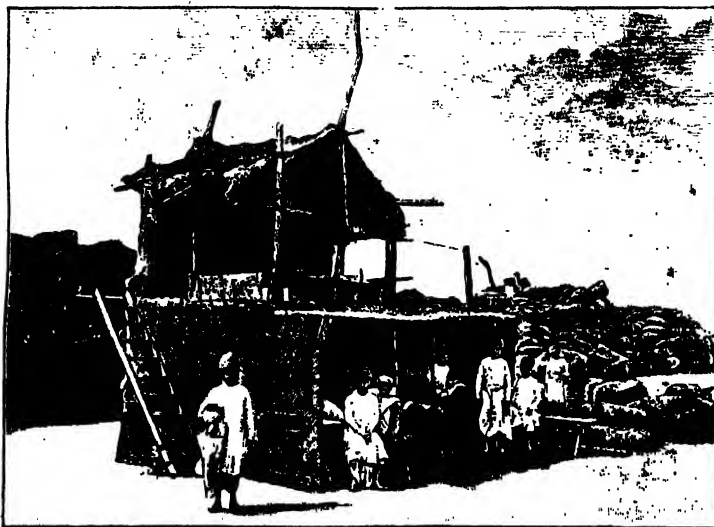
the Satpura range runs east, and forms the watershed between the Tapti and Nerbudda. Sind is watered and fertilised throughout its whole length by the Indus; the Subarnati and Mahi flow through the plains of North Guzerat; the Nerbudda pursues a western course into the Gulf of Cambay. The Tapti flows through Khandesh district, entering the sea above Surat. Besides these, there are numerous hill streams, which are torrents during the rains and dry up in the hot season. The Rann of Cutch (q.v.), in the west of Guzerat, covers an area of about 8000 sq. m., and is the great source of salt-supply for the presidency. There are few minerals, and no coal; iron is mined at Tengar in Dhavar, and there is gold amongst the quartz. Good building-stone is abundant, with limestone and slate. As to climate: in the dry sandy districts of Sind, the thermometer has reached 130° in the shade; the mean temperature in Lower Sind, during the hottest months in the year, is 98° in the shade. In Cutch and Guzerat the heat is slightly less. The coast-districts are hot and moist, with a heavy rainfall during the monsoon, which sometimes reaches 300 inches. The tableland of the Deccan has an agreeable climate, except during the hot months.

Besides an Anglican bishop and his clergy, there are chaplains of the Church of Scotland. In 1884-85 the entire number of schools and colleges aided by government, or under its inspection, was 6726, with 438,416 pupils. The university of Bombay was founded in 1857; 840 candidates passed for admission in 1885. There were about 90 libraries, and 75 newspapers (19 Anglo-vernacular) in 1884-85. During the Mutiny of 1857 the local army remained, on the whole, steady and faithful; and a portion of it, under Sir Hugh Rose, acted in the suppression of the insurrection. The army consisted in 1888 of 35,942 men, of whom 21,000 were natives. The headquarters is at Poona. Bombay has benefited vastly from the establishment and extension of the Indian railway-system. The first railway in India was opened in Bombay in 1853; the presidency has now more than 3500 miles of railway, giving communication with all the important towns of India. A cable telegraph from Bombay to Aden was laid in 1869; there are now private company cables, while the Government Indo-European Telegraph Department has its headquarters at Karachi.

Of late years, manufacturing industries have been extremely active in Bombay. Commanding the richest cotton-fields in India, it has improved to the utmost its natural advantages. The stoppage of the American cotton-supply during the civil war gave a grand impulse to the Bombay trade, the exports of cotton during the five years 1861 to 1866 averaging in value £21,582,847 a year. The wealth poured into Bombay at this period led to a vast extension of the trade, which partly continued after the period of inflation had passed. The first mill was started in 1854, and ten years later there were 13. In 1887 the presidency had 75 large steam-factories, with 14,926 looms and 1,779,220 spindles, employing on an average 54,785 hands daily. In that year 3,917,929 cwt. of raw cotton were exported, valued at £9,963,144. But, in addition to this, 1,898,536 cwt. were consumed in the local industry. In 1886 the imports of piece-goods amounted to 679 million yards, and of yarns to 16 million pounds. Not only does Bombay now compete with Manchester in the Indian market; it exports its own manufactures, the returns for 1887 being 89 million pounds of twist and yarn, valued at £3,240,480; and of piece-goods, 41 million yards, worth £509,282. These results are the most striking

in view of the abolition, in 1881, of the duty on cotton imports, which placed the local industry

even the most crowded parts. Many of the private houses of European residents are built on the



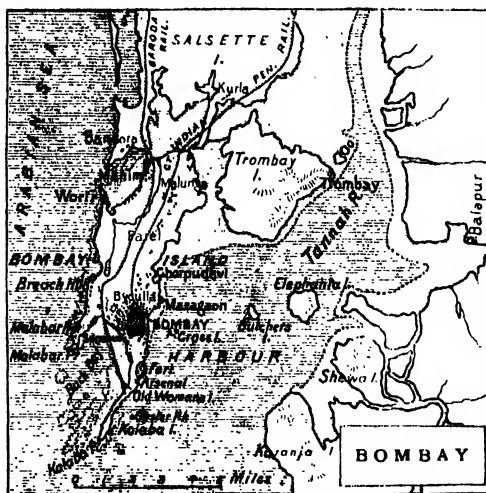
Cotton Merchants at Bombay.

at a disadvantage. After cotton, the other great staples are opium, wheat, and seeds. The trade in opium is worth nearly five millions sterling, two millions being the clear revenue derived by government from a pass duty of 550 rupees a chest. Although of recent origin, the wheat trade has assumed large proportions. In 1887 the exports amounted in value to £5,587,500. Other principal exports are sugar, tea, raw wool, woollen shawls, fibres, and drugs; while among the imports are machinery, metals, oils, coal, and liquors. There is a considerable trade in Arab horses, of which 3126 were imported in 1887. The total imports in 1886-87 (including nine millions of treasure) amounted to £32,906,637, and the exports to £35,468,942. Of the imports, £21,918,521 worth were from Great Britain, which took £7,930,071 worth of the exports. Silk-weaving is carried on at Ahmedabad, Surat, Nasik, Yeola, and Poona; carpets are made at Ahmednagar; leather-work and pottery in Sind; brass-ware in Bombay city, Nasik, and Poona; cutlery, armour, and gold and silver work in Cutch. Pop. (1881) of native states, excluding Baroda, 6,941,249; of British territory, 16,489,274, of whom nearly 18 millions were Hindus, 33 Mohammedans, less than a million aborigines, 145,154 Christians, 127,130 Sikhs, 498,443 Jains, 73,973 Parsees, 9023 Jews, &c.

Bombay (City) occupies the entire breadth of the S.E. end of Bombay Island or Peninsula, bordering at once on the harbour inside, and on Back Bay outside. The island, now permanently connected by causeways and breakwaters with Salsette Island and the mainland, is over 11 miles long by from 3 to 4 broad. For administrative purposes the city constitutes a district by itself, with an area of 22 sq. m. Its harbour, studded with islands and crowded with shipping, is one of the finest in the world; the space available for shipping being about 14 miles in length by 5 broad. Bombay is the most European in appearance of all the cities in India. In the business part there are several streets continuously lined with splendid buildings; while the bazars, which extend from the fort towards Mazagaon, are traversed by fairly wide streets, extensive lines of tramways passing through

even the most crowded parts. Many of the private houses of European residents are built on the suburb of Malabar Hill, the ridge running into the sea forming the west of Back Bay; and at Breach Candy looking seaward. The Hindus and the Mohammedans form the largest section of the population, and the rest are Parsees, native Christians, Europeans, Indo-Portuguese, Jews, &c. Amid these various classes, the Parsees rank next to the English in position and influence. Among their leaders may be named the late Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy, and Sir Dinshaw Manojjee Petit, merchant-princes who have endowed Bombay with magnificent charities. The Banias, or Hindu traders, rank next to the Parsees. On the esplanade, facing towards Back Bay, are the secretariat, the university, senate-hall, high court, offices of public works,

sailors' home, and statue of the Queen. In the neighbourhood of the fort are the town-hall, the mint, cathedral, and custom-house. The terminus of the Great Indian Peninsular Railway, opened in 1876, is the finest building in Bombay – probably the finest structure of the kind in the world, costing upwards of £300,000. On the promontory to the east of Back Bay stood the old



fort, now a mere garrison, its walls having been demolished; the harbour is defended by batteries and two ironclads. It has an extensive system of quays, wharves, and docks; Princes Dock is said to have cost over a million sterling. Mazagaon Bay, the centre of shipping activity, is at the head of the harbour. The city water-supply is drawn from Vihar Lake, 15 miles northwards. Always favourably situated for foreign trade, Bombay has profited largely by being the first important port reached by vessels from Europe, and by being the chief mail line to India by Suez and Aden,

whence letters are sent on by rail to all parts of India. Bombay now surpasses Calcutta in the amount of her trade; in 1886-87, 36.9 per cent. of the trade of India was done through Calcutta, and 42.78 through Bombay. This proportion is partly accounted for by the fact that the bulk of the treasure imports to India are received in Bombay. The chief articles of export are cotton, wheat, shawls, opium, coffee, pepper, ivory, and gums; the chief imports, piece-goods, thread, yarn, metals, wine, beer, tea, and silk. The chief industries are dyeing, tanning, and working in metal. With 60 large steam-mills, Bombay presents the appearance of a city in Lancashire. The population, which is exceedingly heterogeneous and dense—as many as 31 persons, on an average, inhabiting each house—amounted, in 1881, to 773,196. Less than 13,000 of this number are British born.

In 1509, about a year before the capture of Goa, the Portuguese visited the island; and by 1532 they had made it their own. In 1661 they ceded it to Charles II. of England, as part of the dowry of his bride, the Infanta Catharine. In 1668 his majesty granted it for an annual payment of £10 to the East India Company, which, in 1685, transferred what was then its principal presidency to Bombay from Surat. The name of the island, styled *Mumbai* by the Portuguese of the 16th century, is said to be derived from the goddess *Mumba-devi*; Colonel Yule has traced it back to *Mayumba*, the name of the Konkan kingdom in the 16th century. The bay towards the mainland, even in its natural state, presents one of the finest havens in India. The connected islands from north to south are Bassein, Versova, Salsette (q.v.), Bombay, Old Woman's Island, and Kolaba. Within the harbour, and between these and the mainland, are Trombay, Elephanta, Butchers' Island, Gibbet Island, and Karanja. Bombay is the terminus of the Great Peninsular and Baroda railways. Much has been done to improve the approaches to Bombay, and at present the scheme of harbour defences is being greatly extended. In 1888 the English government intimated that they proposed building a dock sufficient to hold the largest ironclad.

Bombay Duck, or *BUMMALOTI* (*Saurus ophiodon*), a fish of the family *Scopelidae*, nearly allied to the salmon and trout family. It is a small but voracious fish of elongated form, with large fins and a very large mouth, the gape of which extends far behind the eyes, and which is furnished with a great number of long, slender teeth, barbed at the points. It is a native of the coasts of India, particularly of the Bombay and Malabar regions, from which it is exported in large quantities, salted and dried, to other parts of India and elsewhere, being highly esteemed for its rich flavour, and often used as a relish.

Bombazine is a cloth for dresses, in which the distinguishing characteristic is that the warp is silk and the weft worsted. The cloth has thus a bare look. It is rather fine and light in the make, and may be of any colour. The fabric is now little used. It was extensively made, and chiefly at Norwich, from about 1816.

Bomb-proofs are military structures of such immense thickness and strength that shells cannot penetrate them. In every fort, the barracks, hospital, stores, and magazines are covered with masonry and earth, or even, in some cases, with thick armour-plates, so as to be impervious to the fire of the most powerful siege-guns and mortars. See **CASEMATE**, and **MAGAZINE**.

Bombyx. See **SILKWORM**.

Bommel, a town in the Dutch province of Gelderland, on the Waal, 20 miles SSE. of Utrecht. Pop. (1883) 3835.—The *Bommelerwaard* is a fertile

island-district (16 by 6 miles), formed by the Waal and Maas.

Bona (Fr. *Bone*), a seaport town of Algeria, in the province of Constantine, situated on a bay of the Mediterranean, near the mouth of the Sebus, 220 miles W. of Tunis by rail. The town, divided into two parts, Upper and Lower Bona, is situated in a beautiful but unhealthy district at the foot of a hill, and is defended by a citadel and several forts. Since the occupation of Bona by the French in 1832, the town has been much improved, and has good bazaars, shops, markets, reading-rooms, &c.; manufactures of tapestry, saddlery, and native clothing; and a trade in wool, hides, corn, coral, and wax. The exposed roadstead has been made into a fair harbour. There are iron and copper mines near Bona. A telegraph cable was laid between Bona and Marseilles in 1870. Among the public buildings, the Catholic church and the convent of the Sisters of Mercy are most remarkable. Near Bona are some scanty remains of the once famous city, *Hippo Regius*, a centre of commerce and civilisation in North Africa destroyed by Calif Osman in 646, the favourite residence of the Numidian kings, and the episcopal seat of St Augustine, who died here in 430. Pop. (1886) 24,201.

Bona is law-Latin for goods, and occurs in the Scottish legal phrase *in bonis*—i.e. forming part of the legal estate, and in the Roman phrase, *bonorum possessio*, which was an equitable right of possession given by the praetor—e.g. in the case of an intestate estate. In English law the word has some technical applications: *Bona Vacantia*—such as wrecks, treasure-trove, waifs, and estrays, contrary to the general rule, which gives such things to the finder—vest in the crown; *Bona Variata* consist of goods waived or thrown away by a thief in his flight, for fear of being apprehended; they belong to the owner if he prosecutes to conviction, otherwise to the crown. In cases of outlawry, the property forfeited to the crown is sometimes called *Bona Confiscata*.

Bona Dea ('the good goddess'), a mysterious Italian goddess of fertility, who is variously described as the wife, sister, or daughter of Faunus. She was worshipped at Rome from the most ancient times, but only by women, even her name being concealed from men. Her sanctuary was a grotto on Mons Aventinus; but her festival (the 1st of May) was celebrated in the house of the consul. The solemnities were performed generally by high-born vestals. At this celebration, no males were allowed to be present; even portraits of men were veiled. During the celebration in the house of Caesar (62 B.C.), the infamous Clodius was discovered disguised as a female musician. The symbol of the goddess was a serpent, indicating her healing powers.

Bona Fides, a Latin expression signifying good faith, enters as a legal doctrine largely into the consideration of matters of agreement, contract, damage, trusts, and other departments of the law; and in all of them it requires the absence of fraud, or unfair dealing. This term, however, does not appear to occupy any formal or technical place in the law of England. It is the foundation of many just and enlightened maxims in the Roman jurisprudence, which in this respect, as in many others, has been followed by the legal system of Scotland. In the law of that country, a person who possesses and enjoys property upon a title which he honestly believes to be good, although it may be bad, is protected against the consequences of this illegal position, and he is entitled to retain the fruits or profits which he has reaped or received during his *bona-fide* occupancy. But

this protection ends when the possessor becomes aware of the insufficiency of his title, whether by private knowledge or otherwise. This rule, which is largely founded on the negligence of the true owner, would extend to a claim for interest on money erroneously paid to a person honestly believing himself the creditor. In the Scots law, again, while honest belief will not render valid a second marriage, the first subsisting, it would, it is thought, have the effect of rendering the children of such second or putative marriage *legitimate*, and would even confer rights of succession on the innocent husband or wife. The law of England is not so indulgent; for these children born under such circumstances would certainly be deemed bastards. As a general rule, parties are supposed to contract at arm's length, and therefore there is not much room for the doctrine of *bona fides* in considering business agreements, which depend on the true construction of the documents exchanged. Positive misrepresentation or fraud will of course upset a contract if it led to error, but it is only in certain classes of contracts, such as partnership, suretyship, insurance, &c., that the plea of undue concealment has much force. The amount of damages recovered is sometimes affected by the good or bad faith of the wrongdoer, as in the case of wilful trespass of mining boundaries, where the nature of the subject renders a severe check necessary. In trust administration the beneficiaries are entitled to place much confidence in the trustees, and bad faith on their part is severely dealt with. See BASTARDS, BASTARDY; and see on the subject of this article generally, CONTRACT, DAMAGE, EXECUTOR, GUARDIAN, MARRIAGE, TRUSTEE.

The interpretation of the term *Bona-fide Traveller* has given no little trouble to the magistrates of Scotland in reference to the famous 'Forbes Mackenzie Act' (q.v.).

Bonaire. See BUEN AYRE.

Bonald, LOUIS GABRIEL AMBROISE, VICOMTE DE, a French publicist, born in 1753 at Monna, in Aveyron, was compelled to emigrate during the French Revolution, and employed his pen at Heidelberg on behalf of monarchy. His first important work, *Théorie du Pouvoir Politique et Religieux* (3 vols. 1796), was seized by the Directory. It prophesied the restoration of the Bourbons. Having returned to France, he was in 1808 appointed by Napoleon Minister of Instruction. In 1815 he voted with the Ultramontane party, and ever after displayed a marked hostility to the freedom of the press, and all projects of electoral reform. Raised to the peerage by Louis XVIII. in 1823, he retired, under the next dynasty, to Monna, where he died 23d November 1840. His most important writings are: *Législation Primitive* (3 vols. 1802), and *Recherches Philosophiques* (2 vols. 1818), which have been immensely applauded by his own party, but are most remarkable for weak logic, historical inaccuracy, and unreasonable devotion to the pope and the Jesuits. A complete edition of his works in 12 volumes was published under his own supervision (1817-19). His son, LOUIS JACQUES MAURICE (1787-1870), became Archbishop of Lyons in 1839, and a cardinal in 1841.

Bonanza (Span.: 'a fair wind,' 'prosperity'), a term originally applied in the mining territories of the United States to the discovery of a rich vein or 'pocket'; a mine was said to be *in bonanza* when producing profitable ore. It has since been used colloquially of farms where steam is employed, or of successful enterprises generally, in the sense of a 'mine of wealth.'

Bonaparte (pronounced in Ital. in four syllables; in Fr. and Eng. in three) is the name of a

famous family, and was spelt *Buonaparte* by the Emperor Napoleon and his father till 1796, though the more usual modern form also occurs in old Italian documents. In the 13th century and afterwards, several families named Bonaparte figure with distinction in Italian records—at Florence, San Miniato, Sarzano, and Genoa. But as the name of Bonaparte occurs in Corsica so early as the 10th century, it is probable that the island may have been their original home. In the 16th century we again find mention of the Bonapartes in Corsica, where in Ajaccio they occupied a respectable position as a patrician or leading family. In the 18th century this family was represented by three male descendants, all residing at Ajaccio: the archdeacon, Lucien Bonaparte; his brother, Napoleon Bonaparte; and their nephew, Charles.—CHARLES BONAPARTE, father of the Emperor Napoleon, was born at Ajaccio in 1746; studied law at Pisa; and married in 1767—without the consent of his uncles—a beautiful young patrician lady, named Letizia Ramolino. In 1768 he removed with his family to Corte, in order to assist General Paoli in defending the island against the French invasion. As the French prevailed, and further resistance was useless, Charles Bonaparte attached himself to the French interest, and in 1771 was included by Louis XV. in the election of 400 Corsican families to form a nobility. In 1773 Charles Bonaparte was appointed royal counsellor and assessor of the town and province of Ajaccio. In 1777 he was a member of the deputation of Corsican nobles to the court of France. In this capacity he resided for some time in Paris, where he gained for his son Napoleon, through the interest of Count Marbois, a free admission into the military school at Brienne. In 1779 he returned to Corsica, and in 1785 went to Montpellier for the benefit of his health, where he died the same year. He was a man of noble presence and amiable character. By his marriage with Letizia he left eight children: Joseph Bonaparte, king of Spain; Napoleon (q.v.), emperor of the French; Lucien Bonaparte, Prince of Canino; Maria Anna (afterwards named Elise), Princess of Lucra and Piombino, wife of Prince Bacciochi; Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland; Carlotta (afterwards named Marie Pauline); Princess Borghese Annunziata (afterwards named Carolino), wife of General Leclerc, afterwards of Murat, king of Naples; Jerome Bonaparte, king of Westphalia. These members of the Bonaparte family, with the children of Beauharnais (q.v.), adopted by the Emperor Napoleon when he married Josephine, are distinguished as the *Napoleonic* of modern French history. By a decree of the Senate (1804), the right of succession to the throne was restricted to Napoleon and his brothers Joseph and Louis, with their offspring. Lucien and Jerome were excluded on account of their unequal marriages. As Joseph, the eldest brother of the emperor, had no son, the descendants of Louis became nearest heirs to the throne.—MARIA LETIZIA RAMOLINO, mother of Napoleon I., lived to see her family placed on the thrones of Europe, and also witnessed their downfall. She was born at Ajaccio in 1750. After the death of her husband she lived for some time in Corsica, and in 1793, when the island came under British rule, removed with her family to Marseilles, where she lived in poverty, mainly supported by the pension given to Corsican refugees. After her son became First Consul she removed to Paris, and when her son was crowned in 1804 received the title Madame Mère, and was made patroness of all the benevolent institutions of the empire. A brilliant court-household was given to her, which, however, was never pleasing to her modest tastes.

Remembering former adversities, and foreboding reverses of the splendid success of her sons, she was prepared for all that followed. After the downfall of Napoleon, Letizia lived with her step-brother, Cardinal Fesch, in winter at Rome, and in summer at Albano, and submitted to her change of fortune with remarkable dignity. She died in 1836, leaving a considerable property, the result of saving habits during her prosperity.

JOSEPH BONAPARTE, eldest brother of Napoleon, was born at Corte, in Corsica, in 1768. On the death of his father he exerted himself to support the younger members of the family, and in 1793 removed with them to Marseilles, where he prepared for the bar. In 1797 he was elected a member of the Council of Five Hundred, and in the same year was sent as ambassador from the republic to Rome. In 1800, after he had proved his ability in several offices of state, he was chosen by the First Consul as plenipotentiary to conclude a treaty of friendship with the United States of America. He signed the treaty of peace at Luneville 1801, and that of Amiens 1802; and with Cretet and Bernier conducted the negotiations relative to the *concordat*. After the coronation of Napoleon new honours fell to the share of Joseph Bonaparte, who was made commander-in-chief of the army of Naples; in 1805, ruler of the Two Sicilies; and in 1806, king of Naples. Though, during his reign, many beneficial changes of government were effected, these reforms were not managed judiciously; and his humane feelings brought him into frequent collision with his imperious brother, a fact which did not conduce to the efficiency of his rule. In truth, he was far too fond of the fine arts to be a vigorous ruler in stormy times; and he is accused of leaving affairs too much in the hands of his minister, the subtle Salicetti. In 1808 Joseph Bonaparte was summarily transferred by his brother to the throne of Spain, and Murat took his place as king of Naples. For Joseph, this was no favourable change; he found himself unprepared to cope with the Spanish insurgents, and after the defeat of the French at Vittoria in 1813, he returned to his estate at Morfontaine, in France.

After the battle of Waterloo he accompanied Napoleon to Rochefort, whence they intended to sail separately for North America. In his last interview with Napoleon, Joseph generously offered to give up the vessel hired for his own escape, but meanwhile Napoleon had determined to surrender himself into the hands of the English. Joseph became an American citizen, and lived for some years at Bordentown, in New Jersey, U.S., where he employed himself in agriculture, and was highly esteemed by his neighbours. In 1832 he returned to Europe, and he died at Florence in 1844. Joseph was the only one of his brothers for whom Napoleon professed to care anything. He was a handsome, intelligent-looking man, distinguished by the elegance of his manners and conversation.—His wife, JULIA MARIE CLARY, born 1777, was the daughter of a wealthy citizen of Marseilles, and the sister-in-law of Bernadotte, king of Sweden. She was a quiet unambitious woman, with no taste for the splendours of royalty which fell to her share during a few weeks only at Naples, for she never went to Spain. Ill-health appears to have prevented her accompanying her husband to America. She died at Florence in 1845. By her marriage with Joseph Bonaparte she had two daughters.

LUCIEN BONAPARTE, Prince of Canino, and brother of Napoleon, was born at Ajaccio in 1775, and received his education in the college of Autun, the military school at Brienne, and the seminary at Aix. In 1798 he was made a member of the

Council of Five Hundred, and formed a party favourable to the views of his brother Napoleon. Shortly before the 18th Brumaire he was elected president of the Council of Five Hundred, and was the hero of that day. During the ferment which followed Napoleon's entrance, Lucien left his seat, mounted his horse, and riding through the ranks of the assembled troops, called upon them to rescue their general from assassins. Afterwards appointed Minister of the Interior, he was active in the encouragement of education, art, and science, and organised the prefectures. As ambassador to Madrid (1800) he contrived to gain the confidence of King Charles IV. and his favourite Godoy, and to undermine the British influence, which had until then been exercised at the court of Spain. Lucien was a republican in opinion, and therefore opposed to the absolute rule of his brother; and his second marriage to the widow of a stockbroker did not improve their relations. On condition that he would divorce his wife, the crowns of Italy and Spain were offered him; but he refused them, and preferred living in retirement at his estate of Canino, in the province of Viterbo, near the frontiers of Tuscany, where he devoted his time to art and science. Here he enjoyed the friendship of the pope, who created him Prince of Canino and Musignano; but having denounced in his private capacity the arrogant and cruel policy of his brother towards the court of Rome, he was 'advised' to leave the city in which he was at that period residing. In 1810 he took ship for America, but fell into the hands of the English. After the defeat at Waterloo, Lucien Bonaparte alone seems to have preserved his presence of mind. He immediately advised his brother to dissolve the chambers, and assume the place of absolute dictator. After the second ascent of the throne by Louis XVIII., Lucien lived in and near Rome, and died at Viterbo in 1840. He possessed considerable talents and firmness of character. He was in his early years a keen republican, but the weakness of the Directory convinced him that a military consulship was necessary to allay the social anarchy of France. He wrote poems of no particular merit. Lucien had a numerous family. By his first wife he had only two daughters. See Jung, *Lucien Bonaparte et ses Mémoires* (3 vols. 1882-83).

His eldest son was CHARLES LUCIEN JULES LAURENT BONAPARTE, Prince of Canino and Musignano, born at Paris in 1803. He never exhibited any inclination for political life, preferring the more quiet and wholesome pursuits of literature and science. He acquired a considerable reputation as a naturalist, and especially as a writer on ornithology. He died in 1857. He was a member of the principal academies of Europe and America. His chief publications are a continuation of Wilson's *Ornithology of America*, and the *Iclografia della Fauna Italiana*.—The second son, PAUL MARIE BONAPARTE, born in 1808, took a part in the Greek war of liberation, and died by the accidental discharge of a pistol in 1827.—The third son, LOUIS LUCIEN BONAPARTE, born in 1813, at Thormgrove, Worcestershire, during his father's imprisonment in England, early devoted himself with equal ardour to chemistry, mineralogy, and the study of languages, and became an authority of the first rank in Basque, Celtic, and comparative philology generally. His election for Corsica in 1848 was annulled, but he was sent to the Constituent Assembly for the Seine department next year, and was made senator in 1852, with the title of highness in addition to that of prince which he already possessed from his birth. Most of his contributions to linguistic science have been privately printed, and, according to a *Catalogue* (8 parts, 1858-88), the total number of separate

books written either by himself or at his instigation and encouragement, amounted to no less than two hundred and twenty-two. Amongst these are a translation of St Matthew's version of the parable of the sower into *seventy-two* languages and dialects of Europe (1857); a linguistic map of the seven Basque provinces, showing the delimitation of the 'Euscara' and its division into dialects, sub-dialects, and varieties (1863); a Basque version of the Bible in the Labourdin dialect (1865); a masterly treatise on the Basque verb (1869); besides many papers of profound learning in the philological journals. A great work produced under his patronage from 1858 to 1860 was a version of the Song of Solomon in twenty-two different English dialects, besides four in Lowland Scotch, and one in 'Saxon.' He has long lived in England, where a Civil List pension of £250 was granted to him in 1883.—The fourth son, PIERRE NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, born in 1815, passed through many changes of fortune in America, Italy, and Belgium, and returned to France in 1848. In 1870 he shot a journalist, Victor Noir, a deed which created great excitement in Paris; and being tried, was acquitted of the charge of murder, but condemned to pay £1000 to Victor Noir's relatives. He died in 1881.—The youngest son, ANTOINE BONAPARTE, born in 1816, fled to America after an affair with the papal troops in 1836, and returned to France in 1848, where he was elected to the National Assembly in 1849; he died in 1883.

LOUIS BONAPARTE, third brother of Napoleon, born in 1778, was educated in the artillery school at Chalons, where he imbibed anti-republican principles. After rising from one honour to another he was made king of Holland in 1806; but, in fact, was never more than a French governor of Holland, subordinate to the will of his brother. Yet he seems to have done his best to govern in the interests of his Dutch subjects, and when he found his efforts useless, he resigned in favour of his son in 1810. He returned to Paris in 1814, where he was coldly received by the emperor. After living for some years in Rome—where he separated from his wife—he removed in 1826 to Florence, where he lived in retirement. He died at Leghorn in 1846. Louis Bonaparte was the writer of several works: *Marie, ou les Hollandaises* (1814), a novel, giving sketches of Dutch manners; *Documents Historiques, &c. sur le Gouvernement de la Hollande* (3 vols. Lond. 1821); *Histoire du Parlement Anglais* (1820); and a critique on M. de Norvins's *History of Napoleon*. Louis Bonaparte was married in 1802 to Hortense Beauharnais, daughter of General Beauharnais (q.v.) by his wife Josephine, afterwards empress of the French.

The amiable and accomplished HORTENSE EUGENIE BEAUHARNAIS, the adopted daughter of Napoleon, queen of Holland and Countess St Len, was born at Paris in 1783. After the execution of her father, she lived for some time in humble circumstances, until Napoleon's marriage with Josephine. In obedience to the plans of her step-father she rejected her intended husband, General Desaix, and married Louis Bonaparte in 1802. She lived mostly apart from her husband, even as queen of Holland; and on the downfall of the Napoleons, passed her time in various countries. She at last settled at Arenenberg, a mansion in the canton Thurgau, Switzerland, where she lived in retirement, sometimes spending a winter in Italy. In 1831, when her two sons had implicated themselves in the Italian insurrection, the countess travelled in search of them through many dangers, and found the elder deceased, and the younger, the late emperor of the French, ill at a place near Ancona. She died at Arenen-

berg in 1837, and was buried near the remains of her mother, Josephine, at Ruel, near Paris. She was the authoress of *La Reine Hortense en Italie, en France, et en Angleterre, pendant l'année 1831*, and wrote several excellent songs. She likewise composed some deservedly popular airs; among others the well-known *Partant pour la Syrie*, which the late emperor of the French, with a delicate union of political tact and filial pride, made the national air of France. Of her three sons, the eldest, NAPOLEON LOUIS CHARLES, born 1803, died in childhood in 1807.—The second, LOUIS NAPOLEON, born 1804, crown prince of Holland, married his cousin Charlotte, daughter of Joseph Bonaparte, and died in 1831.—The third, CHARLES LOUIS NAPOLEON, became emperor of the French. See NAPOLEON III.

JEROME BONAPARTE, youngest brother of Napoleon, was born at Ajaccio in 1784. After receiving his education in the college at Juilly, he served as naval lieutenant in the expedition to Hayti. When war broke out between France and England in 1803, Jerome was cruising off the West Indies, and was compelled to take refuge in the port of New York. While in America he married Elizabeth Patterson (1783-1879), daughter of a merchant in Baltimore. He fought in the war against Prussia, and in 1807 was made king of Westphalia. His administration of his kingdom was careless, extravagant, and burdensome to his subjects. The battle of Leipzig brought the reign of Jerome to a close. He fought by the side of the emperor at Waterloo. After his brother's abdication he left Paris and visited Switzerland and Austria, but ultimately settled in Florence. At the outbreak of the February revolution (1848), Jerome Bonaparte was in Paris, where he was appointed governor of the Invalides, and in 1850 was made a French marshal. He died in 1860.

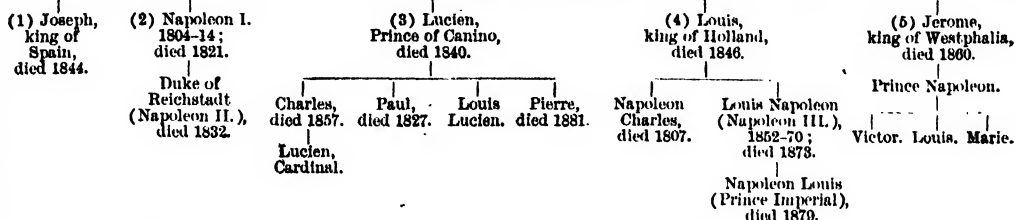
His marriage with Elizabeth Patterson having been declared null by Napoleon, Jerome was forced, after he had gained the Westphalian crown, to marry Catharine, daughter of King Frederick I. of Wurtemberg. After the battle of Waterloo, her father wished to annul the marriage; but she declared her resolution to share through life the fortunes of her husband. Jerome Bonaparte left in America one son, Jerome Napoleon (1805-70), by his first marriage, who was a wealthy resident, though he never became a naturalised citizen. By his second wife he had three children.—The older son, JEROME BONAPARTE, born 1814, died in 1847.—MATHILDE BONAPARTE, Princess of Montfort, born at Trieste, 1820, married the Russian Count Anatol Demidov, and lived at the court of Louis Napoleon during his presidency.—The younger son, NAPOLEON JOSEPH CHARLES PAUL BONAPARTE, born at Trieste in 1822, passed his youth in Italy; entered the military service of Wurtemberg in 1837; afterwards travelled in several countries of Europe; and was banished from France (1845) on account of his intercourse with the Republican party. After February 1848 he was elected into the Legislative National Assembly. He commanded an infantry division at the battles of Alma and Inkermann. In 1850 he married the Princess Clotilde, daughter of Victor Emmanuel, by whom he has two sons and a daughter. After the fall of the empire he took up his residence in England, but returned to France in 1872. On the death of the Prince Imperial, son of the Emperor Louis Napoleon, in Zululand in 1879, the eldest son of Prince Napoleon became the heir of the Bonapartist hopes. When, in 1886, the chiefs of the Bourbon family were, by a vote of both chambers, expelled from France, Prince Napoleon and his eldest son were exiled also as pretenders to the throne. See

NAPOLEON, NAPOLEON III., and works cited at those articles: Wouters, *Les Bonapartes depuis*

1815; Bingham, *The Marriages of the Bonapartes* (2 vols. 1881).

THE BONAPARTE FAMILY.

Charles Bonaparte.



Bonar, REV. DR HORATIUS, Free Church minister and popular hymn-writer, was born in Edinburgh, 19th December 1808, and educated at the High School and university there. He was ordained to the ministry at Kelso in 1837, where he remained for nearly thirty years, when he was translated to Chalmers Memorial Free Church, Edinburgh. For a time editor of the *Christian Treasury*, *Presbyterian Review*, and *Quarterly Journal of Prophecy*, he has published besides more than twenty volumes of a religious character; but is best known as the author of *Hymns of Faith and Hope* (3 series, 1857-66), selections from which have found their way into all collections for church use.

Bonasia, a genus or sub-genus of gallinaceous birds of the Grouse family, comprising the Hazel Grouse of Northern Europe and the Ruffed Grouse of North America. See GROUSE.

Bonassus, or BONASSUS. See BISON.

Bonati, GUIDO, was the great Italian astrologer of his time, and died in 1596. His works were published at Augsburg in 1491. See his *Life* by Boncompagni (Rome, 1857).

Bonaventura, ST, one of the most eminent Catholic theologians, whose real name was John of Fidenza, was born in 1221 at Bagnarea, in Tuscany. In 1243 he became a Franciscan monk; in 1253 a theological teacher at Paris, where he had studied; and in 1256 general of his order, which he governed strictly, but affectionately. His influence reconciled the differences which had sprung up among the cardinals on the death of Clement IV. in 1268, and procured the election of Gregory X. The new pope created him Bishop of Albano and cardinal in 1273, and insisted on his presence at the Council of Lyons, where he died, July 15, 1274, from sheer ascetic exhaustion. He was honoured with a splendid funeral, which was attended by the pope, the king, and all the cardinals.

On account of his unspotted character from earliest youth, as well as the miracles ascribed to him, he enjoyed, even during his lifetime, especial veneration. Dante, who wrote shortly after, places him among the saints of his *Paradiso*; in 1482 he was formally canonised by Sixtus IV.; and in 1587 was ranked by Sixtus V. as the sixth of the great doctors of the church. The religious fervour of his style procured for him the title of *Doctor Seraphicus*, and his own order are as proud of him as the Dominicans are of Thomas Aquinas. A great part of his writings is devoted to the praise of his order, and to the defence of Mariolatry, celibacy, transubstantiation, communion in one kind, and other doctrines and practices of the middle ages, which he attempts to deal with in a philosophical manner. His most important works are the *Breviloquium*, a text-book on dogmatics;

the *Itinerarium Mentis in Deum*, and *De Reductione Artium ad Theologiam*, in which he represents union with God as the highest good; and a commentary on the *Sententia* of Peter the Lombard, in which he acutely argues against the eternity of the world, and also advances some original proofs of the immortality of the soul. He did more than any other of the early theologians to give a scientific form to the mystical theology. His *Biblia Pauperum*, or 'Poor Man's Bible,' is a mystico-allegoric explanation of the plain contents of the sacred books for the benefit of the laity. In warmth of religious feeling, however, and in the practical tendency of his ethics, he far exceeds the hair-splitting scholastics. The most complete edition of his works appeared at Rome (8 vols. 1588-90). See the works upon Bonaventura by Hollenberg (Berlin, 1862), Richard (Paris, 1873), Borgognoni (Rome, 1874), and Vicenza (German translation, 1874).

Bona Vista, a bay, cape, and town on the east coast of Newfoundland. The town is a port of entry, and one of the oldest settlements in the island. Pop. 2500.

Bonchamp, CHARLES, MARQUIS DE, one of the bravest of the Vendean leaders, was born at the château of Jouveteil, in Anjou, May 10, 1760. He served as a volunteer in the American revolutionary war, and was a captain in the French army at the outbreak of the French revolution. A strong royalist, he naturally disliked the revolution, and consequently lived in retirement until chosen leader of the Anjou insurgents. In conjunction with La Rochejacquelein and Cathelineau he fought with great bravery and frequent success, but his superior knowledge of military tactics was not sufficiently made use of by the insurgent army. In the sanguinary encounter at Cholet, October 17, 1793, Bonchamp received a fatal shot in the breast, and when his followers vowed to revenge his death on five thousand republican prisoners, the dying hero exclaimed: 'Spare your prisoners. I command it.' This last command was obeyed.

Bond, in Law, is an instrument on stamped paper, by which the party granting it becomes bound to pay a sum of money, or perform any act or duty, according to the terms of agreement.

In England and the United States, a bond is said to be an instrument under seal, whereby one person becomes bound to another for the payment of a sum of money, or for the performance of any other act or thing. The person who is thus bound is called the obligor, and he to whom the bond is given, the obligee; and this obligation may be either by or to one or several persons. The bond may be unconditional simply for the payment of money, or it may be accompanied with a condition, the performance of which is secured by a penalty; but in any event, the debt

created by a bond is a *Specialty Debt*, which, however, has now no preference over simple debts, the only distinction being that a specialty debt takes twenty instead of six years to prescribe. In the United States, where the law is based on that of England, the period of prescription varies from six years for simple contracts, to ten, fifteen, or twenty years for bonds in some of the states.

The requisites of a good bond are as follows: (1) The bond must have an obligor and obligee. In regard to such parties, it is to be observed that in general no person who is under any legal disability to contract can become an obligor, though it is otherwise with an obligee. An infant cannot bind himself unless the bond be for necessities; but a bond may be given to an infant, a lunatic, or an alien. (2) The next requisite of a bond is, that it must state the precise sum in which the obligor is bound; any omission in this respect will invalidate the instrument. If, however, the sum be merely erroneously stated, the courts will make the necessary correction, and construe the bond so as to give effect to the intention of the parties. The penalty stipulated on failure to pay is always now reduced to the debt and expenses. (3) A bond must be so expressed as to create a clear legal obligation. But for this purpose no particular form of words is necessary; any mode of expression by which the intention appears will suffice. A bond, again, may be in the first or third person, only in order to obtain legal facilities it must be expressed in the English language, and not in Latin or French. (4) The bond must be duly executed. Such execution, in general, is the same as that of deeds, the sealing being the essential solemnity; and although it is usual for the obligor to sign the bond, his signature is not necessary to its validity. Then the bond must be delivered, but it need not be dated; a bond has even been held good, though it bear a false or impossible date, on the principle that deeds take effect from, and have relation to, the time of their delivery, and not in reference to their date. Such, in general, is the form and structure of an English or United States bond, and it is used in an infinite variety of contracts. A bond absolute for the payment of money differs from a promissory note only by being under seal.

In Scotland, the bond—personal bond, as it is called—differs in several points of form from the English instrument. Its general structure is different, and it is executed in a different manner, with much solemnity and particularity, but without sealing; it does not bear to be for double the sum due, or any sum other than the correct one, which it states with precision, with a penalty, which is usually one-fifth of the principal sum; and it must have a *true* date, and be very specific in all its details. As in English practice, there are in Scotland two kinds of these instruments: first, bonds for money simply; and secondly, bonds for the performance and accomplishment of some act, or, as they are called in the Scots practice, bonds *ad facta præstanda*. The Scottish bond takes forty years to prescribe. It is always registered in order that summary diligence may pass upon it. Bonds taken payable to heirs, secluding executors, do not belong to the movable estate of the creditor.

A mortgage over land or other real estate is also in Scotland in the form of a bond, by which name, indeed, the mortgage is technically described. Thus, there is the *heritable bond*, and the *bond and disposition in security*, the latter being the more modern form. By these mortgage bonds, the borrower not only becomes personally bound in the repayment of the loan, but 'in further security and more sure payment' he also conveys to the lender the land, or other real property, itself, on which the sum is to be made a charge, with, in a certain event

and under certain conditions, a power of sale, by means of which the creditor, on the debtor's default, may recover his money. The transmission and execution of these securities are regulated chiefly by the Titles to Land (Scotland) Act, 1868. There are, in England, bonds by which expectant heirs may operate on their reversions, and these are called *Post-obit bonds* (q.v.). The English law as to sales of reversionary interests was declared by statute in 1868. See REVERSIONARY INTEREST. The name bond is also applied to many securities or general charges on which limited companies are in the habit of raising money, whether strictly in the form of an ordinary bond or not; thus also Peruvian bonds or Egyptian bonds are spoken of. The legislature of the United States authorise municipal corporations to issue bonds in aid of works of internal improvement. See DEBENTURE, LLOYD'S BONDS.

According to the law of both countries and the United States, certain bonds are void; such as a bond conditioned either to do something which the law considers wrong in itself, or which is legally prohibited, or to omit doing something which is a duty, or to encourage the performance of anything which is in the nature of a crime or offence against the law. In like manner, bonds to procure marriage, called marriage brokerage bonds, or to restrain marriage, or for immoral considerations, or in restraint of trade, are void. A bond, however, may be valid in part, or void in part, if such parts are separable. Joint and several bonds are the bonds of two or more obligors who bind themselves severally and jointly: if one pays the entire debt he is entitled to contribution from the other obligors. In some states of the American Union a married woman's bond is good. See BROUAGE BONDS, MORTGAGE, SPECIALTY DEBT.

BLANK BONDS were Scots securities, in which the creditor's name was left blank, and which passed by mere delivery, the bearer or holder being at liberty to insert his name in the blank space, and sue for payment. The intention originally was to facilitate the transmission of the obligation; but experience having proved that they were used for fraudulent purposes, these bonds were, by a Scottish act passed in 1696, declared void. The act, however, excepts from its provisions the notes of trading companies, and indorsements of bills of exchange. It is a difficult question how far certain debentures of modern joint-stock companies are negotiable, and if so, whether they are objectionable under this statute.

BOND OF CORROBORATION is an additional obligation by the debtor in a bond to accumulate arrears of interest, or granted to the heir of the creditor to save the expense of title. It used to be granted by the heir of the debtor, but since 1874 this has been rendered unnecessary by statute.

BOND OF CAUTION is the obligation given by guarantors for the faithful discharge of duty by judicial factors and such officers; and also for the damages and expenses which may be incurred by interdicts or suits of diligence (see CAUTION).

BOND CREDITOR, in England, is the name sometimes given to a creditor whose debt is secured by a bond.

Bond, EDWARD AUGUSTUS, born at Hanwell, 31st December 1815, entered the British Museum in 1838, became keeper of the MSS., and in 1878 was appointed principal librarian. He has published catalogues of MSS. and fac-similes of Anglo-Saxon charters in the museum; and among other works, he has edited the *Statutes of Oxford University* (1853), Fletcher's *Russe Commonwealth* and Horsey's *Travels in Russia in the 16th Century* (1856) for the Hakluyt Society, *Speeches in the Trial of Warren Hastings* (4 vols. 1859-61), and *Chronica*

Monasterii de Melsu or *Meanx* (Rolls Ser. 3 vols. 1866-68). He has also helped to edit the *Fac-similes* published by the Palæographic Society, of which he is a founder and president. He was made LL.D. of Cambridge in 1879, and a Companion of the Bath in 1885.

Bond, WILLIAM CRANCH, an American astronomer, born 19th September 1789, at Portland, Maine, became a watchmaker, and erected one of the first private observatories in the United States. In 1838 he accompanied the exploring expedition sent by government to the South Sea, and in 1840 he became director of the observatory at Harvard University. Here he and his son, George Phillips Bond (1826-65), discovered a satellite of Neptune and the eighth satellite of Saturn. He died 29th January 1859.

Bondager, the term applied in the south of Scotland and in Northumberland to a female labourer whom a 'hind' or married farm-worker undertakes to supply for the regular field-work on a farm as a condition of his tenancy of his cottage. She is frequently a member of his own family, or she may be merely engaged and boarded by him. The origin of the bondager system is the want of a sufficient rural population for the field-work of the neighbourhood.

Bonded Warehouses. The warehousing system is a plan for lessening the pressure of excise or customs duties by postponing payment of them until the goods on which they are levied pass to the consumer, or, at all events, to the retail dealer. A merchant who might import £1000 worth of wine or tobacco if he only paid duty on it by instalments as it went out to the dealer, would be quite unable to import so much if he had to pay heavy duty immediately upon the arrival of his goods. Hence the adoption of the bonded warehouse or warehousing system, which also affords to merchants facilities for free exportation. The taxable commodity is locked up in a 'bonded' warehouse, which has been approved by the Commissioners of Customs or of Inland Revenue. It is under the supervision of the revenue officers from the time it is entered into until it is finally cleared out of the warehouse, and the revenue is further protected by bond given for due exportation or for payment of duty. This bond was formerly entered into by the importer, but the security is now given by the warehouse-keeper. 'Bonding' was part of the scheme of Sir Robert Walpole in 1733, generally known as the 'Excise Scheme,' which was defeated, however, on account of its unpopularity. The system was first authorised for the customs by an Act of George III. in 1802. The excise system of warehousing dates from 1823. In successive years various acts and departmental regulations have been issued, extending or defining the privileges, and in 1882 the excise and customs systems were assimilated, the new code adopting excise methods to a considerable extent. While in the warehouse 'wet' goods—i.e. wines and spirits—may be operated upon by racking, blending, mixing, sweetening, and colouring, under strictly defined conditions. Wines may be refined and fortified. No compensation can be made by the Customs or Inland Revenue authorities to any importer or proprietor of goods by reason of any damage occasioned in the warehouse by fire or any other accident. The warehousing system has also, by retaining the goods for the owner, whoever he may be, created a complete system of paper-money in the transference of the title-deeds, as they may be called, of such goods—the dock-warrants or other documents—the possession of which is equivalent to possession of the goods.

Bondi, CLEMENTE, an Italian poet, was born 27th June 1742 at Mezzano, in Parma. He was educated by the Jesuits, and when still very young, was appointed to deliver lectures on rhetoric in the Royal Convent at Parma. Here he produced his first work, *Giornata Villeresia* (1773), a comic picture of the rural pleasures of the brotherhood. For having celebrated in verse the abolition of the Jesuit order, he was compelled to fly to the Tyrol; and after his return he lived at Venice, at Mantua, and at Milan, where he found a patron in the Austrian Archduke Ferdinand, who appointed him his librarian at Brinn. Later he lived at Vienna, where he died on 20th June 1821. His poems are lyrical, descriptive, satirical, and elegiac, written in pure style and graceful verse.

Bondu, a country of Senegambia, West Africa, to the W. of Bambouk, lying between 14°-15° N. lat. and 12°-13° W. long. The surface of Bondu is mostly level, the climate healthy, and vegetation luxuriant alike in field and forest. The inhabitants, who are chiefly Fulahs, profess Mohammedanism, but they trust greatly in sorcerers. The sovereign is absolute. When Park, the first European to visit Bondu, was in the country, the royal residence was at Fatteconda; since, it has been removed to Bulbani, a place of 3000 inhabitants, on the principal river, the Falemé. The population of the whole country is variously estimated at from 30,000 to 1,500,000.

Bone is the hard material of the skeleton of mammalian animals, reptiles, birds, and certain fishes. When the different bones of the skeleton are connected together, they form a framework which affords support to soft parts, and protects delicate organs from injury, while at the same time preserving the shape of the body. Further, the bones, being movably joined to each other, and being acted upon by the attached muscles, become a series of levers capable of executing various movements, and thus, in the case of the bones of the lower extremity, they are the passive instruments of locomotion. In colour, bone is white, but in the living body it has in addition a pink and slightly bluish tint. Besides being *hard*, it possesses a certain amount of *toughness* and *elasticity*, properties which are well marked in the ribs and clavicle. Arab children are said to make good bows of the ribs of camels, and the elasticity of the merrythought—i.e. united clavicles of birds is familiar to all. Its strength is remarkable as contrasted with other substances:

Fine Freestone.....	1·0
Lead.....	6·5
Elm and Ash.....	8·5
Box, Yew, Oak.....	11·0
Bone.....	22·0

We thus see that bone is twice as strong as oak, and a cubic inch of bone will support a weight of 5000 lb.

Chemical Composition of Bone.—It consists of an animal and an earthy part intimately combined together. The following table shows a percentage analysis of adult human bones by Berzelius:

Animal Matter.....	33·30
Phosphate of Lime.....	51·04
Carbonate of Lime.....	11·80
Fluoride of Calcium.....	2·00
Earthly Salts.....	1·16
Phosphate of Magnesium.....	1·16
Soda and Chloride of Sodium (Common Salt).....	1·20
	100·00

If we expose a bone to intense heat, the animal matter is got rid of, and though the bone retains its original form, yet the slightest touch will cause its now unsupported earthy matter to crumble away. On the other hand, by soaking a bone in diluted hydrochloric acid, the earthy matters are

gradually dissolved out, leaving a tough, somewhat transparent, flexible, and even elastic substance, which also retains the original figure of the bone in its most minute details. This residue is softer and more flexible than cartilage, and when boiled in water it is almost wholly resolved into *gelatin*, which *sets* or gelatinises on cooling. We see in the ill-nourished children of large towns too many examples of how necessary is the proper relation of these two elements of bone to each other. In the disease called rickets, the earthy matter is deficient, and the too flexible leg-bones bend under the weight of the trunk; in the aged person, again, the osseous substance being more densely packed with earthy matter becomes brittle, rendering them peculiarly liable to fractures.

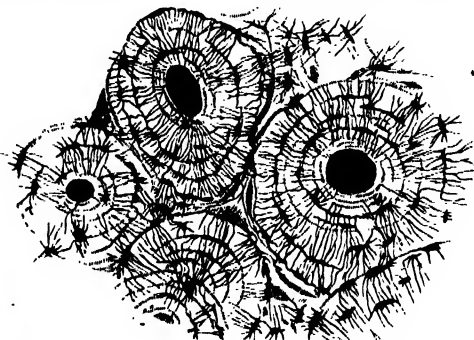
Bones are classified according to their shapes—viz.: (1) *long*—e.g. thigh-bone and arm-bone; (2) *flat* or *plate-like*—e.g. shoulder-blade and bones of skull-cap; (3) *short* and *irregular* or *cubical*—e.g. those of the wrist or the vertebrae.

On making a section of a bone, it will be seen that the osseous substance is arranged differently in different parts, being either dense and close, and called *compact*, or open and reticulated, and called *spongy* or *cancellated*. There is, however, no abrupt limit between the two kinds, for they pass insensibly into each other. Again, in all bones the part next the surface is compact, and forms a shell or crust which contains the spongy texture within. Long bones have a shaft of compact substance with very little spongy tissue within, but at each end the spongy tissue predominates, having only a thin coating of compact substance, and thus the expanded rounded extremities enter into the formation of joints. Flat bones consist of two layers of hard tissue with intermediate spongy texture usually called *diploë*. Irregular bones are spongy throughout, with only a thin crust of compact substance. Close examination of cancellous tissue reveals the fact that it consists of numerous slender bars or lamellæ, which unite together to form an open lattice-work (cancelli), from which it takes its name. Considerable strength is thus obtained without undue weight; and it will be seen that the strongest lamellæ run in those directions which are naturally exposed to the greatest pressure. The following experiment will show that spongy tissue is able to sustain great weight in spite of its apparently fragile nature: A cubic inch of cancellous texture was taken from the lower end of the thigh-bone and placed with its principal layers upright. Four hundred-weight was then placed upon it, but it did not give way in the least; six hundred-weight made it sink half an inch; yet the cubic inch of bone itself did not weigh more than fifty-four grains.

Compact bone is also full of holes which are very small and require a magnifying glass to examine them. If a transverse section be examined under the microscope, these round openings are seen to be the mouths of longitudinal canals named after Clopton Havers, an English physician and writer of the 17th century, who first specially directed attention to them—*Haversian Canals*. Blood-vessels run in them, and the widest also contain marrow. They vary in diameter from $\frac{1}{16}$ th to $\frac{1}{8}$ th of an inch. They are short, and unite freely with each other. Those nearer the circumference open on the surface by minute pores; those placed deeply communicate freely with the spaces in the spongy tissue, so that they form an extensive network of tubes in which blood-vessels are lodged.

Each canal is surrounded by a series of concentric rings, each of which is a layer of condensed structure. Between these rings minute cavities are found, called *lacunæ*, generally oval in man. These communicate with each other and with the

Haversian canal in the centre by means of fine pores or tubes called *canaliculi*, and thus it is evident that nutrient material can pass from the



Transverse Section of Compact Tissue of Humerus, magnified about 110 diameters. (From Quain.)

Haversian canal through the rings of dense bone which surround it, and which with the lacunæ and canaliculi are grouped together under the name of a Haversian system.

Bone is covered externally by a fibrous membrane which adheres very closely, investing every part of the surface except where there is cartilage, and called the *periosteum*. In this membrane fine vessels and nerves ramify, ultimately sending their minute branches into the Haversian canals. If the periosteum should be stripped off, there is great risk that the denuded portion of bone will be deprived of its nourishment and die.

The interior of the shaft of long bones is hollow and thus we get a further combination of strength and lightness. In some animals this hollow space is filled with air, but in mammals there are no air-spaces in any bones except those of the head. The hollow shaft is therefore filled with *marrow* (medulla), which occupies the spaces of the spongy bone, and even extends into the widest Haversian canals. Lining the medullary canal there is a fine membrane named the *internæ periosteum*. Its vessels partly supply the bone and partly the marrow. In long bones the marrow is like ordinary Adipose Tissue (q.v.), but in short bones and in cancellated tissues generally the marrow is more fluid, contains fewer fat-cells, and is red in colour.

In addition to the blood supplied to the bone through the vessels in the periosteum, one of considerable size, called the *medullary artery*, enters the canal containing the marrow by a hole running obliquely through the dense bone. Complete anastomosis takes place between the arteries on the surface and those in the interior of the bone. As has been stated, nerves enter the bone, but how they terminate is uncertain; and experiments seem to show that healthy bone is almost devoid of sensibility, while, on the other hand, the pain of an inflamed bone is extreme. In its earlier stages, bone may be said to exist as a mass of cells having the outward form but none of the characters of bone. Soon, however, these cells become cartilaginous, and in due time points of *centres of ossification* appear; the cells alter the form and arrangement, and by a deposit of earthy materials the bony tissue gradually becomes formed, rendering the previously flexible substance rigid. However, bone does not form in cartilage in every instance, for the bones of the face and skull-cap arise in connective tissue. Hence we have two great modes of ossification—viz. *intracartilaginous* and *intra-membranous*.

The uses to which a bone may be put are various. In the cooking of soups, bones form a constant ingredient, and become useful in supplying gelatin, which gives a *body* to the soup it would not otherwise possess. Even when buried, the organic matter is long retained—e.g. Gimbrenat made soup from the gelatin of a mastodon's tooth, and Dr Buckland did the same from the fossil bones of the hyena. Where the soup is required of great lightness, for an invalid with weak digestive powers, the shavings of stags' horns may be employed, and these yield a *hartshorn jelly* free from oil, and which therefore sits lightly upon the stomach. How far gelatin is of itself nutritious is a disputed question (see GELATIN, FOOD, and NUTRITION). Animals, however, like the dog, which masticate, devour, and digest the entire bone, do derive benefit therefrom, in part from the gelatin, and in part from the earthy substances; and the same remark applies to the use sometimes made of small fish, where, after being thoroughly browned, they are entirely eaten. In times of scarcity in Norway and Sweden, the poorer people even eat the bones of mackerel and other fish.

Bone is largely used in making the handles of small brushes, table-knives and forks, and pen-knives, and in the manufacture of Combs (q.v.). Our forefathers, before the metals were known, fashioned fish-hooks out of bone, and used the spines in the tail and back-fin of certain fishes for pointing arrows. These uses of bone, coupled with the employment of the serrated teeth of sharks as a war-weapon, are still practised by many uncivilised tribes. The fatty and other organic matters in bone allow of its being employed as a fuel where coal or wood cannot be obtained, as in the pampas of South America and the steppes of Tartary. In these regions it is considered that the heat evolved during the combustion of the bones of an ox suffices to cook the flesh.

Bone is likewise serviceable in the arts in yielding bone-ash, bone-black, bone-dust, dissolved bones, phosphorus, and superphosphates, also certain oils and fats, which are employed in forming Lampblack (q.v.), and in the manufacture of soap. Bone may suffer from atrophy, hypertrophy, or degeneration (see RICKETS), often from constitutional affections due to Scrofula or Syphilis (q.v.); Caries and Necrosis (q.v.) are specific bone diseases; inflammation of the bone causes Ostitis; of the periosteum, Periostitis (q.v.); of the medulla, Osteo-myelitis. For ossification of arteries, see ARTERIES, TUMOUR; and for broken bones, FRACTURE. Various matters connected with the bones will be found at ANATOMY, ARM, BIRDS, COLLAR-BONE, FOOD, HAND, JOINTS, OSSIFICATION, RIBS, SKELETON, SPINAL COLUMN, &c.

Bone, a city. See BONA.

Bone, HENRY, enamel-painter, was born at Truro, Cornwall, 6th February 1755. Apprenticed to a Plymouth china-manufacturer, he removed with his master the year after to Bristol, and here he worked for six years at the famous Bristol china-works until their failure drove him to London to push his fortune. He soon found employment in enamelling watches and fans, and afterwards in making enamel portraits, brooches, &c. A portrait of his wife, exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1780, first attracted public attention; and he soon obtained a position which rendered it no longer necessary for him to continue his drudgery for the jewellers. In 1801 he was appointed enamel-painter to George III., and elected associate of the Royal Academy. Elected R.A. in 1811, he exhibited in that year his large enamel, 'Bacchus and Ariadne,' after Titian, which was sold for 2200 guineas, and is now in the National Gallery. From

this time, until his eyesight failed in 1831, he produced a series of large and beautiful works, among them the well-known 'Death of Dido,' and 'Hope Nursing Love,' after Sir J. Reynolds. He also executed a large number of historical portraits of the time of Elizabeth, besides a series of portraits of the Russell family. He died December 17, 1834. His works are now eagerly sought after by collectors, and are esteemed among the very best examples of his particular art.

Bone-ash, or BONE-EARTH, is obtained by the complete combustion of bones in an open furnace, when the oxygen of the air burns away the organic matter or gelatin, and leaves the earthy constituents as a white friable mass, the size of the original bone, but readily reducible to the condition of coarse powder which is bone-ash. A very large quantity of bone-ash is exported from South America to other countries, especially Britain. The used-up bone-black of the sugar-refiner is also employed as a source of bone-ash, by being heated in a furnace exposed to the air. Bone-ash of good quality contains about 80 per cent. of phosphate of lime, and 20 per cent. of carbonate of lime, phosphate of magnesia, soda, and chloride of sodium (common salt); but it is occasionally found mixed with sand, especially that procured from South America. Bone-ash is employed to some extent as a source of Phosphorus (q.v.), and in the making of Cupels (q.v.) for the process of Assaying (q.v.); but the most extensive use is in the manufacture of artificial manures, such as Dissolved Bones (q.v.) and superphosphates.

Bone-beds, the name given by geologists to thin beds or layers which are largely made up of the debris of bones of reptiles, fish, &c. Examples are the Ludlow bone-bed of the Silurian, the Bettes bone-bed of the Bradford coal-measures, the Rhatic bone-bed, and the Tilgate stone of the Wealden series. In the bone-beds of more recent geological age mammalian remains abound, as in the Suffolk bone-bed of the Coralline cras.

Bone-black, the product of the carbonisation of bones, used as a pigment (see BLACK) and as a deodoriser. See CHARCOAL.

Bone Caves. See CAVES.

Bone Manures are applied to crops on account of the nitrogen—equivalent to 4 or 5 per cent. of ammonia—and the phosphate of lime which they contain—the latter amounting to nearly half their weight. Their value has only recently been discovered. The first crude bone-crushing machines were used in England in 1814. In Scotland, when bones began to be employed as manure, about 1825, they were roughly broken into large splinters with hammers by the farm-servants during wet weather, and 30 bushels applied per acre, at a cost of half-a-crown a bushel. Five hundred weight per acre is now considered a good dressing. Bones are not applied in good practice in a larger size than that of *meal* or *flour*—in other words, ground into a fine state of division.—*Rough Bones*, as quarter-inch size and larger, are rarely used, as these lock up capital in the soil by taking too much time to decay, and do not give a remunerative return in comparison with manures that act quickly. Bones are sometimes fermented to induce decay. They are piled in heaps, and water or urine poured over them. When the heat resulting from the fermentation goes down, they should be turned and watered again, and this kept up for a few months. Bones in an altered form are also used in making up concentrated manure, and are either ground or acted upon by sulphuric acid—for example:

(1) *Steamed Bone*, or degelatinised bone, results when bone is made friable and more easy of assimilation by plants through the action of superheated

steam (at 270°–280° F.) removing the fatty and gelatinous matter; but there is a loss of nitrogen in the process, as there is also in the preparation of ash and char.

(2) *Bone-ash* is the residue from bones burnt as fuel used in the 'rendering' of the fat of cattle in South America.

(3) *Bone-char* is made by heating in a close retort, and used largely for refining sugar before it goes for manure.

(4) *Vitriolised Bone* is a material only partially acted upon by acid—the result of a most wasteful practice deserving of condemnation, as destroying microbes which bring about nitrification in the soil.

(5) *Dissolved Bone* is bone broken into half-inch size, and then acted upon by sulphuric acid, so as to change a portion (about half) of the insoluble tribasic phosphate of lime into the soluble monobasic phosphate and the sulphate of lime; thus, $\text{Ca}_3\text{P}_2\text{O}_8 + 2\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 = \text{CaO} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \cdot \text{P}_2\text{O}_5 + 2\text{CaSO}_4$. Sulphuric acid is peculiarly suitable for this purpose as compared with say hydrochloric acid, as by the formation of sulphate of lime—or in common language, plaster of Paris—a part of the moisture is absorbed, and the resulting material is left in a dry condition, which is essential for its proper distribution on the land. The object—extraordinary minuteness of division—is obtained, although the soluble condition disappears soon after its application to the soil. The dissolving of bones is now held to be wasteful because soluble phosphate of lime is procurable from many other cheaper sources. It is also unsatisfactory on account of the acid destroying the microbes of nitrification, so useful to the soil, which exist in large quantities in bones and all sorts of decaying animal matter. Liebig was the originator of the method in 1839, and during the next few years it was taken up by leading farmers in England and carried out as a farm operation. Now the work has fallen into the hands of manufacturers who can make it cheaper and, if they choose, better. Much adulteration has been practised in this trade at the expense of farmers. This was made possible owing to their ignorance and prejudices against learning anything scientific. Much manure sold as 'dissolved bone' is merely a mixture of soluble phosphate and some such nitrogenous material as nitrate of soda and sulphate of ammonia—the valuable substances being in the proportions present in bone. Soluble phosphate of lime, from whatever source, has a more beneficial influence on the turnip-crop than upon any other crop, because the turnip roots are not so able as the roots of other plants, such as wheat, to make use of the natural supply of phosphates existing in the soil in the insoluble form, even when this is abundant. Should the stock of phosphoric acid in the soil be reduced too far, the crop produce is reduced accordingly; it is necessary, therefore, to apply at least sufficient of this ingredient to make up for the loss resulting from the removal of the sale produce of a farm. The famous example of the deterioration of the Cheshire pastures on the rich soils of the new red sandstone by the yearly drain of phosphates through the sale of dairy produce, is now a matter of history. It is recorded that by the application of bones to these soils the value was doubled. Bone meal or flour is the most valuable form for application to thin, light, or hungry soils, as it decays in time to feed the growing crop, and is not liable to be washed out. In heavy land, ground bones are of little or no value—they get imbedded in the clay, and are preserved so that they cannot yield their substance to act as manure. On such soils the phosphate of lime should be used in the soluble form. Many thousands of tons of bones are annually imported from South America, whence we draw our largest

supply. India contributes the next largest amount, the Hindus being prejudiced against the use of bone as manure.

Boner, ULRICH, one of the oldest German fabulists, was a preaching friar of Bern, and is frequently mentioned in documents of the years 1324–49. His collection of a hundred fables was entitled *Der Edelstein*, and was first printed, with woodcuts, at Bamberg in 1461. Only two copies now exist. Breiting published a complete edition of the work at Zurich in 1757, under the title, *Fabeln aus den Zeiten der Minnesinger*, which supplied materials to Lessing for his studies on the philosophy of fable. A more complete edition was published in 1844 by Franz Pfeiffer as vol. iv. of *Dichtungen des Deutschen Mittelalters*.

Boneset, a kind of Eupatorium (q.v.).

Bonesetters are a class of men who often possess a considerable local reputation for success in the treatment of injuries to the limbs, especially in cases where stiffness and pain have persisted long after an accident. They are usually uneducated men; and the knowledge they possess has been handed down by oral tradition, often for many generations and in the same family. Their chief method in the cases alluded to consists in effecting a sudden forcible movement of the affected part. As they are ignorant of anatomy, and of the signs of disease, they sometimes do immense harm by applying the method to unsuitable cases. But without doubt they have sometimes effected a cure where regular practitioners have failed. A detailed account of their methods, &c. was given to the medical profession by Dr Wharton Hood in a book *On Bonesetting* (1871). See DISLOCATION, FRACTURE.

Bo'ness, or BORROWSTOUNNESS, a seaport in Linlithgowshire, on the Firth of Forth, 23 miles WNW. of Edinburgh. A dingy place, it has a fine parish church (1886), a wet-dock of 7½ acres (1881), a large shipping trade in coal, and manufactures of salt, soap, malt, vitriol, iron, earthenware, &c. *Graham's Dyke*, otherwise Antoninus' Wall, traverses the parish. Dugald Stewart spent the last twenty years of his life at Kinnil House (Duke of Hamilton) in the neighbourhood. Pop. (1851) 2645; (1881) 5284.

Bonfire, a fire kindled in celebration of some event of public interest, usually in an open conspicuous place, as the top of a hill, or the centre of a village-green, but applied also to any great blazing fire of whatever material. Such fires were especially lighted on certain anniversaries, as the eves of St John and St Peter, and their origin in our country may be traced to pre-Christian times. The Scotch form *banc-fire* best shows the origin of the word—a fire for burning bones, and Dr Murray notes that for the annual midsummer 'banefire' or 'bonfire' in the burgh of Hawick old bones were regularly collected and stored up down to about 1800. See BELTANE, BEACON, and vol. i. of Ellis's edition of Brand's *Popular Antiquities*.

Bongar, or ROCK-SNAKE (*Bungarus*), a genus of venomous serpents allied to the genera *Elaps* and *Naja*, and distinguished by the compressed body, which bears on the back a row of hexagonal scales larger than the rest. The head is broad and depressed; the tail is short. The species, which appear to be few—only two being certainly known—are natives of the East Indies. *B. caruleus* (paraguda) is very poisonous, and has a dark-blue ground colour, with narrow white lines in front, and cross rows of spots behind. *B. annularis* (pamah), also very poisonous, has black rings on a yellow ground, may be over 6 feet in length, and is found in Ceylon and China as well as in India.

Bongardia, a peculiar herbaceous genus of Berberideæ (q.v.), natives of the East. One species (*B. Rauwolfii*) produces tubers, which are eaten, either boiled or roasted, in Persia; and the leaves of another (*B. chrysogonum*) have an acid taste, and are eaten as a salad.

Bongo, or **OBONGO**, are a Negroid people in the basin of the Ogowe River.

Bonheur, ROSALIE (more commonly called ROSA), a French animal painter, born at Bordeaux, 22d March 1822. Her first master was her own father, Raymond Bonheur, an artist of merit, who died in 1853. In 1841 she figured for the first time in the Salon, showing a couple of small works—'Two Rabbits' and 'Goats and Sheep'—that indicated the department in which she was to attain future eminence. These were followed by a succession of highly finished compositions; the year 1849 producing what some consider her masterpiece, 'Ploughing with Oxen,' now in the Luxembourg. In 1853 her famous 'Horse Fair' was the principal attraction of the Salon; it was acquired for over £10,000 from the Stewart collection by Mr C. Vanderbilt, who presented it to the Gallery of New York. One of the two smaller replicas—that from which the well-known engraving was made—is in the National Gallery, London. In 1865 she exhibited a large landscape, 'Hay-making in Auvergne.' Rosa Bonheur long directed a School of Design for young girls. In 1853 she became entitled to the cross of the Legion of Honour, but because of her sex the decoration was withheld till 1865. During the siege of Paris (1870–71), her studio and residence at Fontainebleau were spared and respected by special order of the then Crown Prince of Prussia. Her success in painting animals has been largely due to her conscientious study of living subjects; she has succeeded in rendering spirited action in animals; and many of her works are known in England through engravings. See Larnelle's *Rosa Bonheur, sa Vie, ses Œuvres* (1885).

Boni, a state on the east coast of the south-west peninsula of the island of Celebes, in the Pacific Ocean, with an estimated area of 935 sq. m. It was formerly the most powerful state in Celebes, but since 1859 has been practically a Dutch dependency. In the north the scenery is fine, and the soil fertile—rice, sago, and cassia being produced. The inhabitants, called Bugis, have an allied language to the Macassar, with a literature of their own. Their towns and villages dot the coast, and as enterprising merchants and sailors the Bugis are found in every port of the East Indian Archipelago; they also engage in agriculture and in the manufacture of cotton and articles of gold and iron, in which they have a large trade. They are well built, active, and brave, and are lighter skinned, as well as superior in honesty and morality to other Malay races. Their institutions, said to be very ancient, partake of the character of a constitutional monarchy. The British have twice attacked the Bonese for injuring their commerce, and selling the crews of British ships into slavery. In the second attack, in 1814, the Bonese king was killed. The number of the population is unknown; some estimates give as much as 200,000. The capital, called Boni, stands on the coast of the south-west peninsula.—The GULF OF BONI separates the south-east and south-west peninsulas of Celebes. It is 200 miles long, and 40–80 miles broad.

Boniface, the name of nine popes, most of whom are of no historic note.—Boniface I. (418–22) was the first who assumed as Bishop of Rome the title of First Bishop of Christendom.—Boniface III., who was pope only for ten months in the year 607,

was the first to whom the title of Universal Bishop of Christendom was conceded by the Greek Emperor (Phocas).—Boniface VIII., previously Benedict Cajetan, a native of Anagni, was elected pope in 1294. His inauguration was distinguished by great pomp: the kings of Hungary and Sicily held the reins of his horse as he proceeded to the Lateran, and with their crowns upon their heads, served him at table. His tenure of the Roman see was marked by the most strenuous assertion of papal authority. In a bull of 1302 he claimed to possess supreme power alike in temporal and spiritual affairs. He failed, however, in his attempts to assert a feudal superiority over Sicily, and to exercise his papal authority in the disputes between France and England. He sought without success to call Edward I. of England to account for his attempted conquest of Scotland. Philip the Fair of France, supported by his states and clergy, maintained the independence of the kingdom, disregarding many bulls and briefs, and even the sentence of excommunication to which the pope proceeded. Philip at last, with the aid of Italian enemies of Boniface, made him prisoner at Anagni, to which he had fled; and though he was liberated by the people of Anagni, he died at Rome soon afterwards in 1303. For his simony Dante has given him a place in the *Inferno* (canto xxvii.). He instituted the Roman jubilee in the year 1300, granting a plenary indulgence to all who should visit the sanctuaries of Rome in that year.—Boniface IX. (Peter Tomacelli), a native of Naples, succeeded Urban VI. as pope at Rome in 1389, whilst Clement VII. was pope at Avignon. He became notorious for his shameless sale of ecclesiastical offices and benefices, and of dispensations and indulgences. He acquired, after a struggle, a most despotic power in Rome. The annates, which had previously been an occasional payment, were by him made permanent in 1392. He died in 1404.

Boniface, a generic name for an innkeeper, like 'mine host' or 'landlord,' from the name of the jovial innkeeper in Farquhar's *Beaux' Stratagem* (1707).

Boniface, ST. 'the Apostle of Germany,' whose original name was Winfried, was born at Crediton, in Devonshire, about 680. He entered a Benedictine monastery in Exeter at the age of thirteen, and afterwards removed to that of Nursling, in Hampshire, where he taught rhetoric, history, and theology, and became a priest at the age of thirty. He seems to have adopted the name Boniface when he first turned monk. A movement, proceeding from England and Ireland, was then going on for the conversion of the still heathen peoples of Europe; Gallus and Emmeran had been sent in 614 to Alemannia, Kilian (murdered 680) to Bavaria, Willibrord (died 696) to the country of the Franks, and Siegfried to Sweden. Winfried also took the resolution (716) of preaching Christianity to the Frisians, among whom it had not yet found entrance. But a war broke out between Charles Martel and the king of the Frisians, and Winfried returned from Utrecht to Nursling, of which he might have become abbot. But bent upon his design, he repaired to Rome in 718, and received the authorisation of Pope Gregory II. to preach the gospel to all the tribes of Germany. He went first to Thuringia and Bavaria, then laboured three years in Friesland, and travelled through Hesse and Saxony, everywhere baptising multitudes, and consecrating their idolatrous groves as churches. In 723 Gregory II. called him to Rome; consecrated him bishop, and furnished him with letters to Charles Martel and all princes and bishops, requesting their aid in his pious work. Returning to Hesse (724), he destroyed the objects of heathen

worship (among them the great oak of Geisnar, sacred to Thor, and an idol named Stuflo, on a summit of the Harz, still called Stufenberg), founded churches and convents, and called to his aid priests, monks, and nuns from England, whom he distributed through the various countries. In recognition of his eminent services, Gregory III. sent him (732) the pallium, and named him archbishop and primate of all Germany, with power to establish bishoprics wherever he saw fit. Boniface now made a third journey to Rome (738), and was appointed papal legate for Germany. The bishoprics of Ratisbon, Erfurt, Paderborn, Würzburg, Eichstätt, and Salzburg owe their establishment to St Boniface. The famous abbey of Fulda is also one of his foundations. In 746 he was chosen Archbishop of Mainz, and in 752 he is said to have consecrated Pepin as king of the Franks at Soissons. In 754 he resigned the archbishopric, and had resumed his apostolical labours among the Frisians, when at Dokkum, 18 miles north-east of Leeuwarden, in West Friesland, he was fallen upon by a band of armed heathens, and killed, along with the congregation of converts that were with him (5th June 755). His remains were taken first to Utrecht, then to Mainz, and finally to Fulda. In the abbey there is still shown a copy of the gospels written by him, with a leaf stained with his blood. A collection of his letters, and the canons he promulgated for the discipline of the newly-established churches, have been preserved, and are instructive as to the state of Germany at the time. The best editions of his Letters (Epistole) are those of Giles (2 vols. Lond. 1844), and Jaffé (Berlin, 1866), to which is appended the Life of him by Willibald. In 1811 a monument was erected to St Boniface on a hill near Altenberga, in the principality of Gotha, where, according to tradition, he had founded (724) the first Christian church in North Germany. A statue by Henschel was also erected to him at Fulda in 1842. See German works on Boniface by Seiters (1846), Müller (1870), Werner (1875), Fischer (1881), and Elbrard (1882); also Merivale, *Conversion of the West: the Continental Teutons* (1878).

Bonifacio, STRAIT OF, the modern name of the strait between Corsica and Sardinia, the *Fretum Gallicum* of the Romans. At the narrowest part it is only 7 miles wide, and the navigation is difficult. The strait receives its name from the small town of Bonifacio in Corsica, with an excellent harbour; pop. (1886) 3052.

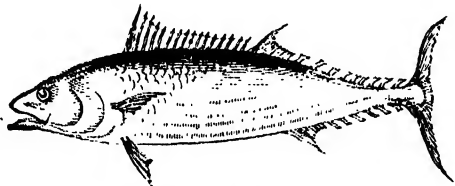
Bonillo, a town of Spain, 34 miles WNW. of Albacete. Pop. (1877) 4500.

Bonin, or (Japanese) OGASAWARA ISLANDS, a volcanic group in the Pacific Ocean, 700 miles SSE. of Japan, stretching between 26° 30'–27° 45' N. lat., and between 159°–155° E. long. Area, 32 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 151. Discovered by Quast and Tasman in 1639, they were taken possession of for Britain in 1827 by Captain Beechey; but in 1878 the Japanese reasserted their sovereignty, with the view of making them a penal settlement. The harbour is named Port Lloyd.

Bonington, RICHARD PARKES, painter in oil and water-colours, was born at Arnold, near Nottingham, on 25th October 1801. His father, who had been governor of Nottingham prison, after many vicissitudes settled at Calais, where the son was placed under Louis Francia, the water-colour painter; and he afterwards studied in Paris—in the Louvre, at the Institute, and under Baron Gros. His water-colours sold rapidly. In 1822 he began to exhibit in the Salon, and received a premium from the Société des Amis des Arts for his views of Havre and Lillebonne; and two years later he was awarded a medal at the Salon, when Constable and Copley Fielding were similarly

decorated. He now occupied himself with lithography; many of his sketches were reproduced by this method in such works as Baron Taylor's *Voyages Pittoresques dans l'ancienne France*, and he occasionally drew upon the stone himself, from his own designs and those of other artists. A fine collection of his work of this kind is preserved in the print-room of the British Museum. About 1825 he took to oil-painting, and in that year visited England, accompanied by Delacroix, in whose studio he worked after his return to Paris; and having visited Italy, he produced his splendid Venice views of the 'Ducal Palace' and the 'Grand Canal,' which figured in the Salon of 1827, along with his 'Francis I. and the Queen of Navarre' and his 'Henry III. receiving the Spanish Ambassador.' He also exhibited in the Royal Academy and the British Institution. His position was now fully established, and commissions came to him in plenty; but he caught an attack of brain-fever from exposure while sketching in the sun, and speedily fell into a decline. He visited London for medical advice, and died there, 23d September 1828. Of late years the fame of Bonington has been steadily increasing, and he is recognised as a most accomplished and original painter of landscape and architectural subjects, as well as of scenes of historical genre. He is especially admired for the purity and brilliancy of his colouring. His 'Henry III. receiving the Spanish Ambassador' was bought by Lord Hertford for 49,000 francs; and his 'Grand Canal, Venice,' and the 'Fishmarket, Boulogne,' realised £3150 each at the Novar sale. The Louvre contains several of his studies and an admirable example of his figure-pieces in oil, Francis I., Charles V., and the Duchess d'Etampes. The National Gallery possesses the 'Piazzetta, St Marks, Venice,' 'Sunset,' and three water-colours by the artist.

Bonito, a name common to several fishes of the mackerel family (Scombridae).—(1) One of these, *Thynnus pelamys*, sometimes called the



Bonito, or Stripe-bellied Tunny.

Stripe-bellied Tunny, and of the same genus with the Tunny (q.v.), is well known to sailors as an inhabitant of the tropical parts of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, and as one of the fishes most frequently seen pursuing the flying-fish. It is often taken by an imitation flying-fish made to skim along and touch the waves. Its flesh is not regarded as very wholesome, though not unnaturally relished by those who have been previously confined to salt provisions. It is occasionally but rarely caught on the British coasts. It is a very beautiful fish, seldom exceeding 30 inches in length, of a beautiful steel-blue colour, darker on the back, and whitish below. Four dark lines extend along each side of the belly. The general form resembles that of the mackerel, but is less compressed.—(2) The Mediterranean Bonito (*Pelamys sarda*) is closely allied. It has the same blue back and dark transverse bars reaching from the dorsal ridge to the lateral line. It is plentiful in the Black Sea, and has been found in the North Sea. Its flesh is esteemed.—(3) The Plain Bonito (*Axius vulgaris* or *A. rochei*), found in the Mediterranean,

may be distinguished at once from both of these by its more uniform blue colour, without stripes or bands, and by the widely separated dorsal fins. Its flesh is little esteemed when fresh; it is generally used either salted or pickled. This fish has been occasionally caught on the coast of England, and even of Scotland.—The Sucking-fish (*Echeneis remora*), credited with retarding ships, the gorgeous John Dory (*Zeus faber*), the beautiful 'Dolphins' (*Coryphæna*), are allied genera of the same family. See MACKEREL.

Bonivard, FRANÇOIS DE, a younger son of a family which held large possessions under the House of Savoy, was born about 1496 at Seyssel, on the Rhone, and in 1513 became prior of St Victor at Geneva. Falling under the suspicion of the Duke of Savoy, he was taken prisoner by him in 1519. After twenty months' imprisonment he was set free, but in 1530 he was again seized, and taken to the castle of Chillon at the east end of the Lake of Geneva, where he was imprisoned for six years, the last four in that subterranean vault which the genius of Byron has made famous by his poem on the sufferings of *The Prisoner of Chillon*. The details of Bonivard's history were unknown to Byron: the highly wrought description of the prisoner 'chained to a column stone' sprang from the imagination of the poet, and is now embodied in the local tradition. On the capture of Chillon by the Bernese and Genevese in 1536, he was liberated, and returned to Geneva. The priory of St Victor had meanwhile been raised for the defence of the city, and the now Protestant government, having devoted its revenues to the hospital, awarded Bonivard a pension. He died in 1570, leaving the town his books, which were the nucleus of the Geneva library. Bonivard was an indefatigable writer. His chief works are his *Chroniques de Genève* (1551; new ed. 2 vols. 1831), and *De l'Ancienne et Nouvelle Police de Genève* (1555), in which he paints in the blackest possible colours the opponents of the dominant Calvinist party. The credit of Bonivard, both as an historian and as a man, has in recent years suffered much from the investigations of more trustworthy historians.

Bon-mot (Fr., 'good saying'), a witty saying, a clever repartee.

Bonn, a town of Rhenish Prussia, beautifully situated on the left bank of the Rhine (here 600 yards wide), 21 miles SSE. of Cologne by rail. The Minster, said to have been founded by the Empress Helena in 320, but dating chiefly from the 11th and 13th centuries, has been restored since 1847. It is a good specimen of Romanesque and Transition, and has five towers, the middle one 311 feet high. Near the Minster is a monument to Beethoven, who was born in the *Rheingasse*; and at Bonn are buried Niebuhr, Bunsen, and Schumann. There are seven other places of worship, besides English and Old Catholic congregations; Reinkens, the first Old Catholic bishop, having made Bonn his residence. The university, founded in 1777–86, in 1802 was transformed into a lyceum, but was re-established in 1818, receiving from government the beautiful electoral palace (1717–30) and other buildings, with an annual revenue of nearly £15,000 sterling. There are five faculties—medical, legal, philosophical, and two theological (Protestant and Catholic). The university had, in 1886, 124 professors and lecturers, and 1331 students. Among its professors have been Niebuhr, A. W. Schlegel, Aradt, Welcker, Dahlmann, Hermes, and Simrock; whilst Albert, the Prince Consort, was a student here. It has a library of above 250,000 volumes, a splendid laboratory (1868), an art museum (1884), archæo-

logical and other collections, a botanic garden, and an observatory; there is also a celebrated agricultural academy. The manufactures—jute, soap, chemicals, &c.—are unimportant. Pop. (1871) 20,030; (1885) 35,989, chiefly Catholic.—Bonn derives its origin from *Bonna*, one of the Roman stations in Germany. From 1273 till 1794 the residence of the Electors of Cologne, it was held by the French 1673–89; in 1703 surrendered to Marlborough; was acquired by France in 1801, and by Prussia in 1814.

Bonnat, LÉON JOSEPH FLORENTIN, was born at Bayonne (1833), and studied at Madrid under Frederic Madrazo, and in Paris under Léon Cogniet. He gained the second *Grand Prix de Rome*, and, aided by his friends, went to Italy in 1858, where he resided for four years. He was first brought into notice by his 'Adam and Eve finding the Body of Abel' (1860), now in the gallery at Lille; and his 'Pasqua Maria' (1863) was much praised. He devoted himself to Italian *genre* pictures of moderate size, varied by such religious subjects as 'The Assumption' (1869), and the terribly realistic 'Christ on the Cross' (1874), commissioned for the Palais de Justice, Paris. More recently his works have dealt with Eastern life, and he has produced several remarkable portraits, among the rest those of M. Thiers and Victor Hugo.

Bonner, EDMUND, Bishop of London, was born about 1500, of obscure and doubtful parentage. The reputation he gained at Oxford by his knowledge of canon law recommended him to the notice of Wolsey, who made him his chaplain, and promoted him to several benefices. His zeal in King Henry's service, after Wolsey's fall, earned him due promotion; and in 1533 he was deputed to appear before the pope at Marseilles, to appeal for the excommunicated monarch to a general council. His language on this occasion is said to have suggested to his holiness the fitness of having him burned alive, or thrown into a caldron of molten lead, so that Bonner judged it prudent to leave Marseilles without notice. In 1540 he was made Bishop of London, and as such pronounced sentence on several Protestant martyrs, though it is certain he did his best to befriend Anne Askew. After Edward VI.'s accession, he gave proofs of his lukewarmness in the cause of reformation, and at length, in 1549, was committed to the Marshalsea, and deprived of his bishopric. The accession of Queen Mary (1553) restored him to office; and by his part in that bloody persecution which has made her reign infamous, he rendered himself thoroughly unpopular. On Elizabeth's accession (1558), Bonner accompanied his episcopal brethren to salute her at Highgate, but was excepted from the honour of kissing her hand. In May 1559 he was summoned before the Privy-council, and refused, with a consistency worthy of respect, to take the oath of supremacy. He was accordingly deposed from his bishopric, and again imprisoned in the Marshalsea, where he died in 1569. The utmost allowance for Fox's exaggerations cannot free Bonner from the charge of persecution; though it seems that he did no more than his official position demanded, and that with such reluctance as to bring down on him the censure of the Privy-council (see Blunt, *The Reformation*, vol. ii.). And one should not forget that he was strict in castigating the lax morality of his clergy, that he remained steadfast to his principles, and that he bore his final misfortunes with manly resignation.

Bonnet, a covering for the head, of which there are many varieties. The French, from whom we have the word, apply it as we do to male as well as female head-dress. The *bonnet rouge*,

or 'cap of liberty' of the revolution, was shaped like a man's night-cap (*bonnet de nuit*). A felt cap of this shape, such as was worn by the Phrygians, was amongst the Romans the emblem of liberty, and was assumed by slaves when manumitted. The English bonnet of former times was made of cloth, silk, or velvet, more or less ornamented. It was generally superseded by the hat in the early part of the 16th century; but in Scotland, bonnets were commonly worn for two centuries later. The genuine old bonnet of the Lowland Scottish peasantry was of a broad, round, flat shape, overshadowing the face and neck, and of a dark-blue colour, excepting a red tuft on the top. The fabric was thick milled woollen, without seam or lining, and exceedingly durable. No head-dress ever invented could stand so much rough usage. This 'braid bonnet' very closely resembles the *bonnet Bearnais*, or *béret Basque*, of the south of France. From its having been worn, till comparatively late times, by small rural proprietors, these came to be called *Bonnet Lairds*. The Highlanders have long worn bonnets of the same fabric, but these generally rise to a point in front, with ribbons hanging down behind. Such is the cap known as the *Glenarry Bonnet*. The *Balmoral* is flat, and is liker the Lowland bonnet. From time immemorial, these various kinds of Scotch bonnets have been manufactured at Stewarton and Kilmarnock, in Ayrshire. Except in the case of cavalry regiments, the Glenarry bonnet is in almost universal use as an undress cap in the British army and amongst the auxiliary forces.

Ladies' Bonnets.—Those made of the fine stunted wheat straw, grown for the purpose in Tuscany, and called Leghorn and Tuscan bonnets, are everywhere known to the female world. These have formed an important trade in that province for nearly two centuries. Split-straw plait and bonnets formed of it are made on a large scale at Luton and Dunstable (see *STRAW MANUFACTURES*). Willow-chip bonnets are made extensively in the neighbourhood of Modena. Bonnets, partly or entirely, of richer materials, such as horsehair, crape, velvet, and satin, with trimmings of feathers, lace, and artificial flowers, are made on a great scale in Paris. It is there that all novelties are created, and the annual value of its millinery exceeds a million sterling.

Bonnet, CHARLES DE, an eminent naturalist and philosopher, born at Geneva, 13th March 1720, was educated for the law, but devoted himself at a very early age to the study of natural history. A dissertation on aphides procured his election, in 1740, as a corresponding member of the French Academy of Sciences; and in 1743 he was admitted a Fellow of the Royal Society. At this time he was engaged in researches concerning polypi, the structure of the tapeworm, the respiration of insects, &c.; and in 1745 appeared his *Traité d'Insectologie*. His *Recherches sur l'Usage des Feuilles des Plantes* (1754) contained the result of much observation on important points of vegetable physiology. A severe inflammation of the eyes, putting a stop for two years to his researches in natural history, gave another direction to his studies, and he published several works on psychology, in which materialistic views decidedly prevail: the body is represented as the original source of all the inclinations of the soul, and all ideas are referred to movements of the nervous fibres; but his religious convictions remained always strong and unshaken, and in his *Idées sur l'État Futur des Êtres Vivants, ou Palingénésie Philosophique* (2 vols. 1769), he endeavoured to demonstrate the reasonableness of the Christian revelation. In this work he also maintained the future life of all living creatures,

and the perfection of their faculties in a future state. His *Considérations sur les Corps Organisés* (2 vols. 1762) is largely devoted to an examination of the theories of generation. He died on 20th May 1793. Collective editions of his works (8 vols. and 18 vols.) appeared in 1779 and 1788. See the monographs on him by Lemoine (1880) and the Duc de Camaran (1859).

Bonnet-piece, a gold coin of James V. of Scotland, so called on account of the king's head being decorated with a bonnet instead of a crown, as was usual. James V. was the first Scottish sovereign to place dates on his money, and to diminish the size of the gold coins by increasing their thickness. His bonnet-pieces were struck of native gold, and are now much prized by collectors. See Edward Burns' *Coinage of Scotland* (1888).



Bonnet-piece.

Bonneval, CLAUDE ALEXANDRE, COUNT DE, also called Achmed Pasha, a French adventurer, was born of a noble family at Conssac, in Limousin, on 14th July 1675; and entered the army in his thirteenth year. He served with distinction in Italy and the Netherlands, but for extortion and insolence was condemned to death by a court-martial. He fled to Germany, where he obtained employment in the Austrian service; fought against his native country, distinguished himself by many daring exploits, and bore a principal part under Prince Eugene in the war against Turkey. But during a residence at Vienna he made himself disagreeable to the prince, and was sent, in 1723, as master-general of ordnance to the Netherlands, where he quarrelled with the governor, was brought to trial, and condemned to death by a court-martial. The emperor commuted the sentence to one year's imprisonment, upon condition of his never afterwards setting foot on German soil. He went to Constantinople, became a Mohammedan, was made a pasha of three tails, and achieved success as general in the war of the Porte with Russia, and in Persia. The sultan appointed him governor of Chios; but his own imprudence, and the envy of others, caused his banishment to the shores of the Black Sea. He died at Constantinople on 27th March 1747. The memoirs published as his are spurious. See Prince de Ligne, *Mémoire sur la Comte de Bonneval* (1817).

Bonneville, NICHOLAS DE, one of the earliest French students of German literature, was born at Evreux, March 13, 1760. Early works are his *Nouveau Théâtre Allemand* (12 vols. 1782-85), a collection of German tales, and a translation of Shakespeare. After the revolution, he founded and edited several newspapers; but his moderation in tone and his liberality rendered him obnoxious to the ruling party, and on the fall of the Girondists he was thrown into prison. He also got into difficulties with Napoleon, and died November 9, 1828. His *Histoire de l'Europe moderne* (3 vols. 1789-92) and his *De l'Esprit des Religions* (1791) are still read.

Bonny, or **BONI**, a town and a river of Guinea, now in the British Niger protectorate. The river forms an eastern debouchure of the Niger, and falls into the Bight of Biafra, in about 4° 30' N. lat., and 7° 10' E. long. It is accessible at all times of the tide to vessels drawing as much as 18 feet of water, and safe anchorage at all seasons of the year is found within its bar. Its banks are low,

swampy, and uncultivated. On the east side, near its mouth, is the town of Bonny, notorious from the 16th to the 19th century as the rendezvous of slave-trading ships. The houses forming the town stand in a swamp where fever prevails; European traders generally take up their quarters on river-boats moored in the current of the Bonny. It exports considerable quantities of palm-oil.

Bonomi, JOSEPH, architect, was born at Rome in 1739, settled in England in 1767, became an associate of the Royal Academy, and died on 9th March 1806.—His son, JOSEPH BONOMI, the younger, born in Rome 9th October 1796, studied art in London, and became famous as a draughtsman, especially of Egyptian remains. He repeatedly visited Egypt and the Holy Land, and illustrated important works by Wilkinson, Birch, Sharpe, Lepsius, and other Egyptologists. He also published a work of his own on Nineveh, and at his death, 3d March 1878, he was curator of Soane's Museum.

Bonpland, AIMÉ, an eminent traveller and botanist, was born at Rochelle, France, August 22, 1773. Having studied medicine and botany at Paris, he accompanied Humboldt in 1799 to South America, where they travelled nearly five years, during which time Bonpland collected 6000 new species of plants. After his return, he published several splendid and valuable botanical works. He went to Buenos Ayres in 1816, and was named professor of Natural History. Bonpland undertook an expedition of scientific discovery up the Paraná; but Dr Francia, then dictator of Paraguay, arrested him, and kept him prisoner for about nine years. He subsequently settled near San Borje, in the province of Corrientes, and died at Santa Anna in 1858. Among his works are: *Plantes Equinoxiales* (2 vols. 1808, 16); *Monographie des Mélastomées*, &c. (2 vols. 1809–16); and *Description des Plantes rares de Navarre* (1813 17). See his Life by Brunel (3d ed. Paris, 1872).

Bonspiel. See CURLING.

Bonstetten, KARL VICTOR VON, publicist, born at Bern, 3d September 1745, studied at Leyden, Cambridge, and Paris, entered the council of Bern, and became district governor, and in 1795 a judge in Lugano. He lived in Italy and at Copenhagen from 1796 to 1801, and after his return settled at Geneva, where he died 3d February 1832. Among his larger works are *Recherches sur la Nature et les Loix de l'Imagination* (Geneva, 1807), *Pensées Diverses* (1815), *Études de l'Homme* (1821), and *L'Homme du Midi et L'Homme du Nord* (1824), an examination of the influence of climate. Three volumes of his correspondence have been published.

Bonus (Lat., 'good'), an originally jocular use of the Latin word to mean 'a good thing,' specially for an extra dividend given to shareholders of a company from surplus profits, or a portion of the profits of an insurance company distributed amongst policy-holders. Sometimes used for a mere douceur or bribe.

Bony Fishes (*Teleostei*) form the most important sub-class of fishes, and include the vast majority of known forms, probably 8500 out of 10,000 species. They are the modern successors of the ancient fishes (*Palaichthys*), of which the direct survivors are now in the marked minority. The *Teleostei* appeared in all probability in the Chalk period, and have increasingly predominated over their gristly (*Elasmobranchs* or *Chondropterygii*) and heavily-armoured (*Ganoidei*) fore-runners. Many naturalists have found in *Ganoidei* the direct ancestors of the *Teleostei*; but this is

not allowed by our greatest modern authority—Dr Günther. They are, however, their geological successors.

In the bony fishes (*Teleostei*) the skeleton is bony, with completely formed vertebrae; the skin is usually clad in the characteristic light scales; the heart has a non-contractile swelling of the artery in front of the heart (the *bulbus arteriosus*); the gills are free and protected by a bony cover (*operculum*); the intestine has no spiral fold running down it; the nerves to the eyes simply cross one another, and do not fuse as they cross. Generally speaking, they are more active than their fore-runners.

Günther divides the bony fishes into six orders, and since these must be repeatedly mentioned, the following key, based on the same authority, and copied from Leunis' *Synopsis des Thierreichs*, is essential:

I. *Acanthopterygii*—e.g. perch, mullet, beryx, mackerel, bull-head, lump-sucker, goby, bleuny, gray-mullet, stickleback.

II. *Acanthopterygii Pharyngognathi*—e.g. wrass.

III. *Anacanthi*—e.g. cod, ling, sand-eel, turbot, flounder.

IV. *Physostomi*—e.g. carp, minnow, flying-fish, pike, salmon, trout, herring, eel.

V. *Lophobranchii*—e.g. pipe-fishes and sea-horses.

VI. *Plectognathi*—e.g. file-fish, coffer-fish, globe-fish, sun-fish.

Gills comb-like.	Pre-maxilla and upper jaw movable.....	Spinous rays on dorsal, anal, and ventral fins. { Lower pharynx bones separate.... } I.
		United..... II.
	Without spinous rays.....	Ventral fin (if present) on throat or breast; air bladder without duct... III.
		Ventral fin posterior; air-bladder with duct..... IV.
	Pre-maxilla and upper jaw rigidly fixed to one another and to skull..... V.	

Gills composed of small rounded lobes..... VI.

For further information, see the article on FISHES, and separate articles; consult Günther's *Introduction to the Study of Fishes*, and Huxley's *Anatomy of Vertebrates*.

Bonyhad, a market-town of Hungary, in the county of Tolna, about 150 miles S. of Budapest. It has some trade in corn, wine, and tobacco. Pop. (1880) 5970.

Bony Pike (*Lepidosteus*), also called GAR-PIKE and GAR-FISH (distinct from the other Gar-fish, q.v.), a genus of Ganooid fishes, found in widely distributed fossil form as early as Tertiary times, and still surviving in temperate America and Cuba. The fish measures at full size towards 5 feet in length, and is covered with a complete mail of lozenge-shaped enamelled and bony scales. The outer enamel layer is bright and glistening. The general colour is brownish-yellow or greenish with darker markings. The skeleton is completely bony, the vertebrae (like those of salamanders) convex in front and concave behind, the fins with accessory pieces known as 'fulcrs,' the dorsal and anal composed wholly of jointed rays, and situated far back. The snout is long and narrow, the mouth opening wide, the upper lip protruding beyond the lower, the dentition very well developed, with large catching and numerous small conical teeth arranged in rows. The paired fins are unlobed; the tail is markedly unsymmetrical (heterocercal). There are no spiracles, but accessory gills on the hyoid bones. The undivided

air-bladder is lung-like, opens into the gullet, and receives blood-vessels from the aorta. The dilated muscular chamber in front of the heart has eight transverse rows of valves. The bony pike or gar-fish lives in rapid rivers, swims with great force, has great flexibility in the neck region, and preys voraciously on other fishes. Formerly more widely distributed, it is now found in the fresh waters of North Central America and Cuba. Many species have been distinguished, but Günther only recognises three—*L. viridis*, *L. platystomus*, and the commonest *L. osseus*. The genus occurs as such in Tertiary strata, and is represented in earlier times by many forms (Lepidotida, &c.). The flesh of the bony pike is esteemed for food. See GANOIDS.

Bonze, a modified Japanese word applied by Europeans to the Buddhist priests of Japan and of China.

Booby (*Sula piscator*), a species of Gannet (q.v.), which has received this name from its apparent stupidity in allowing itself to be knocked down with a stick or taken by the hand. Accounts differ very much, however, as to this character of the booby, some representing it as singular in not taking alarm nor becoming more wary even when it has had reason to apprehend danger from man; others, as Audubon, asserting in such a manner as apparently to place it beyond dispute, that it does learn to be upon its guard, and even becomes difficult to approach within reach of shot. The booby is not quite so large as its congener, the common gannet or solan-goose, but, like it, is a bird of powerful wing. It feeds on fish, which it takes by diving in the sea, observing its prey as it sweeps along in graceful and varying flight, sometimes



Booby.

at a height of only a foot or two from the surface of the water, sometimes twenty yards above it. The bird is sometimes taken, like the gannet, by means of a fish fastened to a board, through which it drives its bill, as it dashes at the bait. The booby is of a blackish-brown colour, whitish beneath; its colours are subject to some variation, and in young birds a general brown colour prevails; the sexes differ very little, except that the female is not quite so large as the male. The expansibility of the gullet enables the booby to swallow fishes of considerable size. The bill, which is straight, conical, and longer than the head, opens beyond the eyes, as in the rest of this genus. It is found on almost all tropical and sub-tropical shores, and sometimes even 200 miles from land. On the east coast of North America, it reaches about as far north as Cape Hatteras, but is much more abundant farther south, great numbers breeding on the low islands off the coast of Florida. The nest is often placed upon a low bush,

and 'is large and flat, formed of a few dry sticks, covered and matted with seaweeds in great quantity.' It contains only one egg or young one at a time. The booby is much persecuted by the Frigate Bird and Man-of-war Bird (q.v.), which are more powerful and of swifter flight, and often compel it to disgorge for their use the prey which has just been swallowed. The flesh of the booby, although sometimes eaten by sailors, is dark coloured, and not very agreeable.

Booby Island, a level rock in Torres Strait, in 10° 36' S. lat., and 141° 53' E. long., 3 feet above high water, and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile in diameter. Being dangerous to navigators, and destitute of resources of its own, it is pretty regularly supplied with provisions and water by passing vessels, for the benefit of shipwrecked sailors.

Boodroom. See BUDRUN.

Book. The volume which the reader has at present in his hands is a normal specimen of what is now understood by a printed book. Printed matter occupies both sides of a certain number of leaves of paper, which are so arranged that, beginning at the upper end of the left side of the first page, he may proceed without dislocation of thought always from left to right till he reach the lower end of the last page. The first page or *recto* of the first leaf or *folio*, containing the words 'Chambers's Encyclopædia,' is technically known as a *bastard* or *half title-page*; the next page or *verso* of the first folio is left blank. Then follows the *title-page* proper, usually with a blank page at the back. In many books—though not in the present volume, which is the second of a series—there intervenes a preface or introduction, a dedication, and a table of contents before the main body of the book begins. If any portion of the book has got out of its place, there are two ways by which the true order can be discovered. At the outer corner of each page is a number—1, 2, 3, &c.; this is the pagination or numerical order of pages. At the left-hand foot, corner of page 1 is the number 53; and 54 will be found similarly on page 17. The sixteen pages thus indicated have been produced by the folding of a single sheet of paper. Fifty-three is the signature (as it is called) on the first page, because 52 sheets have been used in the previous volume. A, B, &c. are often used for numerals; and if the book goes beyond the number of letters in the alphabet, the series is continued—A A, B B, &c., or 2 A, 2 B, &c.

To understand the historic origin of this normal modern book, we must go back to a remote antiquity. The word 'book' itself (Saxon *boc*, Ger. *buch*, Dutch *boek*) appears originally in Gothic as a plural noun meaning primarily, as is generally believed, the runes inscribed on the bark of separate branches of the 'beech' tree (Saxon *boc*, Ger. *buche*, Dutch *beuke*) for the purposes of divination, &c. *Liber*, the Latin equivalent (which has been adopted by all the Romance and Celtic tongues—Fr. *livre*, Ital. *libro*, Gaelic *leabhar*, Welsh *teor*—and is the source of our English word *library*), properly meant bark, and was applied to prepared papyrus tissue from its bark-like appearance. The Greek *biblia*, in like manner, is associated with *byblos*—i.e. papyrus.

As is now well known, the ancient Babylonians and Assyrians had a wide and varied literature. This was preserved in two ways: either painted on the leaves of the papyrus which grew in abundance on the banks of the Euphrates, or impressed on clay shaped into tablets or cylinders. Such skill was displayed in the treatment of this latter material that the inscribed characters by their minuteness 'suggest that they must have been written with the help of a magnifying glass.' A representation of a typical polygonal Assyrian

cylinder will be found in Sayce's *Assyria* (1885). The defects, as well as certain advantages, of this form of 'book' are obvious. It has no direct connection with the modern European book. The case is different, however, with the ancient Egyptian book. The sequence may be maintained from the volume at present in the reader's hands back for thousands of years to the oldest Egyptian 'volume' still extant (in a sense the oldest book in the world)—the *Papyrus Prisse*, which must be assigned to a very early period of Egyptian history, according to Chabas and to Virey, *Études sur le Papyrus Prisse* (Paris, 1887), to a date probably prior to the XII. dynasty—i.e. at least 2000 B.C. Owing to its wonderful adaptability to literary purposes, the prepared papyrus tissue (see Papyrus) spread to Greece (at least before the time of Herodotus) and to Rome; and though it was so far supplanted, especially in certain regions, by the finer kinds of prepared skins—the material used by the Jews, Persians, and other oriental nations—it maintained its position as a book-material down to the 10th century A.D. Ali Ibn el Azhad in 920 describes the different kinds of pen required for writing on paper, parchment, and papyrus (see Dr Joseph Karabacek's *Das Arabische Papier*, Vienna, 1887). The ancient papyrus-book, whether Egyptian, Greek, or Roman, was got up very much like a modern mounted map. A length of the material, written on one side only, was fastened to a wooden roller, round which it was wound; this formed a *toma* (Egyptian), *kulindros* (Gr.), or *volumen* (Latin); hence our 'volume.' Specimens of Egyptian rolls still exist, extending to upwards of 20 and even 40 yards (see Birt, *Das antike Buchwesen*, page 439); but the great inconvenience attaching to the consulting of such enormous scrolls (though we still find similar pedigree rolls in England—e.g. at Helmingham, Suffolk) made it much more usual to break up any lengthy literary production into sections, each on a separate roll. Certain suitable sizes became normal, and this conventional length of the roll exercised a considerable influence on the length of what are still called the 'books'—i.e. divisions of the classical authors. In Egypt the rolls were kept in jars (holding say nine or ten each); in Rome in wooden boxes or canisters (often of costly workmanship), or in parchment cases. The change from the rolled to the folded form of book appears to have taken place in the ancient world after the adoption of parchment or vellum, though practically the same arrangement of successive surfaces had been in vogue in the books or tablets of waxed wood used for notes and letters. *Codex*, the Latin name for such a parchment volume, is still retained as the designation of the more important ancient MSS., as *Codex Alexandrinus*. The form remained practically unaltered throughout the middle ages, and being even more suitable for paper than for vellum, was ready on the invention of printing to facilitate the full development of the new art. For details in regard to the ancient MS., see PALEOGRAPHY.

Sizes of Books.—The vellum, and afterwards the paper book of mediæval times, was made up in the following way. 'Quires' or 'gatherings' were formed sometimes of four sheets folded in the middle and placed one within the other, so as to furnish eight leaves, sometimes of five sheets yielding ten leaves, sometimes of six yielding twelve. These groupings were known as quaternions (*tetradia*), quinterns or quinternions (*pentadia*), and sexterns (*hexadia*). This same method was adopted by the early printers, who at first indeed only printed as the copyists had written, one page at a time. In the colophons (see below) of many of the older books, a register or collation, as it is called, of all the quires—whether

ternions, quaternions, or so on—is supplied for the guidance of the bookbinder. The signatures on the several quires were at first inserted by hand, and were first printed at Cologne in 1472. When it became usual to print a certain number of pages at once, the paper was not folded and cut up till it had passed through the press. The number of times it required to be folded afforded a ready means of distinguishing in a general way the different sizes of books as long as the paper continued to be made by hand, in frames the size of which did not greatly vary. The nomenclature is still in vogue, though it has ceased in these days of machine-made paper to be a correct guide to the real sizes of books. In America, the proposal to distinguish sizes by an actual measurement of height and breadth of paper has met with some acceptance; but the old fashion still prevails in Europe. A sheet being folded in the middle forms two leaves or four pages; and a book composed of such sheets is styled a folio whether it measure $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet or 4 feet in height. When the sheet is again folded it makes a quarto. In hand-made paper (i.e. the paper used in nearly all books of purely bibliographical interest) the water-line runs either across or down the page according to the number of foldings. The following scheme is serviceable:

Folio, folded.....	2 times = 4 pages,	water-line perpendicular.
Quarto,(4to)	4 " 8 " "	horizontal.
Octavo(8vo)	8 " 16 " "	perpendicular.
Duodecimo (12mo)	12 " 24 " "	horizontal.
Octodecimo (18mo)	18 " 36 " "	perpendicular.

Less ordinary, and of course diminutive, sizes of books are produced and known as 32mo (water-line perpendicular), 36mo (horizontal), 48mo (horizontal), 64mo (horizontal), 72mo (perpendicular), 96mo (perpendicular), 128mo (perpendicular). In this country for a long period printing-paper was chiefly of three sizes—royal, demy, and crown; and according as any one of these was employed, the size of the book was large or small. Demy, however, was the most commonly used; and the demy 8vo may be said to have become the established form of standard editions. The size of the present work is imperial 8vo. Among books, as among men, there are giants and dwarfs. Certain church-books in the Escorial are described as 6 feet in height by 4 in breadth; and the 'Antiquity' volumes, for example, of the Napoleonic *Description de l'Égypte* measure $37\frac{1}{2}$ inches in height. The 'Thumb Bible' is, on the other hand, not much bigger than a postage-stamp; Pickering's Diamond edition of *Tasso* measures $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches high by $1\frac{1}{2}$ wide; and Hoepli's 1878 *Divina Commedia* is less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches by $1\frac{1}{2}$.

Colophons.—The scribes employed by Assur-bani-pal (680 B.C.) used to place the account of their documents at the close of the last column on their cylinders. In like manner, the early European printers often gave details about their books in the closing paragraph, now technically known in English as the *colophon* (from a Greek word for apex or terminus), in French as *souscription*, in German as *Schluss-schrift*. Caxton varies his colophon from the simplest *Explicit, Ille finis*, or 'Here endeth,' to elaborate epilogues or post-faces. Quaintest of all, perhaps, is his rhyming conclusion to the *Moral Proverbs*:

Go thou littl quayer | and recfmaund me
Unto the good grace of my special lorde
Therle Hyueris, for I have emprinted the
At his comāndement, folowyng eury worde
His cōpye as his secretaire can recorde.
At Westmestre of feuerer (February) the xx daye
And of Kyng Edward the xvj yere vraye (truly).

Abundant examples of the colophon will be found in Mr Blades's *Caxton*, and Legrand's *Bibliographie Hellenique* (1885).

Title-pages.—Though Caxton's work affords no

instance of a title-page—unless *The Chastising of God's Children* (1491?) be his, and it contains simply three lines of ordinary print—this does not represent the general stage of typographic development. As early as 1474 Pictor, Loslein, and Kaddolt in Venice issued a *Calendario* by John de Monteregio, with a quaint rhyming title-page, with place, date, and names at the foot (see fac-simile in Bouchot, *The Printed Book*). With the adoption of the title-page, the colophon naturally disappeared, though instances are found well into the 16th century. The treatment of the title-page has varied enormously at different periods: in the 16th and 17th centuries becoming at times so crowded with details as to lose half its value as a ready means of determining the purport of the book. Laudatory descriptions of the author and his work were freely introduced: 'Very necessary to be known'; 'Very pleasant and beneficial'; 'A book right rare and strange,' are among the phrases familiar to all book-lovers. Except in the case of works of fiction and popular theology, the tendency of the present time is to make the title brief and business-like. Dickens's *Adventures of Oliver Twist* even contrasts curiously with the title-page of the first edition of, say, *Robinson Crusoe*. Metaphorical titles (so abundant in the Elizabethan and Jacobian periods) are serviceable as distinctly individualising a book, but are very apt (as in Mr Ruskin's *Notes on the Construction of Sheepfolds*) to mislead the unwary. Double titles (as in Mr Ruskin's *Proserpina: Studies of Wayside Flowers*) are equally dangerous; and open to strong objection is the habit of re-issuing an old work with a new title. The title of a book is by English law as much the property of an author as any other part of his book. Consequently, a lawsuit may be the result of even unsuspectingly using a title already appropriated (see COPYRIGHT). Compare the fac-simile title-pages in Könnেকে, *Bilderatlas* (1887); Le Petit, *Principales Editions originales d'Ecrivains Français* (1888); and A. Lang, 'Old French Title-pages,' in *Books and Bookmen*.

Dates.—In the dating of their books the early printers, like the scribes, were extremely negligent. 'Of twenty-one works,' says Mr Blades (*Caxton*, i. p. 31), 'known to have issued from the press of Colard Mansion, not more than five have any date to them; and of nearly one hundred publications attributed to Caxton's press, considerably more than two-thirds appear without any year of imprint.' At other times we find the date given with great precision: thus, *The Book of the Knight of the Tower* has 'and emprinted at Westmynstre the last day of Janyuer, the fyrst year of the regne of Kyng Richard the thryyd.' In the present day nearly all respectable publishers put the correct year in which their books are issued at the foot of the title-page, either in ordinary figures or in the Roman notation. When a book is not dated, one suspects a desire on the part of the publisher to sell his old stock as if it had newly seen the light. Unfortunately, the device of attaching a new title-page with a fresh date to matter that has lain in the warehouse for many years is adopted by firms whose reputation ought to be above reproach. The following are among the more important deviations from the normal methods of Roman notation to be found in the colophons or title-pages of early printed books (see Brunet, *Connaissances nécessaires à un Bibliophile*):

M CCCCLIII XXVIII = 1488 (i.e. 1000 + 400 + 4 × 20 + 8).

M IIII CIII XX VII = 1488 (i.e. 1000 + (4 × 100) + (4 × 20) + 8).

M CD XCV = 1495 (i.e. 1000 + (500 - 100) + 95).

M IIII D = 1495 (i.e. 1000 + 500 - 4).

M IIII D = 1497 (i.e. 1000 + 500 - 3).

CIO IO CXX VI = 1520 (i.e. 1000 + $\frac{1000}{2}$ + 100 + 20).

In many cases the older printers indulged in

curious chronograms; sometimes using them to repeat in the preface a date already distinctly stated on the title-page. An extreme instance is the *De spiritali Imitatione Christi sacra et vtilis pili In LVCEM Data*, a R. P. Antonio Vanden Stock Societatis Jesu, Ruramunde, Apud Gasparem du Pres—a book which contains upwards of 1500 chronograms on the date 1658 (see CHRONOGRAM); and James Hilson, *Chronograms, 5000 and more in number* (4to, Lond. 1882); and *Chronograms Continued* (1885).

When dates are wanting, the age of a book may often be approximately determined by certain external characteristics, which must, however, be used with caution. Watermarks (Ger. *wasserzeichen*; Fr. *filigranes*), for example, are of importance, but their evidence has been frequently strained. Compare article PAPER; and see the works of Fischer (1804), Boyer (1860), Midoux and Matton (1868), and Sotheby's *Principia Typographica*.

Place of Publication.—Even when the name of the place of publication is given in full, it may require some knowledge to recognise it under the several forms current in different languages and at different periods. Thus Cologne may appear as Colonia, Colonia Agrippina, Cueln, Ceulen, Keulen, Köln, &c.; or the periphrasis in *civitate Colōnsi* may be employed, the *n*'s being represented by strokes above the vowels (see CONTRACTIONS); Venice may be more or less disguised as Venetia, Venetie, Venezin, Venedig (German), Wenez (in the local dialect), Enetia (in Greek), and Mleezi, Bnezi, Mnezik, and Mljekta (in Slavonic). Well-known places may be concealed under some pseudo-classical translation of, or pun upon, the true name; thus, Herbipolis stands for Würzburg; Leucopetra for Weissenfels; Probatopolis for Schaffhausen; Eleutheropolis for Freystadt, Francheville, Francavilla, &c. This latter is a good instance of a difficulty that may arise. Not only may Eleutheropolis represent one of many towns, but from the meaning of the word it has frequently been employed by printers who did not wish to declare the true place of publication. Another instance is Irenopolis ('City of Peace'), which is historically an equivalent of Bercea. The following list will be convenient: Argentoratum, Strasburg; Augusta Vindelicorum (often only Augusta), Augsburg; Basilea, Basel; Bipontum, Deux-Ponts; Bononia, Bologna, or Boulogne; Cadomum, Caen; Caesar-augusta, Saragossa; Cantabriga, Cambridge; Corona, Cronstadt; Dortracum or Dordrechtum, Dort; Eboracum, York; Gippesvium, Ipswich; Grati-anopolis, Grenoble; Hafnia, Copenhagen; Hala, Halle; Holmia, Stockholm; Insula or Insule, Lille; Ispalis, Seville; Leodicum, Liège; Lipsia, Leipzig; Lugdunum, Lyons; Lugdunum Batavorum, Leyden; Lutetia, Paris; Massilia, Marseilles; Matisco, Macon; Mediolanum, Milan; Moguntia-cum, Mainz; Mons Regalis, Mondovi; Mussipons or Pontimussum, Pont-à-Musson; Neapolis, Naples; Neapolis Casimiri, &c., Neustadt an der Hardt; Enipons, Innsbruck; Olisipo, Ulyssippo, Ulyssipolis, Lisbon; Oxonia, Oxford; Petropolis, St Petersburg; Regiomontium, Königsberg; Rotomagus, Rouen; Sarum, Salisbury; Tarvisium, Treviso; Tornacum, Tournai; Trajectum, Utrecht; Trece or Civitas Tricassina, Troyes; Tridentum, Trent; Turoni, Tours. See *Dictionnaire de Géographie Ancienne et Moderne à l'usage du Libraire* (Paris, 1870).

To divert suspicion, printers have often put totally erroneous names on their title-pages: hundreds of European books bear to have been issued at Pekin; thousands of the products of the Parisian presses claim The Hague (La Haye) or some other

Dutch town as their birthplace. Quite recently Burton's literal translation of the *Arabian Nights* bears to have been printed at Benares. In the earlier centuries printing and publication were so much the same thing that to know the place where a book was printed was practically to know where it was published, and *vice versa*. At present it is not uncommon for a work to be printed in one country and published in another. When publishing firms have houses or agencies in different cities, all may be mentioned on the title-page, and precedence accorded rather in keeping with the importance of the cities. Thus, 'London and Edinburgh' frequently appears in books which were entirely produced in the lesser city. With the introduction of stereotype or electrotypes plates it has become possible for a book to be printed in more places than one with only one setting-up of type. See Weller, *Die Falschen und Fingirten Druckorte* (1864).

Pagination.—At first the printed book was issued like the manuscript without any numbering of the pages. Before long it was found convenient to number the leaves; the numbering of the pages followed. In many modern books, when the page contains two or more columns, each column is numbered consecutively. When a book consists of several volumes, each has usually its own pagination; but in some great treatises running through several volumes, it expedites reference from the index to number right through from the beginning to the end of the whole series. In the old folios and quartos letters were not infrequently inserted on the margin, so as to break each page into distinct portions without interfering with the continuity of the text. The marginal letters from the first editions of the classics are often reproduced in modern editions just as they originally stood, and form a convenient method of reference.

Preface, &c.—The *Preface* is the introductory address of the author, in which he explains the purpose and scope of his book, and, as it were, introduces himself to his readers. Our ultra-Saxonists prefer to call it a 'foreword,' in keeping with the German *Vorwort*. Formerly it was usually headed *To the Reader, To the Gentle Reader, To the Courtious Reader, &c.*

In the times when the professional author depended largely on the patronage of some person of rank, the *Dedication* was an integral and indispensable part of a book. If he made sure of his Mæcenæ he could let the many go. At present being for the most part a mere expression of personal esteem or affection, the 'I dedicate' has become as simple in form as in the 17th and 18th centuries it was elaborate with all the rhetorical artifice to which flattery could attain.

Pictorial Imprints or Printers' Devices.—One of the happiest passages in the *Book Hunter* deals with the trade emblems of the old printers. The subject on which it merely touches has been treated at length in such works as Silvestre's *Marques Typographiques* (2 vols. Paris, 1867); Roth-Scholtz's *Thesaurus Symbolorum ac Emblematum, id est, Insignia Bibliopolorum et Typographorum* (Norimbergæ, 1730); Berjeau's *Early Printers' Marks* (Lond. 1866). It is enough here to mention the boldly drawn three-mast ship of Mathis van der Goes, Antwerp (1472-94); the windmill of Andrew Myller, Edinburgh (1508, &c.); the curious wild men and fruit-laden tree of Thomas Davidson, Edinburgh (1541); the olive-tree of the Stephensens; and the sphere of the Elzevirs. In many instances there is a punning allusion to the printer's name: Froschover has his frogs (Frosch in German), and Le Chandelier his seven-branched candlestick; Nicholas Eve gives us a picture of the presentation of the forbidden fruit. Others

make use of the arms of the cities in which they worked. Leen shows the castle of Antwerp,

R. Hall the half-eagle and key on a shield of Geneva, Stadelberger the lion rampant of Heidelberg and the shield diapered of Zurich, &c. Ascensius (1462-1532) has 'bequeathed to posterity the lively and accurate representation, down to every nail and screw, of the press in which the great works of the 16th century were



Imprint of Caxton.

printed, with the brawny pressman pulling his proof.' His device with the inscription *Prela Ascensianu*

was adopted by Josse Bade, Paris (1501-35), who added his initials at the foot; by De Gourmont (1507-15); Le Preux (1561-87); and in a modified form by De Marnef (1567) and De Roigny (1565). The anchor and dolphin of the Aldi was employed by Turrisan, De Chenney, Brillard, Tardif, Coulombel, sometimes, as in the last instance, with the divided



Imprint of Gaspard Philippe, Paris (1500-10).

Decoration of the Book.—Leaving out of view the pictorial illustration devoted to the elucidation of the subject treated of in a book (see ILLUSTRATION), there are certain forms of illustration which are merely decorative appendages to the book itself. Besides the ornamental treatment of the title-page with peculiar letters, the use of red or blue ink, and the insertion of a printer's emblem or some appropriate vignette, we must mention the engraved title-page (in the 16th and 17th centuries often a most elaborate and costly piece of work), the frontispiece or engraving placed opposite the title-page; ornamental initial letters for chapters; headpieces or vignettes for the blank space generally left before the beginning of a new chapter; and tailpieces at the end of the chapters. The amount of artistic effort lavished on these apparent trifles will best be understood by consulting Niedling, *Bücher-ornamentik* (1888); Bouchot, *The Printed Book*; and Austin Dobson's chapter in A. Lang's *The Library* (see also the works *supra* at 'Title-pages'). By the earliest printers the insertion of decorative details was left to a special artist—the rubricator (so called from the red ink which he mainly employed).

Space was often left for his initial letters, and at most only a small letter inserted to guide him.

In describing second-hand books various technical expressions are employed. *Black Letter* is explained in a separate article. *Uncut* means that the original size of the paper has not been reduced by cropping the edges, not, as is often supposed, that the paper is still in the sheet, a condition for which there is no generally accepted term. The French use *non coupé* in this latter sense, and for 'uncut' *non rogné*. *Foxed* means that a book is damaged by brown or yellow spots. *Curious* is used euphemistically for 'improper.' 'Unique,' 'rare,' and 'very rare,' require no explanation, but should be accepted with caution. Many books originally printed in thousands (e.g. school-books) have become rare and even unique in course of time; others have been so from the first through the intentional limitation of the numbers issued. A common device to enhance the market value of a book is to issue only a few copies and promise to destroy the plates. Thus the word edition conveys no idea of number. See Egger, *Histoire du Livre* (Paris, n.d.); Bouchot, *The Printed Book* (1887).

Bookbinding is the art of connecting together in a durable and convenient manner the several parts of a book. Before the invention of printing, the binding of manuscript books, which in those days consisted chiefly of Bibles, Psalters, Books of Hours, and other works of an ecclesiastical character, was performed by various orders of monks, who prepared the books up to a certain point ready for ornamentation by the goldsmith and jeweller; and the earliest works from the press were at first printed and bound in direct imitation of these manuscript volumes. Fig. 1 is copied from the side



Fig. 1.

of a Book of Hours bound in the early monastic, or, as it is commonly called, Byzantine style, with a figure of Christ carved on an ivory plaque in the middle, surrounded by gold filigree work and sixteen jewels. It was not till the end of the 15th century, when the printing-press had become common in Italy, that binding took rank as an art by itself, and it was probably in the workshops of Aldo Manutius (Aldus), the famous printer of Venice, that decorative art of the highest character was first applied to the ornamentation of book-covers. There are in the National Library at Paris, books bound for an Italian connoisseur named Tommaso Maioli, and for another celebrated

bibliophile, Jean Grolier of Lyons (1479-1565), at one time treasurer to the Duke of Milan, which are unsurpassed in beauty of design and workmanship at the present day. This taste for artistic book-binding soon spread to France, where the king and the richer among the nobility vied with each other in the possession of handsome bindings. Louis XII. and his queen, Anne of Brittany, both possessed fine examples, probably of Italian workmanship. Henry II. and Catherine de Médicis were perhaps the most enthusiastic royal patrons of the art, and the king's favourite, Diana of Poitiers, had probably the finest collection of splendidly bound books that was ever got together. Henry III., who was also a great lover of books, was afflicted with a peculiar mania for all kinds of emblems of death, and carried it so far as to cause the well-known death's head and cross-bones to be introduced on the bindings of his books; it thus became very easy to recognise volumes which had once formed part of his library. Jacques Auguste de Thou (Thuanus), president of the parliament, and a great friend of Grolier, was another celebrated collector of sumptuously bound books of this period.

It is in the reign of Henry III. (1574-89) that we learn for the first time the names of the binders who were employed in the royal service. Among these, Nicolas and Clovis Eve were the most celebrated. They were the first to introduce the style known as *famfare*, with geometrical patterns filled in with sprays of leaves, palm branches, and other foliated forms.

In the middle of the 17th century we meet with the name of Le Gascon, probably the by-name of Florimond Baudier, whose work merits great praise. The peculiarity of his ornament, known as *pointille*, consists in filling in a geometrical outline with innumerable minute gold dots, often thus forming very pleasing patterns. At the end of this century the most famous workmen of the craft were Duseuil, Padeloup, and Derôme, who faithfully carried on the tradition of their predecessors. A famous binding attributed to Nicolas Padeloup is that figured in our engraving (fig. 2), a *Daphne et Chloé*

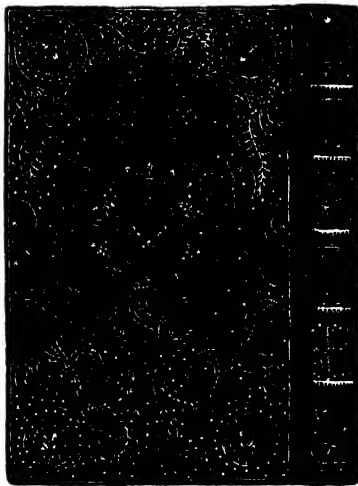


Fig. 2.

of 1718, with the arms of the then regent of France, the Duke of Orleans.

During the present century, bookbinding has continued to preserve its rank as a fine art, especially in France, where the most elaborate work, executed with the greatest care and skill, and often

very beautiful in result, is more sought for than in other countries.

In Germany and the Netherlands most of the books were originally bound in vellum, calf, and pigskin, many of them stamped with ornament in blind-tool (i.e. without gold), and for a few years after printing was invented, the decorative art generally employed was of the most primitive description. In the 17th century, many very elaborate blind-tooled bindings were executed; and during the last half-century, German binders have wakened from their long sleep, and we now see work issuing from Berlin and Leipzig that deserves unqualified admiration.

In England the history of the art is obscure, and, though it must have been extensively practised, the names of few of its followers are known. Julian Rotary, in the reign of Henry VII.; John Reynes, in the time of Henry VIII.; John Gibson of Edinburgh, in the reign of James I.; and Roger Payne, at the end of the 18th century, are those which have chiefly survived. Of the work of many English binders of the end of the 18th and beginning of the 19th century, Baumgarten, Kalthoebler, Bohn, Staggenoir, and others, it is impossible to speak too highly. They were succeeded by Hering, Lewis, Mackenzie, Hayday, Rivière, Bedford, Zaehnsdorf, and other excellent binders; and there are at the present day members of the craft whose names will go down to posterity among those of the most celebrated of their brethren.

Bookbinding may be divided into two classes—viz. case binding or 'cloth-work,' and leather or 'bound work.' The former was introduced by Pickering, the publisher, and Leighton, the binder, in 1822. Before that time books were issued by the publishers bound in millboards covered with coloured paper. In both France and Germany most books, even the finest, are originally issued in paper covers; whereas in England the whole edition often appears in cloth binding. As the latter is that most generally used for ordinary books, it may be first described.

Books are usually supplied to the binder in sheets of sixteen pages, that being the number most easily folded. If for convenience they are printed in larger sheets of thirty-two or sixty-four pages, then these are cut into the proper size before going to the binder. Each sheet has its pages arranged (see PRINTING) so that, when folded, they will follow one another in their proper order; and on the first page of each sheet is a letter called its *signature*. The first sheet of a book is A, the second B, and so on. The sheets are folded either by hand or by any one of a variety of ingenious machines which do the work with great expedition and accuracy. When folded, bundles of the different sheets of the book are laid in order on a table, and a sheet is 'gathered' off each bundle till a book is completed, and so on till the number of books is finished. The separate books are then collated or revised to see that the signatures follow each other in proper order. They are then pressed in a machine to give them a little solidity, and being put straight, are passed over a table having three or four (according to the size of the book) circular saws projecting slightly, which make shallow cuts across the back. The cuts make holes in the sheets, through which they are stitched on a cord which is placed in the saw-cut. The stitching is either done by hand in a frame on which the cords are stretched, or by one of the clever machines which have been invented for the purpose. Some of the machines sew the sheets on tapes, in which case the sawing is dispensed with. The cords or tapes on which the books are sewed are cut with a little piece, half an inch or so, left projecting, and

this, after the end or 'waste' papers are tacked on with paste to each side, is pasted down on the outside sheet. The work up to this point is executed by girls. The sewed books are taken to the *forwarders*, who commence operations by cutting the edges by means of a 'guillotine,' after which any ornamentation of the edges, such as sprinkling with colours, marbling, or gilding, is applied. They are then rounded on the back by hammering on a plate, and put into a press which forces a piece of the back over the sides, forming shoulders, called the joints, which grip the case. A piece of thin canvas being glued over the back, with a portion overlapping, the book is ready for the case, which has meanwhile been also in preparation. The case consists of two pieces of millboard, cut to the proper size by a most ingenious machine, which, like the greater part of the machinery used in bookbinding, is of American invention; the boards are separated by a piece of paper of the proper width to form the back of the book, and the whole covered with specially prepared cloth of any desired colour. The cases are made with great expedition by three or four girls working in concert. The ornamentation of the case is next executed. This varies from the simplest lettering or title on the back or side to the most elaborate decoration specially designed by artists who study that branch of art. This may be stamped in gold, ink of various colours, or blind (i.e. plain), or a combination of all three. The designs are engraved on brass, the gilt portion on one piece, the ink or blind on another, and stamped on the case by means of a press worked either by hand or steam. Where gilt work is intended, gold-leaf is first put on the case, and after being impressed by the stamp, which is kept hot when in use, the superfluous gold is rubbed off, the parts stamped only adhering to the case. The ornamentation of cases is capable of an infinite variety of modifications. When the case is ready, the outside end-papers of the book are pasted, including the pieces of cord and canvas already mentioned; the case is carefully placed in the joints, and the whole placed in a hydraulic press till dry, when the binding is finished.

Leather or bound work differs from case work in the essential particular that the boards are put together *on* the book. The sewing is much similar to that already described, except that it is more carefully done, and the cords are stronger, and longer pieces are left. The *forwarder* hammers the back round and forms the joint by hand, laces the ends of the cords through the boards, and pastes them down securely. The edges are then marbled or otherwise ornamented, and *headbands*, ingenious arrangements to strengthen the top and bottom of the back, are worked on. After lining the back with strong brown paper, little strips of pasteboard to form the back into panels are stuck on, and a piece of leather, very carefully prepared, with the edges pared thin, and cut to a proper size, is pasted over the whole cover, with about an inch turned over the boards. The work is then handed over to the *finisher*. In his hands the leather is sized with diluted paste, varnished with *glair* made of white of egg, and the gilt ornamentation, lettering, &c., is executed by hand tools at his discretion. This part of the process demands great skill on the part of the workman, who should have the instincts of an artist. In 'calf' binding, a differently coloured piece of leather is generally pasted on the title panel, but in 'morocco' work this is dispensed with. During the finishing process a book may pass through the workman's hands as many as thirty or forty times, a separate operation being performed every time.

In half-binding, a strip of leather is glued or pasted over the back of the book and reaching

about an inch and a half on the board on each side; a triangular piece of leather is usually pasted over the corners to strengthen them. The cloth or paper to cover the sides is then put on and turned over the boards, the marbled or otherwise ornamented end-papers are pasted on the inside, and after being pressed, the book is finished. What is called Roxburghe binding is simply half-binding in morocco, without leather corners; generally with the top only gilt.

In magazine parts, or other books covered in paper, the sheets are stitched together and the paper cover pasted on the back. Sometimes they are fastened with two or three wire-stitches clamped through by means of a machine. In what are called 'limp' books—i.e. books with thin boards which do not project beyond the leaves, the cloth is generally pasted over a paper cover stitched along with the book, and the edges cut afterwards.

There are several divisions of the bookbinding profession. Where publishing is on a large scale, as in London, Edinburgh, New York, and Philadelphia, binding for publishers, which is principally cloth-work, is carried on in extensive factories, fitted up with costly and elaborate machinery driven by steam. The binding of account-books is a separate branch called 'stationery binding.' Other binders devote themselves to fine art binding; others to paper-work; others again to Bibles and Prayer-books exclusively. In all, however, the same three requisites, solidity, elasticity, and elegance, are necessary to a well-bound book. The marbling of edges and the preparation of end-papers is a separate industry.

Manuel Historique et Bibliographique de l'Amateur de Reliures, Léon Gruel (4to, Paris, 1887); *La Reliure Ancienne*, G. Brunet (1880); *La Reliure de Luxe*, L. Derôme (1886); *La Reliure Moderne*, O. Uzanne (1887); *Les Reliures d'Art*, H. Bouchot (1888); *Pac-similes of Old Bookbinding in the collection of James Gibson-Craig* (Privately printed, folio, Edin. 1882); *On Book Bindings, Ancient and Modern*, edited by Joseph Candall (4to, Lond. 1881); *Bookbinding: a Manual of the Art of Bookbinding*, J. B. Nicholson (cr. 8vo, 1882); *The Art of Bookbinding*, J. W. Zachmsdorf (post 8vo, 1880).

Book-club is either (1) an association for purchasing and reading new books as they issue from the press, or (2) an association for the printing of books relating to some special branch of inquiry. The importance of the former kind of book-club has greatly diminished in Britain since the general establishment of circulating libraries after the style of Mudie's in London. The present article deals with the printing book-club only. The oldest is the Cymmrodorion or Metropolitan Cambrian Institution, founded in 1751, and reconstituted in 1820, and again in 1877. The still earlier Dilettanti Society (1734) is also a kind of book-club, its *magnum opus* the *Antiquities of Ionia* (4 parts, 1769-1882). But the practical prototype of the true book-club was the Roxburghe, instituted (17th June 1813) in commemoration of the sale of the Duke of Roxburghe's library, and more especially in honour of the Valdarfer *Boccaccio*. At first the club was largely convivial, its dinners costing sometimes £5 or £6 a head; though it was understood that each member was to be at the cost of reprinting as many copies of some scarce work as there were members in the association—the chairman's copy to be on vellum. The first issues were quite trivial; and the solid work of the club began only with Sir Frederick Madden's *Romance of Huonok the Dane* in 1828. It was the Bannatyne Club (q.v.), founded by Sir Walter Scott in 1823, which began the regular issue of really substantial productions. The Camden Society introduced the method, now universal, of taking an annual sub-

scription from each member, instead of leaving the whole expense of a book to be defrayed by one individual; and thus, among other advantages, secured a more equal standard of excellence. Omitting learned societies which publish only Proceedings and Transactions, the following is a brief list of the more important book-clubs and book-printing societies of Great Britain: Maitland Club (Glasgow, 1828-59), after Sir Richard Maitland of Lethington, works illustrative of Scottish history, antiquities, and literature; Oriental Translation Fund (1828-58); Iona Club (Edinburgh, 1833-38), history, antiquities, and early literature of Scottish Highlands and Islands; Surtees Society (Durham, 1834), after Robert Surtees of Mainsforth, manuscripts dealing with the Northumbrian region; Abbotford Club (Edinburgh, 1834-37), history, literature, and antiquities, English and Scottish; Camden Soc. (Lond. 1838), civil, ecclesiastical, and literary history of the United Kingdom; Spalding Club (Aberdeen, 1839-70; revived 1887), after the local historian, literature of north-eastern counties of Scotland; Parker Soc. (Lond. 1840-55), after Archbishop Parker, the fathers and early writers of the Reformed English Church; Percy Soc. (Lond. 1840-52), after Thomas Percy, ballad poetry; Shakespeare Soc. (Lond. 1840-53); Soc. for the Publication of Oriental Texts (Lond. 1841-50); Elfric Soc. (Lond. 1842-56), Anglo-Saxon works; Chetham Soc. (Manchester, 1843), after Humphrey Chetham, works connected with Counties Palatine of Lancaster and Chester; Sydenham Soc. (Lond. 1843), medical literature; Spottiswoode Soc. (Edin. 1843-51), authors of the Episcopal Church of Scotland; Ray Soc. (Lond. 1844), natural history; Wernerian Club (Lond. 1844), scientific works; Cavendish Soc. (Lond. 1846), chemical science; Hakluyt Soc. (Lond. 1846), geography and travel; Arundel Soc. (Lond. 1848), important works of old masters; Early English Text Soc. (1864); Spenser Soc. (1867-68); Holbein Soc. (Lond. 1868), illustrated works; Ballad Soc. (Lond. 1868); Chaucer Soc. (1868); Harleian Soc. (1869), historical; English Dialect Soc. (1873); New Shakespeare Soc. (1873); Folklore Soc. (Lond. 1877); Index Soc. (1878); Wyclif (1882); Palaeographical and Pipe Roll Soc. (1883); Palestine Pilgrims Text Soc. (1884); Scottish Text Soc. (Edin. 1883); Scottish History Soc. (Edin. 1886). Among the many similar societies in the United States, the oldest is the Massachusetts Historical Society (Boston, 1792). See Burton, *Book Hunter*; Martin, *Bibliogr. Cat. of Books privately printed* (1834); Hume & Evans, *Learned Societies and Printing Clubs of the United Kingdom*; *English Catalogue* (Appendixes); Bohn, Appendix to Lowndes' *Bibliographer's Manual* (1864); *Yearbook of Learned and Scientific Societies* (1885; new ed. 1888).

Book-keeping is the art of recording commercial and financial transactions in a regular and systematic manner. Its object is to preserve a distinct and accurate record of such transactions, and from a well-kept set of books a merchant should be able to ascertain at any time the state of his account with any person with whom he has dealings, and the profits or losses resulting from each venture or department of his business, his assets and liabilities, and the exact state of his affairs. The stability of a business depends to a very large extent upon the accuracy of the information thus conveyed, for without it, the trader, in ignorance or with only a vague idea of his true position, often proceeds upon wholly erroneous and inflated ideas of his resources, and is only awakened to the real state of matters by the impossibility of meeting his liabilities when they fall due. Many a bankruptcy may be traced directly to the

errors and confusion arising from neglect or carelessness in this department. But these considerations are far from being universally realised and acted upon by business men. Among the class of small traders especially, the time required for keeping books in proper order is grudged as being unremunerative, and the work, if done at all, is performed in a careless and inefficient way, frequently with the disastrous results above referred to. The necessity of keeping proper books has been recognised by the legislature. The Debtors Act (Scotland), 1880, contains provisions for the punishment of bankrupts who have failed to keep satisfactory books, and the English Bankruptcy Act (1883) has a similar clause. A merchant's books frequently constitute important evidence in a court of law, and they should for this reason, if for no other, be kept as neatly and carefully as possible; the presence of blots, deletions, and erasures, or the tearing out of pages, will render them liable to suspicion, and greatly lessen their value in this respect.

It is probable that at a very early period, so soon as trading transactions became too involved to be readily borne in mind, means would be found to keep some record of them. Thus we read in the Book of Ecclesiastians (chap. xlii. 7), 'put all in writing that thou givest out or receivest in;' and excavations in Babylon have brought to light the records of a great banking-house inscribed upon the bricks or tiles which served the purpose of books. From certain passages in Cicero and Pliny it seems evident that the Romans understood something of *Debit* and *Credit*, so far, at least, as to make entries falling under these terms upon opposite pages. As an art, however, book-keeping appears to have arisen in the great mercantile cities of Italy during the 15th century, and the principles of double entry (*doppia scrittura*), under the name of 'the Italian method,' gradually spread over Europe, many languages still retaining the original Italian names as technical terms. The earliest treatise, so far as known, on the subject was contained in an algebraic work by a friar named Lucas de Burgo, which was published at Venice in 1494. The great work of Edward Thomas Jones, which is still the standard work on book-keeping, and is now in its 18th edition, was first published in 1795. Jones's *English System of Book-keeping*, as he called it, is in reality a simplified and methodised form of the Italian double entry, and his rules, with various modifications, are now almost universally followed. Blunders and confusion frequently arise from the attempt to follow slavishly definite rules without an intelligent knowledge of their meaning, a comprehension of the general principles being much more important than a strict adherence to any particular style however excellent. It may fairly be said that a just appreciation of the terms *Debtor* and *Creditor*, which, abbreviated to *Dr.* and *Cr.*, are usually placed at the top of the left and right hand respectively of every account, affords a master-key to the whole subject. A person, or his account, is regarded in book-keeping as *debtor* for what he *receives*, and *creditor* for what he *gives*. Thus the value of goods sold to a person, or cash paid to him, is placed to the *debtor* or left-hand side of his account, while cash or goods received from him are entered on the *credit* or right-hand side.

The details of book-keeping vary largely according to the nature and extent of the transactions which are to be recorded. Thus the shopkeeper's books differ from those of the great wholesale merchant, and these again from the books of banks, public companies, and government departments; but the same general principles underlie all, and

when once these are well mastered, they may, with the exercise of a little intelligence and ingenuity, be applied to every emergency.

There are two kinds of book-keeping in general use—SINGLE ENTRY and DOUBLE ENTRY. In the first of these, the only accounts kept in the ledger are those of the persons with whom there are dealings, and a statement of affairs is arrived at by adding together the debts due to the trader, and those due by him. To the former is added the value of any stock-in-trade or other property he may have, and the excess of these *assets*, as they are called, over the liabilities, is the amount of his *capital*. By comparing this figure with his capital at the last balancing date, and taking into account any sums he may have paid into or withdrawn from the business, he estimates his profit or loss for the period. But this is a manifestly crude and imperfect system, and most traders, even though they may not adopt double entry in its fullest and most elaborate form, import more or less of its principles in order to have some check upon the accuracy of their balance sheet and to gain information as to the details of their business.

Double entry is the true art of book-keeping, and it completely fulfils the requirements of clearness, completeness, and accuracy. Its theory is founded upon the obvious fact that every commercial transaction has two sides: if it is a *giving* by one person, it must be a *receiving* by another. Thus every sale involves a purchase, every debtor must have a corresponding creditor, and every creditor a debtor, and the double-entry system derives its name from recording both sides of each transaction. If an entry is made to the credit of any account in the ledger, there must be a corresponding entry to the debit of some other account. In this way the two sides of the ledger must always agree, or balance one another, and their failure to do so discloses the presence of an error—e.g. if a merchant buy a quantity of calico of the value of £50 from the manufacturers, A. B. & Co., he will place £50 to the *credit* of A. B. & Co.'s account, and the same sum to the *debit* of 'calico' account, which represents himself as the receiver. In the same way, if the calico is afterwards sold to C. D. & Co. for £60, that sum will be placed to the *debit* of C. D. & Co.'s account, and to the *credit* of 'calico' account. Many are deterred from adopting the double-entry system by an exaggerated idea of its complexity and laboriousness; and it would no doubt be most unwise for a tradesman with a small business to plunge into the most elaborate form of the system. But if his books are accurately kept by single entry it is possible to convert them yearly or periodically into double entry with very little trouble. This is done by casting up the purchases, sales, and expenses for the period, from which a goods account and profit and loss account can be constructed. Thus the principle of double entry is carried out, though roughly, and its check taken advantage of without multiplication of books, accounts, or labour.

The same books are used in both systems except the journal, which is peculiar to double entry, and a brief description of the most important books which would be kept by an ordinary merchant will serve to exemplify the general principles of book-keeping.

Day-book, or *Sales-book*.—This book contains a daily record of all goods sold. Under each day's date should be stated the name of the purchaser, and a full description of the goods—their quality, quantity, and the rate. If several items are sold to the same person on the same day, the various items are usually stated in an inner column, and the total amount extended to a second column.

Where this is done, a test of the accuracy of these additions is obtained by adding up both columns, the total of which ought of course to be the same. Cash sales—that is, goods paid for at the time of purchase—may be entered in one sum at the close of each day.

The *Invoice-book*, or *Purchase-book*, keeps a similar record of all purchases. It is written up from the invoices or accounts sent along with all goods received, and the invoices themselves are preserved either in files or by pasting them into a book called a *Guard Invoice-book*.

Cash-book.—In this very important book, all receipts and payments of cash are recorded from day to day. The two opposite pages of the book are used concurrently, the receipts being entered on the left-hand or debtor side, and the payments on the right-hand or creditor side. It is thus in form simply an *account current* between the cashier and his employers, all money received by him being placed to his debit, and all disbursements to his credit. On the two sides being summed up, the excess of the total receipts over the disbursements, called the cash *balance*, is the sum for which the cashier is accountable, and should agree with the cash actually in his till. This test should invariably be applied every day, as an error or omission becomes more difficult of detection the longer its discovery is delayed. Payments by means of cheques on the banking account, though they do not affect the actual cash on hand, are usually entered as disbursements on the creditor side, while a corresponding entry for the same amount, as if received from the banker, is made on the debtor side. It is also usual to have a separate column in which the discounts or abatements on each account paid or received are noted. The cash-book is also sometimes provided with several cash-columns on either side, so that transactions of the same kind may be collected together and added up separately. Thus the debtor side may be divided into bank entries, bills receivable, &c., and the creditor side into bank, bills payable, wages, charges, &c., the total in each case being extended into the last column.

Bill-book.—This book is a record, in the order of their date, of all bills receivable or payable by the firm, a separate book being usually kept for each. It should contain appropriate space for such particulars as—number of bill, date, name of drawer, indorser, and acceptor, currency and due date, amount, when and how paid or disposed of. See article *BILLS OF EXCHANGE*.

Journal.—The journal may be called the master-book of the double-entry system. It contains an abstract or synopsis of all the other books, the whole of the transactions being here digested under proper heads so as to facilitate their transfer to the appropriate accounts in the ledger. By the old Italian system, debit and credit entries were made in the same column of the journal, but the modern journal has two columns in each page, the first for debit and the second for credit entries, corresponding to the *Dr.* and *Cr.* sides of the ledger accounts. As the ledger contains precisely the same entries as the journal, though differently arranged, the summation of the columns of the latter for a given period should, unless a mistake has occurred, exactly agree with the aggregate of either side of the former. The subsidiary books are usually journalised, or abstracted into the journal, monthly. The strict rules of double entry require that no entry should be made in the ledger except from the journal, but to save time and labour the cash-book is often posted direct, the monthly totals only being passed through the journal, and some follow the same plan with the day-book and invoice-book. All sorts of cross

entries, or transfers from one account to another, must be made by means of the journal, which shows clearly where the corresponding entries are, and how the equilibrium of debtor and creditor is preserved.

Ledger.—The ledger (called in Fr. *grand livre*) is the most important of all the books. It exhibits under distinct headings the accounts of all persons with whom the merchant has dealings. It also contains accounts for every description of property and for outlay, such as wages and general expenses not chargeable to particular accounts. Here will ultimately be found, in a tabulated form, the contents of all the other books, the debits being on the left and the credits on the right hand side of the account. It has been already explained that in double entry all these entries should be posted from the journal, and that no entry can be made on either side of any account without a corresponding one being made on the opposite side of some other account. To *balance* a ledger, accordingly, the book-keeper must take down on a sheet of paper, or book for the purpose, the total sums on the debtor and creditor sides respectively of all the accounts. This is called a *Trial Balance*, and if the two sides agree, the accuracy of the work is demonstrated; if not, he must examine the transfers and additions till the error is discovered. This done, the balances of the various accounts instructing the gains and losses or expenses of the business are transferred by journal entry to *profit and loss* account, and the balance of that account in turn is carried to *capital account* or divided among the partners if there be more than one. The remaining accounts are then closed by transferring their balances to balance account; and the books are reopened for another period by a reversing entry bringing down the balances thus transferred to start a new account. A *Balance Sheet* is a statement of the merchant's affairs, and exhibits on the one side his whole assets, stock-in-trade, debts outstanding, property and furniture, and cash in bank or on hand. On the other side are his liabilities and his capital, which is just the excess of the assets over the liabilities. The following is a specimen of a balance sheet of the simplest description:

Balance Sheet of George White, Grocer, London,
as at 31st December 1887.

Dr.			Cr.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
To Sundry Creditors	1004	11 7	By Stock-in-trade	1285	3 8
" Bills Payable	250	18 9	" Sundry Debtors	1281	9 6
" George White,			" Bills Receivable	173	11 10
Capital a/c	1880	5 3	" Warehouse Furniture	125	15 0
			" Cash at Banker's	273	11 5
			" Do. on hand	11	4 2
	3150	15 7		3150	15 7

Besides the books enumerated, others of a subsidiary kind are kept by most merchants, as a *Return Book* for goods returned by or to him, an *Order Book* where all orders are promptly noted, a *Warehouse Book* to keep account of all stock entering or leaving the warehouse, a *Package* or *Case Book* for barrels, cases, &c. to be returned, and *Account Sales Book*, showing the net proceeds of each cargo or consignment of goods, a *Letter Book*, and many others. The ledger is frequently, for convenience, kept as two or three separate books—Sales Ledger, Purchase Ledger, and Private Ledger—but they must, for balancing purposes, be considered as forming parts of one whole. In extensive businesses, each branch or department may have separate books of its own, the whole being brought to a general balance at periodic times.

While the principles of book-keeping are thus demonstrably unerring, it must be borne in mind that no system, however perfect, will make up

for slovenliness or carelessness on the part of the book-keeper, or for want of due oversight on that of the employer. The utmost regularity, vigilance, and honesty are required to avoid snares and fallacies, and there are some errors which the most elaborate book-keeping will not detect, but in some cases, even help to conceal. Many a company, for example, has paid its shareholders a dividend out of apparent but delusive profits, resulting from over-valuation of property, or from reckoning bad debts as if they were good. Hence in taking stock, which should be done at least annually, great care must be exercised against over-valuation. In no case should stock be valued at more than it cost; if it has deteriorated, it should be entered at a correspondingly reduced figure. A deduction should also be made to cover depreciation in value of machinery, plant, and furniture, new additions being at the same time added.

Book-keeping is taught in our schools as one of the branches of a commercial education; but of no subject can it be said with greater truth, that a pinch of practice is worth a peck of theory. There are, however, several good books on the subject, and among them may be mentioned, besides the work of Jones already referred to, *Practical Book-keeping*, by F. H. Carter, C.A. (Edin.); and *Book-keeping by Single and Double Entry*, by William Inglis (Edin.), a convenient and reliable handbook on the subject. There are also several manuals of book-keeping specially suited to the requirements of the government Civil Service.

Book-lice, various small insects which damage books: (1) Thus in the family Psocidae, in the order Orthoptera, there are numerous minute wingless insects which shelter in books and among papers, and do especial damage to collections of insects. One of them (*Atropus pulsatorius*) was long credited with being the Death-watch. The closely allied *Troetus discinatorius* is a yet commoner pest of entomological cabinets. See DEATH WATCH. (2) Among beetles, too, in the wood-boring family, Xylophaga, *Ptilinus pectinicornis* is known to attack books with wood in the binding. See the article BORERS. (3) Very different are the book-scorpions (Cheliferidae) in the spider class (Arachnida). See BOOK-SCORPION.

Book of the Dead. See DEAD (BOOK OF THE).

Bookplates. This is the somewhat awkward English name for labels of ownership frequently placed on the inside covers of books. Abroad these labels are styled *ex libris*. The use of bookplates is of some antiquity, and mention has been made of one dated in the middle of the 15th century, but at present the fine bookplates of Bilibaldus Pirckheimer (1470-1530), designed by Albert Dürer, hold the foremost place in point of time. Engraved English bookplates are not found of so early a date, but an old folio volume from Henry VIII.'s library, now in the British Museum, contains an elaborately emblazoned drawing which formed the bookplate of Cardinal Wolsey, with his arms, supporters, and cardinal's hat. The earliest English engraved bookplate at present known is that of Sir Nicholas Bacon, father of Lord Chancellor Bacon, which is dated 1574. The number of English examples dated previous to the Restoration which have come down to us are singularly few, but after this period the series is well represented, and some of these plates are of considerable historical interest. Samuel Pepys had several bookplates; those with his own portrait could not have been engraved before 1685, because he is described therein as Secretary to the Admiralty under Charles II. and James II., but the one with his initials and the crossed anchors

was probably engraved as early as 1668. The bookplate of Pepys's faithful friend, William Hewer (in whose house at Clapham the diarist died), is dated 1690. The date on the plate of the well-known alderman and Lord Mayor, Sir Robert Clayton, is 1679. The names of Bishop Burnet, William Penn, Robert Harley, Matthew Prior, Lawrence Sterne, David Garrick, Horace Walpole, John Wilkes, and Charles James Fox, may be mentioned among those found on the highly prized bookplates of the collectors.

The styles of design adopted by book-collectors for their bookplates have been very diverse. Some of these labels have contained merely the name of the possessor, but the majority are armorial, some are allegorical in design, and others are ornamented with miniature landscapes. Many distinguished artists have condescended to produce bookplates. The name of Albert Dürer has already been mentioned as the designer of Pirckheimer's two plates—one in which the allegorical and the armorial elements are united, and the other consisting of a large and bold portrait of the once celebrated senator of Nuremberg. Of English engravers, William Marshall and Robert White may be specially mentioned. Hogarth engraved a bookplate for John Holland, heraldic artist, and another for George Lambert the scene-painter. George Vertue and Thomas Worlidge also produced bookplates, and Thomas Bewick was at one time fully employed in their production. One of the prettiest of bookplates is that designed by Agnes Berry in 1793 for the Hon. Mrs Damer. This was engraved by Francis Legat. The earliest bookplates were of large size, as if made specially for folios, but a smaller size soon became general, a size which was used for both large and small books. Sir William Stirling Maxwell used a variety of sizes for differently sized books, and some of these bookplates were of gigantic proportions. The fashion of collecting bookplates is a very modern one, and not many years ago little attention was paid to them. A label of special interest might be retained in a book, but in most instances the bookplate of the latest owner was placed over that of the former one. The existence of these labels in books adds much to their interest, but the craze for collecting bookplates, apart from the books they once adorned, has little to be said in its favour. In 1837 the Rev. Daniel Parsons published an article on bookplates in the *Third Annual Report of the Oxford University Archaeological and Heraldic Society*, and in 1851 he announced his intention of writing a history of bookplates, but this work was never produced. A valuable handbook to the study of the subject has been published at Paris by Mons. A. Poulet-Malassis, entitled *Les Ex-libris Français depuis leur Origine jusqu'à nos Jours*. A second edition of this work appeared in 1875. The Hon. J. Leicester Warren published in 1880 the first English work on the subject (*A Guide to the Study of Bookplates*), and in 1884 Mr Griggs printed privately a very small edition of a work entitled *Eighty-three Examples of Armorial Bookplates*.

Book-scorpion (*Chelifer cancrivores*), a small Arachnid, in appearance between scorpion and mite. It is like a small flattened scorpion without a tail. The front of the body is scorpion-like, and bears a transverse dorsal groove; the posterior body is flat, with 10 or 11 rings. There are two eyes; the respiration is by means of air-tubes; the eggs are



Book-scorpion.

carried about on the abdomen of the female. Spinning-glands are present, and the body is sometimes covered by the secretion. The size is about one-eighth of an inch, the colour brownish. The book-scorpion lurks among old books and papers, and probably helps their preservation by killing off and eating book-lice, mites, and other small insects. Upon the whole it likely does more good than harm. Other related forms are common under bark, moss, &c. Some species are found attached to the legs of house-flies, which not improbably indicates a partial parasitism. See ARACHNIDA, BOOK-LICE, SCORPION, SPIDER.

Book-trade. The business of dealing in books comprehends three classes of traders—Publishers, who prepare and dispose of books wholesale; Wholesale Booksellers, who distribute books to retail dealers; and Retail Booksellers, who sell books to the public. The latter class may again be divided into dealers in new books, in second-hand books, and in periodicals. Although ordinarily distinct, these classes may conveniently be treated together. While publishing apart from bookselling is of modern date, the selling of books is as old as the origin of literature. Manuscript copies of the works of authors were sold in the ancient Greek cities and in Rome. The first book of Martial's epigrams was to be had for an English equivalent of about three shillings; his other books for less. Slave labour was employed in transcription; and there were men who employed copyists and sold their work. Horace celebrates 'the brothers Sosii' as eminent booksellers (*bibliopole*). In the middle ages the monks of various monasteries were in the habit of bartering the books they transcribed. But books were rare and costly because of the ignorance and the apathy of the public. With the foundation of several universities in the 12th century, the preparation and sale of books increased; but the trade of bookselling attained to importance only after the invention of printing. The first booksellers were also book-lenders, under the control of the universities. In 1292 the book-trade of Paris consisted of 24 copyists, 17 bookbinders, 19 parchment makers, 13 illuminators, 8 dealers in manuscripts; the last had increased to 29 in 1323. The business was more in lending than selling. Students at the English universities bought their books or received them on loan from the 'sworn stationers.' Some of the French kings and princes of the royal blood were liberal patrons of authors and all engaged in the production of books. Philippe, Duke of Burgundy (1396-1467) gave constant employment at Bruges to a host of authors, translators, copyists, and illuminators.

The first printers acted also as booksellers, and being mostly learned men, they were generally the editors, and, in some instances, the authors of the works which they produced. The manufacture of books had become such an important item of commerce that at Bruges (1454) and Antwerp (1450) a guild of booksellers, copyists, and allied trades was formed (see PRINTING). Faust and Schöffer, the partners of Gutenberg (q.v.), carried the productions of the Mainz press to the fair of Frankfort-on-the-Maine and to Paris. Some instances of division of the two branches, printing and bookselling, occurred in the 15th century. The founder of the Stephens (q.v.) family of printers and publishers had settled in Paris in 1502; Louis, the first of the Elzevirs (q.v.), was settled as a bookseller and bookbinder in Leyden in 1580. The press established by Aldo Manuzio, during one hundred years (1490-1597), printed 908 different works (see ALDINE EDITIONS). Plantin (q.v. 1514-89) of Antwerp had sometimes twenty presses at work.

Migrating from place to place, and resorting to the great continental fairs for customers, the early booksellers became known as *stationarii*, or stationers—i.e. occupiers of a 'stance' or station at a fair. The first stationers in England seem also to have engrossed what they sold. Caxton and Wynkyn de Worde chiefly issued translations. The Reformation caused a great demand for Bibles. The pedlars who frequented the country fairs were of some importance in the early days of bookselling. It was a common thing for government, in the 16th century, to enforce the printing of restrictions as to price on the last page of a book. The number of readers was but small, and in 1540 Grafton printed only 500 copies of his complete edition of Scripture. There exist 326 editions of the Bible or parts of the Bible printed between 1526 and 1600. Ames and Herbert record 350 printers at work in England and Scotland (1476-1600); at least 10,000 distinct works were printed during that period. The British Museum has a collection of over 2000 volumes of Tracts all relating to the period of the first English Revolution from 1640 to 1690, which include 30,000 separate publications. This was the era of the controversial pamphlet. Dr Johnson has remarked that from 1623 to 1664 the nation was satisfied with two editions of Shakespeare. The stock of books in sheets lost by the booksellers around St Paul's in the great fire of 1666 was of an estimated value of £200,000.

Whether settled or migratory, the early booksellers were subject to many restrictions. In England, the book-trade was trammelled by royal patents and proclamations, decrees and ordinances of the Star Chamber, licenses of universities, and charters granting monopolies in, the sale of particular classes of works. In 1557 the Stationers' Company of London was constituted by royal charter, and exercised an arbitrary censorship of the press. The Crown, by an Act 13 and 14 Car. II. chap. 23, commonly called the 'Licensing Act,' assumed this species of control over the issue of books. The Licensing Act, and its renewals, ultimately expired in 1694. By the first Copyright Act, 8 Anne, chap. 19, the legislature interposed to protect the rights of authors, and to relieve them, as well as publishers, from the thralldom of the Stationers' Company. But by the same act, the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and certain judges in England, and the judges of the Court of Session in Scotland, were empowered, on the complaint of any person, to regulate the prices of books, and to fine those who sought higher prices than they enjoined. This provision was in force till 1738, when it was abolished by the Act 12 Geo. II. chap. 36. From this time the book-trade was free.

Many of the bibliopoles who flourished in the 17th and 18th centuries have been rendered famous, not less by their enterprise and vigour of mind, than by association with the authors and wits of the period. Thomas Guy (1644-1724) is remembered in connection with the Bible-trade, and as the founder of Guy's Hospital; Cripps, the publisher of the seven folio editions of Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy* (1621-76), according to Wood, 'got an estate by it'; John Dunton's (1659-1733) name has been preserved by Swift, and he is notable as one of the first men the Pretender purposed to hang at Tyburn, if ever he ascended the British throne, 'for having writ forty books to prove him a Popish impostor'; Jacob Tonson (1656-1736), Dryden's publisher, and satirised by the poet, was the first to popularise *Paradise Lost* and Shakespeare; Lintott (1675-1736) enriched himself and Pope with editions of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*; Curll (1675-1748) was pilloried not only by the govern-

ment, but by Pope in his *Dunciad*; Richardson (1689-1761) was both novelist and printer; Johnson, who wrote the life of Cave (1691-1754), said Cave 'scarcely ever looked out of the window but with a view to the improvement of his *Gentleman's Magazine*.' Of the publisher of Thomson, Fielding, and Hume, he also said, 'I respect Millar, he has raised the price of literature.' One of the Newberys, bookseller and medicine vendor, was associated with Goldsmith, and is spoken of in the *Vicar of Wakefield* as 'the philanthropic bookseller of St Paul's Churchyard.' Ralph Griffiths is notable as the founder of the *Monthly Review* in 1749, and Dodsley of the *Annual Register* (1758). Joseph Cottle (1770-1853), the Bristol bookseller, was the friend and early patron of Coleridge, Southey, and Wordsworth. The names of Hutton, Cadell, Strahan, Baldwin, Rivington, Longman, Dilly, Lackington, were no less notable in their day, than have been, in later times, those of Knight, of Edward Moxon, the friend of Lamb, and publisher of the early works of Browning and Tennyson, and of Bell & Sons, Bentley, Cassell, Chapman & Hall, Chatto & Windus, Longman, Low, Macmillan, Murray, Nisbet, Rivington, Routledge, Seeley, and Smith, Elder, & Co.

In Scotland, after struggling through an age of restriction, the book-trade was developed about the middle of the 18th century. In Edinburgh, it engaged Allan Ramsay, who published and sold his songs and his charming pastoral. Among his successors were Donaldson, Bell, Miller, Elliot, and Creech (author, and publisher of the first edition of Burns), each eminent in his way; but it was mainly Archibald Constable (q.v.), the first publisher of the *Edinburgh Review* and *Waverley Novels*, and later William Blackwood (q.v.), the originator of *Blackwood's Magazine*, who raised the reputation of Edinburgh as a literary mart in the early part of the 19th century. Still more recently the reputation of the Edinburgh book-trade has been maintained by W. & R. Chambers; by Adam Black (q.v.), publisher of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*; by T. Nelson & Sons, well known for their educational, juvenile, and religious publications; by W. & A. K. Johnston, who are extensively engaged in the production of maps and atlases; and by Mr Bartholomew, geographical publisher. The preparation of school-books has largely occupied the energies of the two principal publishing firms, while it is worthy of note that two of the most successful encyclopædias of the 19th century, the *Britannica* and the present work, emanate from Edinburgh. Glasgow during recent years has become energetic in publishing, and many books, chiefly educational, have been issued from local presses.

The purchase of books in the 15th and 16th centuries was confined to the nobler and richer citizens and scholars. In the 17th and 18th centuries the demand for books began to spread among the middle classes. The plan of issuing neat cheap editions of popular works was initiated more than a hundred years ago (1760-70) by Alexander Donaldson (an Edinburgh bookseller), and by John Bell, who in 1777 issued *British Poets, from Chaucer to Churchill*, which led to the famous meeting of forty members of the London book-trade in the Chapter Coffee-house, and to the publication of Johnson's *Lives of the Poets*. These were followed up by several publishers in London, one of whom, C. Cooke (1790-1800), issued an extensive series of cheap reprints, of a pocket size, called *Cooke's Editions*, which for tastefulness of preparation have hardly been excelled. In the early years of the present century, Suttaby's, Sharpe's, Walker's, and Dove's pocket editions were stock articles in the trade. About 1817-18 some enterprising booksellers began to break through certain old usages,

by issuing reprints of standard works, in a good style of typography, at considerably reduced prices. At the same time, numerous cheap periodicals made their appearance; but these, for the most part, were of so seditious, irreligious, and libellous a character, that the law interposed to check the growing evil, by the Act of 1819 (see *NEWSPAPERS*). During the next ten years the only periodical that attained to permanent success was Limbird's *Mirror* (1822), an illustrated weekly sheet. In 1827 the Society for Diffusing Useful Knowledge began to issue its low-priced scientific treatises; and Archibald Constable commenced the cheap series of works in original literature, called *Constable's Miscellany*. 'Though Constable in his grand style,' says Knight, 'talked of millions of buyers, he charged his little volumes 3s. 6d. each. He was right. The millions were not ready to buy such books at a shilling, nor even at sixpence. They are not ready now' (1854). All this is changed, and as good value can now be had for sixpence and a shilling.

Viewing all previous enterprises of this kind as fitful and insufficient, as well as unsupported by any breadth of appreciation, we have to refer to this period (1827-32) for the true origin of what is now designated the 'cheap press.' Taking advantage of the growing demand for cheap literature, and desirous of guiding it in a right direction, William and Robert Chambers (q.v.) of Edinburgh began, on the 4th of February 1832, to issue *Chambers's Edinburgh Journal*, a weekly sheet at 1d. : on the 31st of March following appeared in London the *Penny Magazine* of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge; and this was followed, July 7, by the *Saturday Magazine*, which was issued under the direction of a committee of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. The success of *Chambers's Journal* led to the issue of *Information for the People*, *Cyclopædia of English Literature*, *Miscellany of Tracts*, and many educational and other works. Charles Knight (q.v.), first editor of the *Penny Magazine*, with his *Penny Encyclopædia*, and *Library of Entertaining Knowledge*, and other works, was another pioneer of the cheap press. Within twenty years he expended £80,000 upon copyrights and literary labour, and during the same period £50,000 upon paper-duty. The effect of the repeal of the advertisement-duty (1853) and of the paper-duty (1861) was to encourage the production of cheap literature. John Cassell's (q.v.) name survives in the largest book-factory of modern times, along with his *Popular Educator*, *Family Bible*, and innumerable other works; Routledge's *Railway Library* and *Popular Library* of cheap novels, and shilling and sixpenny editions of standard works, are well known. Bohn's Libraries are familiar to scholars and lovers of good literature all the world over. The Longmans, honourably connected with the London book-trade for more than a century and a half; Strahan, originator of *Good Words* (1860) and *Contemporary Review* (1866); Smith, Elder, & Co., proprietors of the *Cornhill* (1860), and publishers of Thackeray and Browning's works; Macmillan & Co., publishers of Lord Tennyson's works, and those of men eminent in all departments of science and literature; along with many others, have all added their quota to the rapidly increasing volume of cheap literature.

At present, we have the works of Shakespeare at sixpence and one shilling, and penny reprints of some classics. Well printed threepenny editions of standard books, and portions of books, began to be issued in 1886. For many years previously the *Bibliothèque Nationale* in France, and the *Universal-bibliothek* in Germany, had supplied the public on the Continent with standard literature at the same figure. The good, well

printed volumes of standard literature now to be had at sixpence and one shilling must make literary rubbish less saleable. There is now less reason for Mr Ruskin's reproof than ever, that 'we call ourselves a rich nation, and we are filthy and foolish enough to thumb each other's books out of circulating libraries. . . . How much do you think we spend altogether on our libraries, public and private, as compared with what we spend on our horses?' The trade in light literature, and in cheap periodicals and newspapers, has been fostered by the railway bookstalls, of which Messrs W. H. Smith & Son had 600 in 1888. The 'shilling dreadful' had a phenomenal sale during 1885-88. Such books as R. L. Stevenson's *Treasure Island* and H. Rider Haggard's *King Solomon's Mines* revived the taste for tales of adventure. A London publisher (Routledge) reported in 1885 that in round numbers he printed 6,000,000 books annually, of which 4,000,000 were bound, being at the rate of about 14,000 books per day. One reason of the cheapness of good books is the expiry of copyrights; in the case of such popular authors as Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, and Carlyle, it has led to many competing editions, some of them at a very cheap price. Advertisers seizing the idea have even issued penny editions of some of the most popular works by popular authors.

The present generation, which has witnessed a great reduction in the price of books, has also had the privilege of purchasing the most luxurious and artistic *éditions de luxe*, frequently printed from type specially cast for the purpose, the illustrations in the highest style of art, and printed on china-paper. Shakespeare, Thackeray, Dickens, and isolated volumes, such as George Eliot's *Romola*, and Blackmore's *Lorna Doone*, have been treated in this magnificent manner. The price for such books, of which only a limited number is printed, runs from one to four guineas. To get up a book in this way necessitates the expenditure of many thousands of pounds. We hear of the plant of an *Illustrated Shakespeare* costing £10,000, and an illustrated book of *Natural History*, £16,000. The trade in the manufacture of children's picture-books has assumed great dimensions; those by Caldecott (q.v.) having been eminently successful. The best talent in literary and artistic circles has been employed in the production of books for the young. The bright and attractive books and periodicals for juveniles are often the envy of older minds. There are fashions in books, as in ladies' dresses, and the sale and use of Birthday Books (q.v.) led to an enormous business being done. The great improvements in Bookbinding (q.v.), including artistic covers, abundance of illustrations (many of which are electrotypes purchased and adapted) in Christmas books, or books for presents, has given a stimulus to certain branches of the trade. The great bookselling season is from October to February, when the nights are long; during the summer, fiction and the lighter periodicals sell best. For the last three months of the year the wholesale booksellers have a hard time of it, executing orders for the various annual volumes of the periodicals, and Christmas literature of every kind. The practice which Dickens inaugurated of issuing Christmas numbers has grown enormously, and has been adopted with profit by many leading illustrated newspapers and periodicals. Good newspaper notices sometimes start the sale of a book; when it has begun to sell, if really good, its success proves its best advertisement. When a book has been issued at one guinea, or two guineas, after the richer public has been exhausted, a moderately cheap edition may be brought out at a price from 5s. to 10s. 6d., followed up at a proper interval, if the book is calculated for wide circulation, by an

edition at 2s. 6d., or even less. The following were some of the best selling English books in 1887, in the order of popularity, from a London retail bookseller's point of view: The works of Shakespeare, Tennyson, Longfellow, Byron, Milton, Scott, Hood, Dickens, Thackeray, Besant, Mrs Henry Wood, Mrs Craik (*John Halifax*), George Eliot, Lord Lytton, R. D. Blackmore, Mark Twain, Macaulay, R. L. Stevenson, Miss Braddon, &c.

The position of those who, in the hurry of business life, and in the time occupied in earning a living, have little leisure for solid reading, has been abundantly catered for in the 'story' paper, and the lighter periodicals. Convenient abridgments, manuals, compendiums, and primers of almost every branch of knowledge exist; while many publishers have made quite a feature of 'condensed' lives of celebrities. See BIOGRAPHY.

The circulation of our weekly and monthly periodical literature is enormous, and can only be calculated by millions of copies. At the end of 1831 there were issued 177 monthly publications; in 1833 there were 236; in 1853, 362; and in 1888, 1500; more than 300 of the latter were of a religious character.

As circulating libraries, by creating a taste for reading, led to the establishment of the cheap press, so, as might be expected, has the cheap press extended the sphere of literature, and given rise to public libraries and book-clubs. C. E. Mudie in 1842 introduced a new system of subscription lending library, and up till 1888 the firm had purchased more than six million volumes for the use of subscribers; the number of volumes issued and re-issued during a week of the busy season exceeds a hundred thousand volumes. About 200 persons are employed, and in 1888 there were 40,000 subscribers. As many as three thousand copies of a single work at eighteen shillings or a guinea are sometimes added; so that in many cases what would formerly have been considered to be large editions are absorbed by one purchaser. After being used for several months, the surplus copies are sold at a cheap rate. An 1888 catalogue consisted of 330 pages. For country subscribers, some 700 boxes of varying size are sent out every day. The London Library and the Grosvenor Library are also well known. Messrs Smith's remarkable system of bookstall libraries was begun in 1858.

The selling of second-hand books from open stalls, and from Booths (q.v.), is a practice so ancient as to be connected with the trade of the stationarii of the middle ages. Some men of considerable note in the book-trade began in the humble quality of stall-keepers. London is the chief seat of the second-hand book-trade; but it is also conducted on a respectable scale in Edinburgh, Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool, Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, Bristol, and other centres of wealth and intelligence. In many cases what are called 'remainders' of an edition are purchased and sold at a merely nominal price by the second-hand booksellers. But the dealers procure supplies chiefly at public auctions of the libraries of deceased clergymen, professors, and private gentlemen, of which sales there is a constant succession in London, Edinburgh, and elsewhere. At these auctions, good editions of standard books may usually be obtained at moderate prices; but rare and curious works, prized by the 'bibliomaniac,' frequently bring very high sums. Mr Quaritch spent £40,000 at the Hamilton sale, and £33,000 at the Sunderland sale. He paid £3900 for the Mazarin Bible, and £4950 for the *Psalmorum Codex* (1459), a portion of the Scriptures. A vellum copy of the Gutenberg and Fust Bible sold for £3400, a paper copy for £2690. See BIBLIOMANIA. Dealers in second-hand books send catalogues to their

customers throughout the country; and from this source not a few gentlemen's libraries are mainly made up. Large quantities of second-hand high-class works are purchased for public libraries forming in the United States. From France, Italy, and Germany, there has been a similar export-trade in fine old editions to North America. In 1888 was published a new edition of *The Directory of Second-hand Booksellers* in Great Britain, on the Continent, and in America.

The *Canvassing-trade* consists in the plan of disposing of books mostly in weekly and monthly numbers or parts by house-to-house visitation. Smollett's *History of England*, Stackhouse's *History of the Bible*, and Scott's *Bible* are early examples of successful publication in number form. Amongst modern authors, Thackeray, Dickens, and George Eliot tried the part form of publication with success. There are also various societies in this country employing book-hawkers or colporteurs, who visit outlying districts which are not reached by the ordinary bookseller.

Apart from the general trade, the publication of small books, tracts, and periodicals is carried on to a large extent also by associations for religious purposes, the funds for which are raised by voluntary subscription. See RELIGIOUS TRACT SOCIETY.

Another distinct kind of trade is that of printing and publishing authorised versions of the Bible, New Testament, and Book of Common Prayer. The preparation of these works has always been a prerogative of the crown, which grants exclusive privileges or patent rights to certain parties for the purpose. According to old usage, England, Ireland, and Scotland are treated separately. The last patent for England was granted by George IV. to Andrew Strahan, George Eyre, and Andrew Spottiswoode, for a term of thirty years; and having commenced on the 21st of January 1830, it expired on the 21st January 1860, and was then renewed during pleasure. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge have, by royal charters, enjoyed the right of printing Bibles, &c. in common with the patentees; but as the Queen's printers represent the owners of the copyright, the privilege of prosecution for infringement belongs to them alone. In the case of the revised version of the Bible, issued in 1881 and 1885, the university authorities purchased the copyright from the revisers, and consequently have the sole right of publication; over one million copies of the New Testament were sold (by the Oxford Press alone) on the first day of its appearance. See PATENT.

In Ireland, George III. in 1766 granted a Bible patent to Boulton Grierson for forty years. He was succeeded by his son, George Grierson, who in 1811 obtained a renewal. Trinity College, Dublin, had also a concurrent right. In Scotland, the last patent expired in 1839, and was not renewed. The crown appoints a Board with authority to grant licenses to parties desirous to print editions of the Bible and other books falling within the royal prerogative, such as the Confession of Faith.

The modification of the patent having tended to lower prices, the possibility of any further material reduction seems doubtful. One noticeable feature of the trade in Bibles is, that the publishers in England sell large numbers in sheets to the various religious societies, such as the British and Foreign Bible Society and the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, who issue editions to the public under cost price—the New Testament from one penny, and the complete Bible from sixpence per copy. The better bindings, in morocco or ornamental styles, are retailed at proportionately higher prices. In London alone, probably more than 2000 persons are employed in binding Bibles, prayer-

books, and other books of devotion; but the tendency now is for the publishers or printers to do their own binding. From their cheapness, but more particularly from their accuracy, English-printed Bibles and New Testaments are purchased in large quantities by the United States. The Oxford University Press now carries on the whole process of Bible production within its own premises.

Although the printing of the authorised version of the Bible, the New Testament, and the Book of Common Prayer, seems to be reserved to the nominees of the crown, practically no objection is taken to the printing of these works by others. Translations of the Bible, other than the authorised version, are also issued freely by Roman Catholic and other bodies.

The universities of Oxford and Cambridge; the four Scotch universities; and the colleges of Eton, Westminster, and Winchester, obtained an act of parliament, 15 Geo. III. chap. 53, giving them a perpetual copyright of all works belonging to them, or which might afterwards be bequeathed to or given to them, provided such works are printed at the university or college presses. The only work in existence older than the present century, claimed by any of the above institutions, to which any value can be attached, is Clarendon's *History of the Rebellion*, with his life and continuation. The right to this and other works possessed by the university of Oxford, was confirmed by the Copyright Act (5 and 6 Vict. chap. 45). The profits of the first edition were applied towards the erection of the 'Clarendon Building' (1713), which till 1830 was the university press; but, its business increasing, the 'Clarendon' has been superseded by the 'University Press.'

The British book-trade is centred in London, though carried on to a considerable extent in Edinburgh, and to a less degree in Oxford, Cambridge, Liverpool, Manchester, Dublin, Glasgow, and a few other places. In 1838 the London Post-office Directory contained the names of over eight hundred persons who were connected with the book-trade. Among these booksellers are included commission-houses; and among the publishing establishments are branches from Scotland, America, and several English provincial cities. The London book-trade is partly carried on in distinct departments: miscellaneous literature, law books, medical books, educational treatises, periodicals, &c., respectively engage the attention of publishers; and as regards religious books, each sect may be said to have publishers and booksellers of its own. The larger number of the publishing and commission houses are situated in Paternoster Row and the streets adjoining; so that this part of the city has become the great and acknowledged market for literature. Covent Garden and Fleet Street are likewise centres of the business. Between the country booksellers and the leading publishers and commission-houses a continual correspondence is kept up. In addition to his daily or weekly parcel every provincial bookseller makes up a monthly order for magazines, periodicals, and books.

In the infancy of the trade, authors frequently resorted to the plan of getting friends and patrons to subscribe for copies of their forthcoming works; the publisher in such cases acting only as commission-agent. Literature has now risen above this degrading system. At present, (1) the author sells his work in manuscript to the publisher for a specified sum, giving him an assignment of the copyright, and leaving him to bring out the work according to his own taste; or (2) the author retains the copyright, pays all expenses, undertakes all risks, and gets a publisher to bring out his work; or (3) the author, retaining the copyright,

incurs no risk, and only allows the publisher to print and issue an edition of a certain number of copies for a sum agreed on; or (4) the author and publisher issue the work at their joint risk, in that case sharing equally in profit or loss, or on such other terms as are mutually agreeable; or (5) the publisher agrees to issue the works of a popular author at his own risk and expense; the clear profits are divided into three equal shares, one of which is paid to the author, and two retained by the publisher, or the author may receive half-profits, which, in the case of a 5s. book, may amount to 9d. or 1s. a copy; or (6) the familiar 'royalty' system, by which the publisher takes whole or partial risk and pays the author a certain sum per copy, after the disposal of a specified number of copies. Under the French system the publisher takes the book, and makes what he can of it, but pays the author a royalty. A successful author on a book nominally priced 3.50 francs receives a royalty of about 5d. per copy, but a very successful author may command as much as 10d. Under the French law the printer is forbidden to print copies except by order of the author.

Publishing is an exceedingly hazardous profession, and those engaging in it must possess wide and special knowledge, else they may soon lock up their capital unprofitably, and fill their warehouses with waste-paper. This is especially the case in dealing with literature which is sold at a very small advance upon the actual cost of paper, print, and binding. Attached to the larger publishing houses are men who read and give judgment on the manuscripts submitted to their care, when this is not undertaken by the head of the firm. Works of which the highest expectations are formed may not pay expenses; and books of a seemingly worthless kind may prove exceedingly remunerative. Mr Ruskin has objected on principle to the booksellers' system of discounts and abatements: after 1873 he severed his connection with his former publishers, and appointed an agent of his own, who has issued new editions of most of his writings. Mr Ruskin, however, had to relax this rule of selling at a fixed price, and allow the booksellers a discount of 10 per cent. An 'Incorporated Society of Authors' was founded to watch over the interests of authors, and to support the Copyright Association (composed of publishers and authors) in furthering the establishment of the International Copyright Union.

Milton's agreement with Simmons the printer, disposing of the copyright of *Paradise Lost* for five pounds, is an oft-quoted but inadmissible argument against publishers, as a larger sum was paid, and at that time it might even have been a losing bargain. It would be easy to cite many publishers' blunders, in at first refusing works which, when issued, have taken their place amongst the classics of literature. Publishers as a rule are high-minded, fair, though keen men of business, and it is quite to their advantage to treat an author well. There have been cases of gross injustice, but when an author's books find a ready market, he reaps a ready benefit. If we take the line of fiction, in which Great Britain is said to have an average of two books a day, Sundays included, we find many instances of large sales and large earnings. Scott's income from his pen ranged from £10,000 to £15,000 per annum for many years. He is said to have received £110,000 for 11 novels and 9 volumes of tales. *Woodstock* alone yielded him £8228, and his *Life of Bonaparte* (2 editions), £18,000. Thackeray, when he became famous, was well paid for every line he wrote, and received a handsome salary for editing the *Cornhill*. For several novels Trollope and Dickens each received more than £3000, while the bargain for *Edwin*

Drood was £7500 with a share in after profits. Routledge paid Lord Lytton £20,000 for the right to publish a cheap edition of his novels for ten years. 'George Eliot' (Marian Evans) was paid £40,000 cash down for the first sales of her various books; for *Felix Holt* she was paid £5000; *Romola*, £7000; and *Middlemarch*, £8000. Macaulay received a cheque for £20,000, being his share of the profits of two volumes of his *History*. Browning received 100 guineas for his ballad 'Hervé Riel' in the *Cornhill*. These may be thought exceptional payments, but the rule holds good that where an author finds a large public, he secures a willing publisher and large payments. But not many books have a sale like the *Pickwick Papers*, 900,000 copies of the authorised edition having been disposed of by Chapman & Hall up till 1887.

In publishing new books, the copyright, setting up the types, author's corrections, stereotyping, press-work or printing, paper, binding, advertising, and presentation copies to editors for review, all need to be taken into account. When the author retains the copyright, the publisher charges, besides the above items for printing, &c., a commission on the sales of the work. Editions of a book are frequently wanted for an export order, or sets of stereotype plates are purchased by publishers in the United States or Canada, in order to print from. New books are issued at a certain selling price to the public, and the publisher allows a percentage off the price to the retail bookseller. In a large proportion of cases, there is interposed the commission-agent or wholesale dealer. A new book on the eve of publication is offered to the trade at a slightly cheaper rate than at a later date. At the trade sales, which are now less common than formerly, some publishers do a large business.

Throughout the more respectable part of the trade there is a constant effort to maintain unbroken prices; for when a book can be obtained by booksellers below trade-price, it is essentially ruined for all regular business. On the other hand, the practice has become very general among retail booksellers of selling new books to the public at prices little above cost. This system of underselling has caused much disquietude in the trade. Mr Sampson Low was secretary of a trade association (abolished 1852), which had for its object the protection of the bookseller against underselling. For a long time resolute attempts were made by the heads of the profession to refuse to deal with undersellers; but these, appealing to the public, ultimately conquered; and now books of all kinds are disposed of at such prices as the bookseller pleases. After making all ordinary deductions, to which losses, &c. may be added, publishers can reckon on receiving little more than half the price at which their books are nominally issued. Many publishers annually spend very large sums in advertising new books.

Publishers are under the legal obligation to deliver, free, a copy of every book they issue (new editions without alterations excepted) to the five following public institutions: Library of the British Museum; Bodleian Library, Oxford; University Library, Cambridge; Trinity College Library, Dublin; and the Library of the Faculty of Advocates, Edinburgh. Sir Henry James and Sir Richard Webster (1887) have also given an opinion that copies of every American book issued in Great Britain, though printed and originally published in America, must also be sent to the British Museum. Manufactured American books are imported in large quantities by British publishers, who, for the convenience of purchasers, print on the title-page the name of the firm which has introduced the work into Great Britain; hence the claim of copies by the British Museum. There is

no compulsion as to registration of titles at Stationers' Hall, the fee for which is 5s. (see COPYRIGHT). The title of a popular book or periodical is often of great value, and is jealously guarded by the publisher; the use of this title by another is an infringement of copyright. Owing to the rapid multiplication of books, it is becoming increasingly difficult to steer clear of titles already in use. In 1886, 11,548 volumes were lodged at the British Museum in terms of the Copyright Act, and 1397 under that of international copyright, besides 5296 pieces of music, and about 2200 sets of newspapers. See BRITISH MUSEUM.

The gradual increase in magnitude of the book-trade is interesting. One of the first catalogues compiled in England (1666-80) has a list of 3550 works, being a yearly average of 253. From 1700 to 1756, without including pamphlets, 5280 new books were issued. The *Modern Catalogue of Books* (1792-1802) has a list of 4096 new works, or an annual average of 372 new books. According to the *London Catalogue* of 1800-27, the publications, including reprints, amounted to 19,860 volumes; that of 1816-51 contains the titles of 45,072 books, an average annual publication of more than 1200 books. There were three times as many books published in 1853 as there had been in 1828. The annual production of new books in the period 1877-87 averaged 4000 volumes; of new editions, 1400. The number of new books issued during 1887 was 4410; the new editions, 1276. Of this number 762 were novels and tales; 680 theology, sermons, &c., and 582 educational. Owing to the absence of compulsory registration, however, statistics respecting the publishing trade of Great Britain cannot be wholly accurate. The only statistics now issued are those associated with the compilation of Low's *English Catalogue*. In 1886 the books imported into the United Kingdom were valued at £226,438. Of these, the value from Germany was £20,059; France, £63,448; Holland, £50,799; Belgium, £18,087; the United States, £54,672; other countries, £4068. The value of English printed books exported in 1886 was £1,116,737. The United States purchased to the amount of £293,282; Australasia, £391,035 (the returns for 1885 showed an average annual expenditure in Australia of more than 11s. per head in books and stationery); Canada, £83,819; British India, £113,985. France, Germany, Holland, and Belgium unitedly took to the value of £110,418; our next largest customer being South Africa, for £36,808. In 1885 the value of books exported was £1,143,509; of imports, £211,356.

In Germany, where the book-trade first became established, the principal mart was Frankfurt, to whose fairs the early booksellers and printers resorted. Leipzig also became a great mart for books as early as 1680; but in 1885 as many books were published in Berlin as in Leipzig; and since about 1830 Stuttgart has come to the front, whilst Frankfurt has entirely lost its ancient prestige. From the teeming press of Baron Bernhard Tanchitz of Leipzig there had been issued by 1888, by arrangement with British and American authors and publishers, a series of more than 2000 volumes of cheap reprints of English popular works in a pocket size. The bringing of these German reprints of English copyright works into Great Britain is against the law, and copies are liable to seizure. From a table prepared by Hinrichs of Leipzig, we learn that 16,253 books were issued in Germany in 1886, and 15,972 in 1887. Of this number, educational and theological works topped the list. Book-buyers in Germany have the privilege of receiving books on approbation from the booksellers and publishers: in this way an examination can be made of the proposed purchase, which may be returned.

Though Germany has the largest number of new books of any country in Europe, editions are relatively small; and the encouragement to men of letters is poor. Great use is made of the circulating library, upon which the publisher mainly depends for the sale of a popular work. Some of the illustrated papers have an enormous circulation. *Die Gartenlaube* has a circulation of 300,000; *Ueber Land und Meer* has 150,000.

In France, every book and pamphlet must be registered before publication, and publishing is carried on chiefly in Paris, where there are many extensive printing establishments. About two-thirds of all the books published issue from Paris. A large number of the scientific works are published at the sole cost of the state. French books are, with few exceptions, done up simply in coloured paper covers, for temporary service; works of a superior class are executed with a high degree of taste—the excellence of pictorial embellishments being always conspicuous. The finest *éditions de luxe* used to be French; and many expensive works in French, and also in the classical languages, issued from the Parisian press still command a large sale. Owing to the almost universal knowledge of the French tongue, there is a large export to foreign countries.

Belgium possesses a flourishing book-trade; and Brussels, as a kind of minor Paris, is the seat of some extensive printing and publishing concerns. In Italy there are recent signs of revival in book-publishing and bookselling. The trade of the other European countries is of less interest.

The book-trade of the United States has sprung up from small beginnings within the present century. Hezekiah Usher was in business in Boston in 1652; bookselling was well established at the beginning of the 18th century. Benjamin Franklin (q.v.) was one of the most famous of the early printers. But at first scholars and libraries were mainly supplied with books from Europe, and the bulk of American publications were reprints of British literature. In the period 1830-42 about 1300 books were issued, half of them being original, and half reprints; in 1853 there were 879; in 1855, 1092; in 1859-60, 1350 a year; and in 1871, 3000. The *Publishers' Weekly* recorded the publication of 4676 new books in 1886, and 4437 in 1887. The number of new books entered for copyright in 1878 was 5632, and in 1879, 6580; and it is estimated that, of the 10,212 articles in the form of books entered in 1887, about three-fourths may be reckoned as properly coming under that designation. There are nearly 350 firms in the United States which publish books. Of these New York has 130; Boston, 38; Chicago, 35; and Philadelphia, 34. The great distributing houses are located at New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago; Caspar's *General Directory of the American Book, News, and Stationery Trades* (1888), wholesale and retail, contains the addresses of 20,000 firms actually in business. A few of the larger publishing houses, such as Harper's in New York, and Lippincott's in Philadelphia, print, bind, and manufacture the books they sell. The latter firm combines the business of the publisher, 'jobber,' or middleman who buys from the publisher to sell again, and retailer. The names of Appleton, Roberts Brothers, Ticknor & Co., Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Scribner, and others, are well known. A very large proportion of the book business is done by book-agents or canvassers. At the fall and spring trade sales, a large business is done, both in new publications and in older standard works, at a discount of from 25 to 40 per cent. off the usual trade prices. Local booksellers have suffered through the commission-agents and library associations who deal directly with publishers.

Between 1820 and 1856 a very large proportion

of American books were reprints of English works. But as Holmes expresses it, 'the Yankee mind, which has for the most part budded and flowered in pots of English earth,' has now asserted its own individuality, and produced writers of genius and culture, and of world-wide reputation, such as Irving, Hawthorne, Motley, Holmes, Prescott, Emerson, Longfellow, Whittier, Poe, and Lowell, whose works have lent dignity and importance to American literature, and given an impulse to the book-trade. Mrs Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* had a phenomenal sale, 500,000 copies being sold in less than five years in the United States, and by April 1852 more than 1,000,000 had been reprinted in Great Britain. Of Longfellow's poems, without taking into account unauthorised English reprints, the American sales in 1839-57 amounted to 325,550 copies; from the latter date till 1881, 194,000. Webster's *Spelling Book* (Appleton & Co.) had reached a sale of 50,000,000 copies in 1887, and is said still to sell at the rate of about 1,000,000 copies a year. In spite of the ruinous competition with unpaid English literature, a popular American author commands a high figure for his work. C. L. Webster & Co. are said to have paid Mrs Grant £40,000 as her share of the profits of vol. I. of *General Grant's Life*, probably the highest payment for a single volume on record. Louisa M. Alcott is reported to have received £20,000 for her *Little Women* series. Bonner of the *Ledger* paid Henry Ward Beecher £6000 for his *Norwood*, and £1000 to Dickens for one short story. The Harpers gave Longfellow £200 for his 'Keramos' for *Harper's Magazine*, and the same figure for 'Morituri Salutamus.' T. B. Aldrich once received £240 for a short story, and W. D. Howells and Mark Twain (Samuel L. Clemens) can command £100 or £200 for a short story or article.

A common arrangement between the American author and publisher is a payment of 10 per cent. royalty on the retail price of all sales; sometimes a lump sum is paid, and the publisher secures the copyright, which is granted for twenty-eight years, subject to renewal by the author, his widow, or children, for other fourteen years. As at Stationers' Hall, London, a copy of a title-page must be registered with the librarian of congress, and two copies of the best edition of the book lodged there within ten days of publication. The entry fees are 50 cents, and 50 cents additional for a certificate of record. A copy of any new edition must also be sent to the librarian.

American books are now executed with great neatness and taste; their wood-engravings, notably those in *Harper's*, *The Century*, and *Scribner's Magazine*, have been brought to a pitch of remarkable beauty both in design and in printing, largely by help of improvements in process engraving. All these magazines have gained a firm footing in Great Britain. The *Bookbuyer* (1888) says that the seven leading magazines in New York have an average monthly circulation of 650,000 copies. The *Atlantic Monthly* and the *North American Review* have had as contributors and conductors the most eminent literary men that America has produced. Several English publishers have found it to their interest to have branch establishments in New York, while several American publishers have also branches in London. Owing to the prevalence of education, and the abundance of cheap series of books under the title of libraries, book-buyers in a humble position in life are much more numerous than they are in the United Kingdom.

By the provisions of the International Copyright Act (1886), a foreign author's rights are protected in Great Britain, Belgium, France, Germany, Hayti, Italy, Spain, Switzerland, and Tunis. Colonial

authors can also secure copyright without publication in the United Kingdom, and a work copyright in the United Kingdom is copyright in Canada. American cheap reprints of British books are admitted to Canada subject to a customs duty of 12½ per cent., to be paid over to the British author, but hitherto the returns from this source have been very small. It is understood that an American author by prior publication in England secures British copyright, although the matter has never been properly tested; the British author has no such privilege in the United States. Therefore, a burning question for many years past has been the absence of any international copyright arrangement, whereby an English author and his publisher may reap the benefit of an American sale, and *vice versa*. As the matter stands, British copyright books are freely reprinted to a public of more than 50 millions at a price from a few cents upwards. A book which sells in England at any price from a couple of shillings to a couple of guineas, can thus be reprinted and sold for little more than the price of paper and print. This presses hard in the first instance on the American author and publisher, who are forced to compete with the brightest, freshest, and strongest stream of good literature the world has ever seen. It has dwarfed and arrested the career of the American author not a little. Bills have been introduced into the American House of Representatives and the Senate till 1888 without effect. The American Copyright League, founded by G. Parsons Lathrop in 1882, soon attained a membership of several hundreds, including Mark Twain, Julian Hawthorne, Will Carleton, Howells, Stoddard, Boyesen, and other well-known authors, and has sought to influence the legislature in favour of some equitable arrangement. Dickens, Carlyle, Besant, Lytton, and other English authors, have also spoken strongly on the subject. The American Publishers' Copyright League (1888) exists for a like purpose.

The 'libraries,' as the collections of books are called in which cheap reprints of British copyrights appear, extend some of them to more than 500 volumes. The best known perhaps are Harper's *Franklin Square Library* (new series, 1888), Munro's *Seaside Library*, and *Loxell's Library*. Of the previous edition of the present Encyclopedia, there are several unauthorised reprints. There is a reprint of all Ruskin's works at a much lower figure than one of his earlier books now costs in England; while his *Sesame and Lilies*, *Crown of Wild Olive*, and *Ethics of the Dust*, appear in one volume for about 2s., or about one-eighth of what Mr Ruskin charges for them in England. Froude's *Carlyle*, and George Eliot's *Life*, can be had for fewer pence than they at first cost shillings in England. The average published price of Black or Blackmore's novels in England is 6s. a volume: they may be bought in New York at from 10 to 20 cents. Lord Tennyson has of course suffered along with other English authors. These unauthorised reprints, if imported into the United Kingdom, are liable to seizure by the custom-house officers. We have many examples, on the other hand, of American books being reprinted in England without anything being paid to the author.

The modern bookseller and publisher has many trade helps, the best of which are the following: *The London Catalogue*, giving a list of 42,340 works published between 1831-55; the *British Catalogue*; Low's handy and useful *English Catalogue of Books* (published annually); Whitaker's *Reference Catalogue of Current Literature* (first issued in 1874), which is a volume of publishers' catalogues in alphabetical order, modelled on the late F. Leypoldt's *American Trade List Annual*; Roobach's *Bibliotheca Americana*, a

catalogue of books issued from 1820, continued by Kelly, in supplements, to 1871; and F. Leyboldt's *American Catalogue* (2 vols.) of authors and titles, the first volume of which has 70,000 entries. Sonnenschein's *Best Books* (1887) can be recommended. The recognised trade journals are in this country the *Bookseller* (monthly) and *Publishers' Circular* (bi-monthly), in the United States the *Publishers' Weekly* and *American Bookseller*, all of which issue Christmas numbers containing announcements and criticisms of books, with specimens of the illustrations. The *Athenæum* prints a weekly list, with prices affixed, of works offered for sale in London. In Germany the *Börsenblatt* is the organ of the trade, but the Germans have also an encyclopædia of universal knowledge of the book-trade, edited by Ebner and Weisbach, entitled *Encyklopädie des Gesammten Buchhändlerischen Wissens* (Weimar, 1887). The French organ of the trade is entitled *Bibliographie de la France*. See Knight's *Old Printer and the Modern Press* (1854) and *Shadows of the Old Booksellers* (1865); Curwen's *History of Booksellers* (1873); Kapp's *Geschichte des deutschen Buchhandels* (1886); Welsh's *Bookseller of the Last Century: John Newbery* (1885); the published lives of Lackington, Hutton, W. & R. Chambers (1872), Archibald Constable (3 vols. 1873), Daniel Macmillan, Adam Black; and the articles, BIBLIOGRAPHY, BOOK, BOOKBINDING, CENSORSHIP, CIRCULATING LIBRARY, COPYRIGHT, ILLUSTRATION, NEWSPAPERS, PAPER, PERIODICALS, PRESS, PRINTING, STATIONER, STEREOTYPING, WOOD-ENGRAVING.

Bookworm, any grub which feeds on the paper of books. The name more especially belongs to the larva of an anobium (*Anobium pertinax*, *A. eruditum*, &c.), a small coleopterous insect, which is one of the Death-watch (q.v.) insects; though the larva of *Ceophora pseudospicella*, a small brown moth, seems to have nearly an equal claim to it. The latter much resembles the anobium, save that it has six legs, while the anobium has none. Most people are familiar with the effects of the book-worm's ravages; but the creatures are extremely rare in this country, especially since so many chemical substances have been introduced into the manufacture of paper. In Southern Europe, the book-eating anobium is still common enough. It is not unlike the little grub found in hazel nuts—has a soft body with a horny brown head and strong jaws, and readily succumbs to exposure. As it usually attacks from the boards inwards, the interior pages of a book are generally safe from its ravages; though M. Peignot asserts he found twenty-seven volumes standing in a row, pierced from end to end by a single worm-tunnel, and Mr Blades has known this happen with at least two volumes. In America, books in libraries, though free from the ravages of the bookworm, are infested and damaged by a small cockroach—the Croton Bug, or *Blatta germanica*. Probably several kinds of caterpillars of moths, and grubs of beetles, injure books more or less. See BORING-BEETLES, BOOK-LICE; Blades' *Enemies of Books* (new ed. 1888); *Bookseller*, November 6, 1886; *Notes and Queries*, May 1885, pp. 344, 455; *Booklore*, vol. i. (1886); *The Antiquary*, vol. x.

Boole, GEORGE, a distinguished mathematician and logician, was born at Lincoln, 2d November 1815, and received his education mainly from his father, an intelligent tradesman. He successfully started a school at Lincoln in 1835; devoted his spare time to study, and in 1849 became professor of Mathematics in Queen's College, Cork, a post he held till his death, 8th December 1864. He had long been one of the foremost mathematical

thinkers of his time. Among his publications are *Analytical Transformations* (1839), *General Method in Analysis* (1844), *Mathematical Analysis of Logic* (1847), and papers on Probability. His fame as a logician chiefly rests upon his *Laws of Thought* (1854). It has come to be regarded as a work of great originality and power, and is one of the first attempts at 'the employment of symbolic language and notation in a wide generalisation of purely logical processes.'

Boom, a town of Belgium, 10 miles S. of Antwerp, with great brick and tile works, breweries, tanneries, rope-walks, sailcloth manufactures, salt-works, &c. Pop. (1884) 13,239.

Boom, in a ship, is a general name for the long spars which jut out from certain supports or uprights, to stretch or extend the bottom edge of sails. According to their connections, they receive the names of jib-boom, flying jib-boom, main boom, square-sail boom, &c. In the old 110-gun ships of Nelson's days, these booms varied from 57 to 32 feet in length. Modern ironclads are provided with a number of booms to be fitted at intervals along their sides, from which may be suspended a huge net encircling the ship at a sufficient distance from the side to render an explosion from an enemy's torpedo harmless. The term boom is also applied to a strong iron chain, or a combination of spars, &c., lashed together with chains and cables, and employed in barring the navigable passage of the mouth of a harbour or river. The wooden boom across the harbour was an important feature in the famous defence of Londonderry in 1689.

Boom is a word frequently used of late in America and Britain and the colonies for a start or rapid development of commercial activity or speculation, as when shares go off, or prices go up 'with a boom.' The word is assumed to be suggested less by boom in the sense of noise than by the rushing progress the noise often accompanies.

Boomerang, a woollen missile used by the aborigines of Australia in hunting and in war. It is of hard wood, bent in a curve, and is from 2 feet to 2 feet 9 inches long by from 2 to 3 inches broad. It has one side convex, the other flat, with a sharp edge along the convexity of the curve. The curve varies greatly in different instruments.



Various Forms of Boomerang.

When to be thrown, it is taken in the hand by the handle (which has cross cuts on it), and held up at arm's length over the shoulder. With the convex edge forward and the flat side down, it is then thrown directly onward with a strong quick fling, as if to hit some one 40 yards in advance. The hand is drawn back at the same time, with a movement like that in the 'screw-back' stroke at billiards. The missile slowly ascends in the air,

whirling round and round, and describing a curved line of progress till it reaches a considerable height, when it begins to retrograde, and finally, if thrown with sufficient force, falls 8 or 10 yards behind the thrower, or it may fall near him. This surprising motion is produced by the bulged side of the missile. The air impinging thereon, lifts the instrument in the air, exactly as by hitting the oblique bars in a windmill, it forces it to go round. It should be added that the path of the boomerang can be varied by the will of the thrower, and that the sweep of no two boomerangs exactly agrees. The force with which it flies is great; the Rev. J. C. Wood has seen a dog killed on the spot, and nearly cut in two by the stroke. The ingenuity of the contrivance, and the skill with which it can hit the mark aimed at, are very extraordinary as coming from almost the lowest race of mankind. Attempts have been made to derive it from some hypothetical high culture, but the intermediate forms between it and the war-club or battle-axe have been found in its own country, and there are good grounds for considering it really a native invention developed through such stages to its present form. 'Various missiles,' says Tylor, 'have been claimed as boomerangs: a curved weapon on the Assyrian bas-reliefs, the throwing-cudgel of the Egyptian fowler, the African *tissun* or curved club, the iron *hangamunga* of the Tibbats, but without proof being brought forward that these weapons, or the boomerang-like iron projectiles of the Nium-Nium, have either of the great peculiarities of the boomerang, the sudden swerving from the apparent line of flight, or the returning to the thrower.' Sir Richard Burton (in *The Sword*) alleges that some Indian throwing-sticks fly back.

Boondee. See BUNDI.

Boone, DANIEL, a famous American pioneer, was born in the state of Pennsylvania, February 11, 1735. At an early period of his life he emigrated to North Carolina; but his love of the wilderness not being sufficiently gratified there, he planned an expedition into Kentucky, then almost unknown. In June 1766, along with five companions, he halted on the Red River, a branch of the Kentucky. After a few months' hunting, he was captured by the Indians, but soon escaped, and accidentally falling in with his brother, who had pursued his track, lived with him in a cabin during the whole winter. In May 1770 his brother went home, and Boone himself was left alone in the perilous forest. In July his brother returned, and after exploring a considerable portion of country, they returned in 1771 to Carolina, determined to emigrate with their families to Kentucky; but the opposition of the Indians rendered the attempt unsuccessful. Shortly after, Boone was engaged as the agent of a Carolina company in purchasing the land on the south side of the Kentucky River, and here in 1775 he built a stockade-fort on the site now occupied by Boonesborough. In 1777 the place was twice attacked by a swarm of Indians, who, however, were repulsed. In 1778 Boone was once more captured, but once more managed to make his escape and reach the fort in time to repel, with his little garrison of fifty men, another determined Indian attack. On the admission of Kentucky to the Union, Boone lost his property for want of formal titles, and retired in 1798 in disgust into the wilderness of Missouri, which did not become United States territory till 1803. In 1812 his claim to a tract of land was allowed in recognition of his public services. Boone died at Charette, on the Missouri River, September 26, 1820. An account of his life, based on his own relation, was written by Filson in 1784, and lives

have been written by Flint, Bogart, and J. S. C. Abbott.

Booneville, a town of Oneida county, New York, 35 miles N. of Utica by rail, with manufactures of gloves, leather, and wooden wares. Pop. (1880) 4118.—There is another Booneville, or Boonville, in Missouri, 100 miles E. of Kansas City. Pop. 3854.

Boorde, or BORDE, ANDREW, facetiously styled by himself 'Andreas Perforatus,' was born about 1490, near Cuckfield in Sussex, and was brought up under the stern discipline of the Carthusian order. About 1528 he managed to get a dispensation from his vow, and next studied medicine, as he tells us, at Orleans, Toulon, Montpellier, and Wittenberg, travelling moreover as wide as Rome and Compostella. On his return to England, he was patronised by Cromwell, and afterwards travelled in his behalf on a confidential mission through great part of France and Spain. The year 1536 he spent in practising and studying medicine at Glasgow, and tells us that he found the natives flattering and false. He next returned to London, thereafter crossed the seas and travelled by Antwerp, Cologne, Venice, and Rhodes to Jerusalem. After his return, he lived a while in London, then most likely in Winchester, where his flagrant immoralities soon brought him into serious trouble. In the spring of 1549 he found himself in the Fleet prison in London, and soon after he died. Boorde's chief works are his *Dytary* and the *First Boke of the Introduction of Knowledge*, edited by Dr Furnivall for the Early English Text Society in 1870. His *Itinerary of Europe* has perished, but the *Handbook of Europe* survives, and the *Itinerary of England or Pergrination of Doctor Boorde* was printed by Hearne in 1735. Many books, moreover, have been fudged on the fantastic old reprobate, and some have asserted that he was the original 'Merryandrew.' The earliest known specimen of the Gypsy language occurs in the *Introduction*.

Boos, MARTIN, a Catholic priest, born 25th December 1762 at Huttenried in Bavaria, was from about 1790 the originator of a religious movement closely akin to those of the Protestant Pietists. From 1806, when he settled at Gallneukirchen, his influence spread widely among the Catholic laity, and extended to about sixty of their priests. Himself a staunch Catholic, he was often and bitterly persecuted, till in 1817 the Prussian government appointed him a professor of theology and teacher of religion at Düsseldorf. In 1819 he removed to Sayn, near Neuwied, and died there 29th August 1825.

Boot. See BOOTS AND SHOES.

Boot, also called BOOTS, or BOOTIKIN, an instrument of judicial torture, formerly used in Scotland to force confessions from persons accused of crimes, or answers from unwilling or suspected witnesses. Bishop Burnet in the *History of his Own Time*, and Sir Walter Scott in his *Old Mortality*, speak of the boot as made of iron; but the Rev. Thomas Morer in his *Short Account of Scotland* (1702), written from personal observation of the country at a time when the boot was still in use, describes it as 'made of four pieces of narrow boards nailed together, of a competent length for the leg, not unlike those short cases we use to guard young trees from the rabbits.' One or both legs of the person to be tortured having been placed in this case, wedges were inserted between the limb and the sides of the case, and these wedges were driven down by the executioner with a mallet or hammer, questions being at intervals put to the sufferer, until either he gave the desired information, or fainted away, or showed such endurance as satisfied the judges that no answer

could be extorted from him. In one case—that of a lad in Orkney in 1596—it is recorded that they struck as many as fifty-seven times. In another—that of John Fian, schoolmaster at Prestonpans, burned for sorcery in 1591—the victim 'did abide so many blows, that his legs were crushed and beaten together as small as might be, and the bones and flesh so brused that the blood and marrow spouted forth in great abundance, whereby they were made unserviceable for ever.' 'Still,' it is added, 'he would not confess;' and, indeed, it is remarkable in how many cases we are told that the torture, agonising as it was, failed in its purpose. When the boots were first used in Scotland is not known. In a case where a deed of conveyance of land was challenged as a forgery in 1579, two witnesses, a clergyman and a notary, both of Forfarshire, were ordered to be 'put in the boots, gins, or any other torments, to urge them to declare the truth.' In a letter, preserved in the Record Office at London, Sir Francis Walsingham writes to the English ambassador at Edinburgh in 1583, that Queen Elizabeth desires that Father William Holt, an English Jesuit then in Scotland, may be 'put to the boots.' The boot was subject of allusion on the English stage in 1604; in Marston's *Malcontent*, printed in that year, one of the characters is made to say: 'All your empirics could never do the like cure upon the gout the rack did in England, or your Scotch boots.' A young gentleman of Aberdeenshire was tortured by the boot in 1630. Soon afterwards, it is said to have fallen into desuetude for about thirty years. It was revived after the insurrection of the westland Covenanters in 1666, and continued to be used throughout the reigns of Charles II., and James II., and during the first years of William III. The Claim of Right brought forward by the Scottish Convention in 1689, denounced 'the use of torture, without evidence, and in ordinary crimes, as contrary to law.' Notwithstanding, Neville Payne, an English gentleman who was supposed to have entered Scotland on a treasonable mission, was in 1690 put to the torture under a warrant subscribed by King William, and still shown in the Register House at Edinburgh. The boot was applied to one leg, the thumb-screws to both hands, but without any effect, although, in the words of one of the Privy-councillors, the torture, which lasted for two hours, was inflicted 'with all the severity that was consistent with humanity, even unto that pitch that we could not preserve life and have gone further.' This is believed to be the last time that the boot was used. But it was not until 1709, when Scotland had ceased to be an independent kingdom, that the British parliament enacted that in future 'no person accused of any crime in Scotland shall be subject or liable to any torture.' Torture is believed not to have been used in England after 1640. An instrument similar to that known in Scotland was in use in Germany under the name of 'Spanish Boots.' And in some collections there are shown iron boots which were heated to an unbearable degree on the foot of the victim (see TORTURE). For the boot in France, see Bingham's *Bastille* (1888).

Bootan. See BHUTAN.

Boötes, in Greek Mythology, the son of Demeter and Iasion, who, being plundered of all his possessions by his brother, invented the plough, and cultivated the soil. He was translated to heaven with the plough and yoke of oxen, under the name of Boötes ('ox-driver'), which is still borne by a constellation beside the Great Bear (or

Wain). According to others, Boötes was the son of Lycaon and Callisto (see URSA MAJOR). The bright star *Arcturus* is in Boötes.

Booth (from a Scandinavian word, seen in Danish *boð*, Icelandic *búa*, 'to dwell,' and perhaps in German *bude*), a covered stall or hut at a market or fair, from which goods are sold, still much used in the east of Europe and in Asia, and in England at Weyhill Fair, near Andover. As towns sprang up, the yearly fair was more or less supplanted by the weekly market. The slight booth which was set up in the same spot every week, had an irresistible tendency to become substantial and permanent; and the records of the twelfth and some following centuries are full of unavailing complaints against the encroachments which were in this way made upon the market-places and streets. Thus, Joceline of Brakelond chronicles the ineffectual efforts of his great and wealthy abbey, in 1192, to dislodge the burgesses of Bury St Edmunds from the shops, sheds, and stalls which they had erected on the market-place without leave of the monks. Stow relates that the houses in Old Fish Street, in London, 'were at the first but movable boards set out on market-days to show their fish there to be sold; but procuring license to set up sheds, they grew to shops, and by little and little, to tall houses.' The same chronicler tells us that 'in Cheapside, from the great conduit west, were many fair and large houses, which houses in former times were but sheds or shops, with solars (i.e. lofts or upper chambers) over them.' So in Edinburgh the range called at first 'the Boothrow,' and afterwards 'the Lucken-booths,' arose in the very centre of the High Street. The trader who for years had spread his stall under the shelter of the same buttress of the church or town-hall, began to rest a fixed wooden booth against it, gradually transforming the timber beams into lath and plaster, or even into brick or stone, until at length the basement of the stately cathedral or *hôtel de ville* was incrustated all over with unseemly little booths (or *kramas*, as they were called in Scotland), like limpets on a rock. The booth which thus arose had often but one apartment, opening on the street by a narrow door, and a broad unglazed window, closed at night by a wooden shutter, dividing in the middle, and hinged at top and bottom, so that the upper half formed a sort of awning, while the lower half served as a table for the display of the trader's wares. It was at this window that business was conducted, the trader standing within, the buyer without. Traces of the middle-age booth still remain in this country, and in France there are many perfect examples, some believed to be of the 12th century.

Booth, BARTON, a celebrated 18th-century actor, born in 1681, the son of a Lancashire squire, nearly related to the Earl of Warrington. He received a good education at Westminster, and was just about to be sent to Cambridge when he chose a career for himself by becoming an actor. He first offered his services without success to Betterton, then played for two seasons at Dublin. A fresh application to Betterton was more successful, and in 1700 he appeared as Maximus in *Valentinian*, in Lincoln's Inn Fields, London. He was well received, and became at once a public favourite. In 1708 he appeared in Drury Lane, playing the ghost of the Hamlet of Wilks. In Downes' *Roscius Anglicanus* (1708), he is described as 'a gentleman of liberal education; of form venust; of mellifluous pronunciation; having proper gesticulations, which are graceful attendants of true elocution; of his time a most complete tragedian.' His performance of Cato in

Addison's tragedy in 1713 brought him to the height of his reputation, and yielded wealth as well as honour. Other great parts were Henry VIII., Othello, Brutus in *Julius Caesar*, Hotspur in *Henry IV.*, and Lothario in Rowe's *Fair Penitent*. He died at Hampstead, May 10, 1733.

Booth, JUNIUS BRUTUS, a distinguished English tragedian, the son of a lawyer of some note, was born in the parish of St Pancras, London, May 1, 1796. He received a classical education, but early manifested a predilection for the stage, and when seventeen years of age appeared in some unimportant parts. Subsequently he played Richard III. at Covent Garden, a part in which he suddenly became famous. In 1821 he migrated to the United States, where for the ensuing thirty years he followed his profession with much success. He died suddenly on board a Mississippi river steamer, November 12, 1852. He had long been subject to a natural eccentricity, which, at times, when aggravated by domestic affliction or habits of intemperance, developed into temporary insanity.—His son, **EDWIN THOMAS BOOTH**, American actor, was born in Harford county, Maryland, November 13, 1833. When sixteen years of age, he made his first appearance on the stage, in the part of Tresselt, his father acting as Richard III. Two years later he himself successfully assumed the part of Richard in place of his father, who unexpectedly refused to fulfil an evening's engagement. The following year the two went to California, where the son remained for several years, visiting Australia meanwhile. Meeting with little pecuniary success, in 1856 he returned to the Atlantic states, and from that time forward has been recognised as a leading member of his profession. He visited England (1861-62), and in 1864 produced at the Winter Garden, in New York, the play of *Hamlet* for 100 nights consecutively. In 1869 he opened a splendid theatre in New York, whose building cost over a million dollars, but which involved him in pecuniary ruin. He revisited California in 1876, and in the spring of 1877 was able to settle with his creditors, having earned during the season over £120,000. Booth visited Great Britain in 1880 and in 1882, extending his tour to Germany in the latter year, and being everywhere received with enthusiasm.—**JOHN WILKES BOOTH**, another son of Junius Brutus Booth, was born at Baltimore in 1839, and was an unsuccessful actor. In 1865 he entered a conspiracy to avenge the defeat of the Confederates, and shot President Lincoln (q.v.). He broke his own leg, but managed to escape to Virginia and conceal himself till 26th April, when he was tracked, and, refusing to surrender, was shot.

Booth, REV. WILLIAM, founder and 'general' of the Salvation Army (q.v.), was born at Nottingham in 1829, was educated there, and from 1850 to 1861 acted as minister of the Methodist New Connection. From the first he was zealous in holding evangelistic services, but the new departure which led to the creation of the Salvation Army on military lines began in 1865 with mission work among the lower classes in the East End of London. Since 1878 Booth's movement has been known as the Salvation Army, of which he has continued to be the mainspring and controlling power, directing its movements at home and abroad from his headquarters in London. His enthusiasm and wonderful organising power have given life to the religious military system, of which he is really 'general.' The property of the Salvation Army is held for its exclusive use by Booth. His wife has been associated with him in the publication of several hymns and religious works dealing with the movement, and Booth has written 'What is the Salvation

Army?' in the *Contemporary Review* (vol. xlii. 1882).

Boothia Felix, a peninsula on the north coast of North America, in which is the most northern part of the continent, Murchison Point, 73° 54' N. lat. It is joined to the mainland by Boothia Isthmus, is bounded on the N. by Bellot Strait, and to the E. is separated from Cockburn Island by Boothia Gulf, a southward continuation of Prince Regent's Inlet. It was discovered by Sir John Ross (1829-33), and named after his liberal friend Sir Felix Booth (1775-1850), a London distiller, who had furnished £17,000 for the expedition. Here, on the western coast, near Cape Adelaide, Ross discovered the magnetic pole, 70° 5' 17" N. lat., and 96° 46' 45" W. long.

Bootle-cum-Linacre, a northern suburb of Liverpool, including a large portion of the Liverpool docks, but since 1868 forming a separate municipal borough. Pop. (1861) 6500; (1881) 27,112.

Booton, or **BOUTON**, an island of the Malay Archipelago, separated by a narrow strait from the south-eastern ray of Celebes, and from the island of Muna. Area, 1700 miles. It is high, but not mountainous, and thickly wooded, produces fine timber, rice, maize, sago, &c. The people are Malays. The sultan, who resides at Bolio, is in allegiance to the Dutch, an under-resident being stationed on the island. Pop. 17,000.

Boots and Shoes. The foot-coverings of the human family are exceedingly varied in form, and they are not less diverse in the material out of which they are made. These differences are not merely due to the caprices of fashion and the influence of traditional costume and habit, but they owe their existence in large measure to the conditions of climate, and to the necessities of the daily life and occupations of their wearers. It must be at once obvious that the foot-coverings which would be sufficient and healthy amid tropical sands, would be most unsuitable for withstanding the rigours of a Greenland winter. The lightest sandal, which simply defends the sole of the foot, is appropriate for the one condition, while the other demands the closest, most warm, and water-tight covering which can be devised. The elementary foot-covering is the sandal, which consists only of a pad or sole shaped to the sole of the foot, and held on by straps or thongs. From the sandal grows up the slipper, in which straps and lacing are dispensed with, and a sufficient 'upper' of leather or other soft material is provided to keep the article on the foot. The ordinary short shoe is the next development, it being laced, buttoned, or otherwise fastened on the foot; and in the boot the upper is continued so as to embrace more or less of the leg.

The sandal is the most ancient foot-covering of which we have any record, and examples of very ancient manufacture, taken from Egyptian mummies, are preserved in public collections. The shoe frequently referred to in the Old Testament, and which played an important part in buying and selling, and in other social usages, was a sandal.

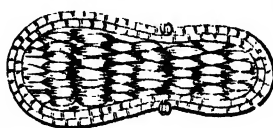


Fig. 1.

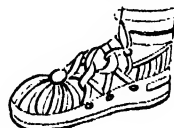


Fig. 2.

The common sandal of the ancient Egyptians (fig. 1) consisted of stripes of papyrus plaited into a kind of mat, and that form remains the type of sandal

of plaited grass or straw worn to this day by multitudes in Central Asia, India, China, and Japan. The sandal was the ordinary shoe of the ancient Greeks, an ornamental example of which is shown in fig. 2. In Greece, shoes were used only in exceptional circumstances, and long boots lacing up the front were worn by hunters. Sandals (*solae*) were the everyday wear of the Roman populace; the patricians wore shoes (*calcei*) of black leather; red leather shoes were reserved for senators; and the long boot or 'buskin' (*cothurnus*), reaching sometimes to near the knee, and frequently supplied with a thick sole to add to the apparent stature of its wearer, was appropriated to tragedians and hunters. Sandals and slippers continue to this day to be the staple foot-gear of oriental communities, and great wealth of ornamentation—inlaying of wood in sandals, and elaborate embroidery in gold and coloured silks, with fantastic curling of the toes—are characteristics of the richer productions of the eastern tradesmen.

In medieval times, shoes with long pointed toes were worn by the high-born; and towards the end of the 14th century these points became ridiculously elongated, so that there appeared to be a long strap projecting from each foot. Different kinds of half-boots were worn by the Anglo-Saxons and Anglo-Normans; and in the reign of Edward IV., if not earlier, the boot proper, with tops and spurs, was established as an article of knightly dress.

In the reign of Charles I., a species of boot, exceedingly wide at the top, made of Spanish leather, came into use; and with Charles II. the highly decorated French boot was introduced as an article of gay courtly attire. Meanwhile, the jack-boot, as it is called (see JACK), had become indispensable in the costume of cavalry soldiers and horsemen generally; and by William III. and his followers it was regularly naturalised in England. Fig. 3 is a representation of this highly characteristic boot, which we readily



Fig. 3.
Jack-boot.

associate with the civil and foreign wars that distracted the 17th century. This huge species of boot remained in use in British cavalry regiments until comparatively recent times, and, in a somewhat polished and improved form, it is still worn by the Horse-guards. The jack-boot is almost entitled to be called the parent of the top and some other varieties. Boots with tops of a yellow colour were so commonly worn by gentlemen in the 18th century, as to become a peculiarity in the national costume of the English. When Philip, Duke of Orleans, and other revolutionists of note, affected to imitate the sentiments and manners of the English, they ostentatiously wore top-boots. Among jockeys and fox-hunters, top-boots are likely to remain in permanent use.



Fig. 4.
Hessian Boot.

What perhaps contributed to break up their general use, was the introduction of the Hessian boot as an article of walking-dress. Worn over tight pantaloons, the Hessian boot was a handsome piece of attire, giving, undoubtedly, an elegant appearance to the nether costume. A representation of a Hessian boot, with its tassel, is seen in fig. 4. Boots of this shape were worn by English general officers in the early part of the French war, and somewhat later. At length they were superseded by the well-known Wellington boot, which, as its name imports, was introduced by the great Duke, as a simplification, under the loose military trouser. When the name of Blucher was given to

a half-boot, the Wellington was almost entirely abandoned in England in consequence of the universal use of short ankle-boots. It is still largely used in some continental countries and in the United States.

The shoemaking industry of the United Kingdom, which has to do principally with boots and shoes made of leather, is divided into two departments—one the old handicraft, the other a factory industry. For many reasons the ancient domestic craft of shoemaking is dying out. Machinery and appliances for every operation are being gradually perfected, and although no machine work can equal in combined solidity and elasticity the productions of a first-class craftsman, superior operatives are comparatively scarce, and the products of the factory are at least even in quality, and much cheaper than hand-made boots and shoes.

Shoemaking as a handicraft is a sedentary and contemplative industry. The foot to be fitted being duly measured, the upper leathers are cut out and sewed together, an operation called 'closing.' The 'stuff' for the soles is then cut out of tanned ox-hide, the pieces being the insole, the outsole, and the lifts of the heel. These are steeped in water; a last or foot-model suitable for the boot or shoe to be made is chosen, and to the bottom of it the insole leather is nailed; and then by pulling and hammering it is moulded accurately to follow the contour of the last-sole. The edges of the insole are then pared and rounded down; the upper is drawn tightly down over the last, and its lower edge is nailed temporarily over the edge of the insole. A narrow strip of leather, the welt, sufficient to run round the whole sole excepting the heel part, is then selected, and the three edges, sole, upper, and welt, are by an in-seaming stitch sewed together. The welt then forms a band to which the outsole is sewed around the edges. The heel lifts are built up, and sewed and nailed together; and thereafter the finishing operations include the burnishing of the sole and edges, the insertion of eyelets or buttons in the uppers, &c.

The shoe-trade as a factory industry only grew with the development of the sewing-machine, and now, except for repairing, there is scarcely such a thing as hand-sewing in the uppers of shoes. The great difficulty which, apart from hand-sewing, at first lay in the way of applying machinery to shoe-making, was in the fastening together of the sole and the uppers. Early in the present century, one Randolph, and a little later, the celebrated engineer, Sir M. I. Brunel, patented methods of fastening together soles and uppers by means of metal pins and rivets. The upper leather was drawn well over the insole, the outer sole was then applied, and the whole pinned together and riveted by the point of the pins coming against, and being turned by an iron-shod last inside. The germs of the modern sewing-machine were embodied in a patent secured in 1790 by Thomas Sant, the object of his invention being to sew boots and shoes; but the sewing-machine was not applied to boot-making till after its success in ordinary stitching was demonstrated. A machine for sewing together soles and uppers was patented in America by Blake, and as subsequently improved by Mackay, it became the apparatus which, for the period during which the patents were current, dominated the factory shoe-making industry. The Blake-Mackay machine sewed through outsole, upper, and insole at one operation; but as the corporation owning the machine held the patent right for machine-sewed boots and shoes, improvements by outsiders were for the time barred. Now there are in operation many varieties of sewing-machines, some of which sew welted boots in all respects like the hand-made product.

Factory-made boots and shoes are now entirely cut out by machinery, the uppers are sewn by strong sewing-machines, and soles and uppers are fastened together either by (1) sewing, (2) pegging with wooden pegs, (3) riveting with metal pins, or (4) screwing by means of the Standard screw machine. The latter most ingenious apparatus uncoils a reel of screwed brass wire, inserts it into the sole, and cuts off the wire flush with the outsole with remarkable rapidity; and for solidity and durability the work leaves nothing to be desired.

Both in the United Kingdom and in the United States, the factory trade in boots and shoes has since 1860 undergone a remarkable development. In America, the trade is generally distributed throughout the New England states, with its headquarters at Boston, Massachusetts. In the United Kingdom, Northampton is the capital of the industry, the other towns in which it forms a prominent feature being Leicester, Stafford, Norwich, Bristol, Linlithgow, and Maybole. A large export trade is carried on from the United Kingdom to the colonies.

Booty is the victors' share in property captured from the vanquished. It is generally a military term, the word prize being more generally used in the navy. For the regulations concerning booty in the British army, see PRIZE.

Bopp, FRANZ, the distinguished philologist, was born at Mainz, 14th September 1791. By the lectures of Windischmann, he was led to devote himself to the study of oriental languages, a study which he continued under Chézy, De Saey, and A. W. Schlegel at Paris. Here he composed his first work on *The Conjugation of the Sanskrit Verb* (1816), in which he scientifically demonstrated the original community of the Indo-European languages. He next removed to London, aided by a small pension from the King of Bavaria, where he published an improved edition of his previous work, and at the same time edited several episodes from the Mahābhārata. He returned to Germany in 1821, and some years after received the appointment of professor of Oriental Languages at Berlin, where he remained till his death, which took place 23d October 1867.

During these years he published his great work, *A Comparative Grammar of Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Old Slavonic, Gothic, and German* (1833-52); in a new edition he added Old Armenian. A final edition was published after his death (1871). It was translated into English by Eastwick (3d ed. 1862). In this work he elaborated his theory of the origin of grammatical inflection. According to this all the words of the Indo-European languages are derived from *monosyllabic* roots which are of two kinds, *verbal* and *pronominal*, and by the addition of one or several of such roots to another root, grammatical inflection is produced. Bopp further held that this stage of language, which has been called the *agglutinative*, was prior to the separation of the Indo-European languages, and that their succeeding history was one of phonetic decay, not of growth. It is in the treatment of this part of the history of language that Bopp is at his weakest. He allowed himself great latitude in dealing with phonetic laws, and finally showed he had no true method at all when he made the unfortunate attempt to connect the Malay-Polynesian languages (1841) with the Indo-European.

Besides the works mentioned above, Bopp wrote monographs on the Celtic, Caucasian, Old Prussian, and Albanian languages, as well as a Sanskrit grammar and glossary.

Boppard, a town of Rhenish Prussia, on the left bank of the Rhine, 10 miles S. of Coblenz.

The *Baudobriga* of the Romans, it was afterwards an imperial city till 1312, and the seat of a diocesan bishopric till 1234. Pop. (1885) 5594.

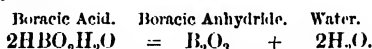
Bora, a strong, cold, and dry, north-east wind, which often rages with great severity in the Upper Adriatic, especially in winter, sometimes for eight or nine days together. Diez explains the word as a Milanese form of Italian *borea*, 'north wind,' from Lat. *boreas*; others identify it with an Illyrian *bura*, 'storm,' of Slavonic origin.

Bora, KATHARINA VON, the wife of Luther, was born of an old family in the district of Meissen, 29th January 1499. At a very early age she entered the Cistercian convent of Nimptschen, near Grimma. Becoming acquainted with Luther's doctrines, she found herself very unhappy in her monastic life; and finally, along with eight other nuns, whose relatives, like her own, refused to listen to them, she applied for assistance to Luther. Luther obtained the services of Leonhard Koppe, a citizen of Torgau, and by him and a few associates the nine nuns were liberated from the convent in April 1523. They were brought to Wittenberg, and Katharina became an inmate in the house of the burgo-master Reichenbach. Luther, through a friend, Amsdorf, offered her the hand of Dr Kaspar Glaz. She declined this proposal, but declared herself ready to marry Amsdorf, or Luther himself. Her marriage with Luther took place on 13th June 1525. She bore her husband three sons and three daughters, and is best described in Luther's own words as 'a pious, faithful wife, on whom a husband's heart could rely.' She died 20th December 1552 at Torgau. See Stein, *Katharina von Bora* (Halle, 1879); and Bayne's *Life of Luther* (1887).

Boracic Acid, or BORIC ACID, is found native (1) in the steam or vapour which rises from certain volcanic rocks in Tuscany, (2) as the mineral Sassolite, occurring largely in California, and (3) as a saline incrustation in the crater of a mountain in the island Volcano, in the Lipari group, 12 miles N. of Sicily. Boracic acid also occurs in combination in Borax, Datholite (q.v.), Boracite, Ulexite, and other minerals, and to a very minute extent in trap rocks generally. The plan of collection pursued in Tuscany is to form a series of caldrons—100 to 1000 feet in diameter, and 7 to 20 feet deep—partly by excavation, and partly by building, in the side of the volcanic mountain where the steam and boracic acid vapours are issuing from fissures, and divert the course of a mountain stream, so that at pleasure the caldrons or *lagoons* may be supplied with water. As the volcanic vapours gurggle through the water contained in the lagoons, the boracic acid is arrested by the water, which becomes impregnated with it. The liquid is passed from one lagoon to another, then on to settling-vats and flat-bottomed evaporating pans, till it becomes so concentrated that on cooling, impure crystals of boracic acid separate. In this condition it is exported.

The production of boracic acid from ulexite, a native borate of lime and soda found in California, has of recent years assumed importance. Ulexite is found as rounded concretions, white in colour, varying in size from $\frac{1}{4}$ inch to 12 inches in diameter, and is locally known as 'cotton balls.' After being broken down, it is heated to 200° F. (93·3° C.) along with three times its weight of water, and sulphurous acid gas is forced in till saturation takes place. The whole is allowed to settle, and the clear solution of boracic acid run off and crystallised. So prepared, it contains about 4 per cent. of impurities. In this process there are produced in addition to boracic acid the sulphates of lime and soda, as well as sulphuretted hydrogen. Native

boracic acid is employed as a source of Borax (q.v.), and contains about three-fourths of its weight of true boracic acid, accompanied by one-fourth of water and impurities. In a pure condition boracic acid may be prepared by dissolving forty parts of borax, $\text{Na}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7$, in one hundred of water, and acting thereon by twenty-five parts of hydrochloric acid, HCl , which removes the soda, forming chloride of sodium, NaCl , and water, H_2O , and on cooling the mixture, the boracic acid, HBO_2 , crystallises out. On re-solution in water and re-crystallisation, it is obtained in pure white feathery crystals. These crystals have the composition of $\text{HBO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$, and on heating lose the whole of the water they contain, yielding boracic anhydride, B_2O_3 , thus:



Boracic acid is used in the arts as a flux, as an ingredient in the glaze employed in pottery; and the wicks of stearine and composite candles are treated with it, so that when the candle is burning, the end of the wick, when it gets long, may fuse and fall to the side, where it can be burned away. As an antiseptic and preservative of food, boracic acid is extensively employed either alone or along with borax. An ointment, called 'Lister's Ointment,' of great antiseptic power, is prepared from boracic acid, wax, and paraffin. In the preservation of butter, milk, wine, beer, meat, and fish, it is probably used to a greater extent than any other antiseptic. There is still much discussion as to the desirability of preserving food by this means, but as yet no authentic evidence has been produced to show that its use has been followed by evil results. Boracic acid is volatile when its solution in water or alcohol is evaporated, and when alcohol containing it is ignited, the flame has a green colour characteristic of boracic acid.—Boro-glyceride (q.v.), prepared by heating boracic acid with glycerine, possesses very valuable antiseptic properties.

Borage, *Borago*, or *Borrage*, a genus of Boraginaceæ (q.v.), of which the three species are all natives of the countries around the Mediterranean. The Common Borage (*Borago officinalis*) is



Common Borage (*Borago officinalis*):
a, a flower.

found in waste places in many parts of Europe, and is pretty frequent—no doubt naturalised—in

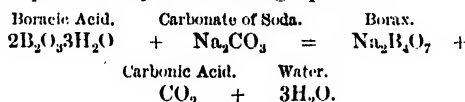
Britain. It is a herb of somewhat stout and coarse appearance, but is easily recognised by its scorpioid cymes of few large ($\frac{3}{4}$ in.) beautiful blue flowers with purple-black anthers, spurred at the back. Borage was formerly much cultivated and highly esteemed, being reckoned amongst the *cordial* flowers, and supposed to possess exhilarating qualities, for which it no longer receives credit. The belief in its virtues was at one time extremely prevalent in England, its very name being, according to some, a corruption of *corage*, and its use correspondingly universal. The flowers were put into salads, Gerard tells us (1597), 'to make the mind glad;' and he adds: 'There be also many things made of them, used everywhere for the comfort of the heart, for the driving away of sorrow, and increasing the joy of the mind.' It was also frequently put in wine, and although it has no sensible properties, its traditional virtues still retain for its leaves a place in the preparation of claret-cup. The young leaves and tender tops are pickled, and occasionally boiled for the table, and are still used in salads in Germany.

Boraginææ, or BORAGINACEÆ, a chiefly herbaceous order of cordifloral dicotyledons, the alternate exstipulate leaves generally rough with hairs which proceed from a thick hard base (whence the old name *Asperifoliæ*), and the whole plant mucilaginous and emollient. The inflorescence is usually a scorpioid cyme; the calyx and corolla 5-lobed regular; the stamens epipetalous and alternate; and the primitively 2-lobed ovary becomes early divided into four 1-seeded nutlets, much resembling those of Labiata (q.v.), and with a single gynobasic style. The order Ehretiaceæ of some botanists differs chiefly in the fruit, which in the more typical species is a succulent drupe; and in the Heliotropes consists of four dry achenia more or less consolidated.—There are about 600 known species of the proper Boraginææ, and about 300 of Ehretiaceæ. The former are natives principally of temperate climates, and are particularly abundant in the south of Europe and in the temperate parts of Asia; the latter are more tropical, but not exclusively so. Borage (q.v.), Alkanet (q.v.), Comfrey (q.v.), and Forget-me-not (q.v.), are familiar examples of the former; the exquisitely fragrant Heliotrope (q.v.) is the best known of the latter. The drupes of some species of Ehretia are eatable.

Boras'sus. See PALMYRA PALM.

Borax, or BICBORATE OF SODA, is found native as a saline incrustation on the shores of certain lakes in Persia, Tibet, Nevada, and California, but it also occurs widely scattered over the world. It has been long known, but it was not till 1732 that its chemical nature was ascertained. At first, and till comparatively recent years, the main source was the crude article brought from Tibet in skins, and going by the name of *tincal*. As so obtained, the crystals were coated with a greasy matter, said to be derived from the skins, and this had to be first removed by means of soda before the borax could be refined. In 1856 the Californian sources of borax were discovered, the bottom of a lake being found to be covered to a depth of about 18 inches with a mud impregnated with borax, and containing large crystals of it. From this mud, by treatment with hot water and crystallisation, there is first obtained *concentrated* borax, and by further treatment this yields the *refined* borax. In other places in California the borax is found mixed with sand in a light granular form, containing about $\frac{1}{10}$ th of the pure salt, while large crystalline masses of it occur below the surface of the ground. In all these cases a similar method of purification is adopted. The importance of these deposits may be gathered from the figures showing the

production of borax in the Pacific States—viz. in 1872, 280,000 lb.; in 1876, 5,140,000 lb.; and in 1884, 3,732,000 lb. In Europe, large quantities of artificial borax are prepared from the Boracic Acid (q.v.) of Tuscany. This, mixed with carbonate of soda, is heated in a furnace, carbonic acid being liberated, and the crude salt is then dissolved in water to free it from impurities, and crystallised. The changes which take place in this operation are represented by the following equation:



The common variety of borax contains ten equivalents of water, $\text{Na}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7 + 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and forms prismatic crystals; but another variety exists, known as *octahedral borax*, and containing only five molecules of water. Borax is soluble in twelve times its weight of cold water, and in half its weight of boiling water, yielding a clear solution with a slightly sweetish taste. It is of great use in the chemical arts owing to its properties of dissolving metallic oxides, and of forming a flux when heated with other substances. On this account it is much used in connection with the Blowpipe (q.v.), before which it yields different coloured glasses corresponding to the metals present. It is also employed in the manufacture of enamel, and for glazing or coating vessels in pottery, as also in the formation of the paste for artificial gems. To the metallurgist it is an aid in the readiness with which it promotes the fusion of metallic mixtures, and the separation of the metals; and to the solderer it is of service in forming a thin glassy coating over the edges of the metals, which prevents their oxidation at the time they are being joined together. It is used as a mordant in calico-printing, while as an adjunct to, or substitute for, soap in washing, it gives satisfactory results in the proportion of $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. to 10 gallons of water. For the toilet, borax in solution is invaluable, making in itself an admirable shampoo, while its utility for cleaning brush and comb are well known. A varnish prepared by boiling together one part of borax and five of shellac with water is used for stiffening hats; and as an insecticide it is very powerful, being specially destructive to cockroaches. For preserving meat, fish, butter, and milk, either alone, or along with Boracic Acid (q.v.), borax has a wide application, no less than 20,000 lb. having been supplied to the Chicago canning works in one year for the preserving of meat alone. Besides these technical uses, borax is much used in medicine as an antiseptic, being applied either in powder or as lotion. For ulcerating surfaces, and in the treatment of the infantile disease thrush, it is extensively applied; while throat lozenges, designed to relieve the hoarseness of public speakers, generally contain this valuable salt as a constituent.

Borda, JEAN CHARLES DE, mathematician and astronomer, was born in 1733 at Dax, in the French department of Landes. As early as 1756 his *Mémoire sur les Projectiles* procured him admission to the Academy of Sciences. Entering the navy, he busied himself with nautical, astronomical, and hydraulic investigations, and suggested great improvements in the form of vessels. In 1777-78 he did good service in the American war; in 1782 he was captured by the English on the voyage home from Martinique, but was permitted to return on parole to France, where he entered the ministry of marine. He died at Paris, 20th February 1799. He was a leading member of the commission intrusted with the measurement of a

meridian arc; and he rendered essential service to the new system of weights and measures.

Borde. See BOORDE.

Bordeaux, the third seaport of France, and the chief town in the department of Gironde, is beautifully situated in a plain on the left bank of the Garonne, about 60 miles from its mouth in the Atlantic, and 359 miles SSW. of Paris by rail. Transatlantic steamers can easily ascend with the flood to Bordeaux, which is accessible at all times to vessels of 600 tons. The commerce both by the Garonne and by railways is very extensive, and its long and crescent-shaped harbour, providing anchorage for 1200 ships, has a singularly noble appearance. But the quay accommodation is limited; most of the ships have to anchor in the stream, exposed to very high and swift tides. In 1867-79 a spacious dock was constructed at the lower or northern end of the town, with a depth at ebb-tide of 22 feet, and an area of almost 25 acres; and in 1888 the construction of stone embankments, iron jetties, and other improvements was commenced. The river is crossed by a noble bridge of 17 arches and 532 yards in length, erected in 1811-21. The old town has narrow crooked streets; but the newer parts of the city and the suburbs have wide streets, fine squares, and pleasant promenades lined with trees. In spite of damp winters and oppressive summers, as well as of its imperfect drainage system, Bordeaux is a healthy town. The cathedral of St André, which was consecrated in 1096, is remarkable for its beautiful towers, designed and built, it is said, by English architects during the English occupation. St Croix dates from the 10th century, and St Seurin is also very ancient. Several handsome large churches have been built between 1868 and 1881. Bordeaux is the seat of an archbishop, and contains a faculty of science and letters (rebuilt in 1885-87, and constituting part of the university of France, with 900 students), schools of theology, medicine, art, and navigation, an academy of arts and sciences, a valuable gallery of paintings, a museum, and an observatory. The Grand Théâtre is one of the largest and finest buildings of its kind in France. The public library has upwards of 160,000 volumes. Pop. (1872) 190,682; (1886) 235,374.

The principal branches of industry are the production or preparation of sugar, brandy, liqueurs, vinegar, tobacco, printed calicoes, woollen goods, casks, paper, earthenware, glass bottles, capsules, labels, and chemical products. There are large dockyards, but shipbuilding has been practically at a standstill for some years. The old Canal du Midi connects Bordeaux with the Mediterranean; and a great canal has been recently proposed, to connect Bordeaux with Narbonne. Wine, brandy, vinegar, fruit, fish, lace, jewelry, ready-made clothing, and skins are among its principal exports, the largest trade being with England and South America. Bordeaux is an important centre of the French cod-fishing ships for Newfoundland and elsewhere. In 1886, 1969 ships, of 1,274,937 tons, entered, and 2032, of 1,284,265 tons, cleared the port. Almost half the vessels, and more than half the tonnage, were British. The total value of imports and exports for 1885 was respectively £15,903,813 and £15,286,012.

Except those of Champagne, no French wines have been so much exported to foreign countries as those grown in the department of Gironde, especially the Medoc, and known as Bordeaux wines. Some of them are red (known in England as *Claret*), others white. The finest red wines are produced by the vineyards of Château-Lafite, Château-Margaux, Château-Latour (all Medoc

wines), and Haut-Brion, the best of the *vins de Graves*. St Julien and St Estèphe are of the second rank. The St Emillion wines are a distinct group. Of the white wines, the Château d'Yquem is the finest of *Sauternes*, others being Bonmès, Barsac, Preignac. Of late years, however, the ravages of the Phylloxera (q.v.) have seriously diminished the vintages, and large quantities of wine have been imported in consequence from Spain and Sicily, and either mixed with, or sold as, Bordeaux wines.

Bordeaux, anciently called *Burdigala*, was the capital of the *Bituriges Vivisci*, and being made by Hadrian the capital of Aquitania Secunda, it became both the principal emporium of the south-west of Gaul, and the seat of its best educational institutions. The only important Roman remains are the so-called 'palace of Gallienus,' really the ruins of a large amphitheatre. The town shared the fate of Aquitania, and suffered successively from Vandals, Goths, Franks, and Moors. It was taken by Charles Martel in 735; but was again spoiled by Norman plunderers in the 9th century. It became the capital of the Duchy of Guienne; and in 1152 passed, by the marriage of Eleanor of Guienne with Henry of Normandy (afterwards Henry II. of England), under the dominion of England. The town was for a considerable time the seat of the splendid court of Edward the Black Prince, but was restored to France in 1451. It was the seat of the Collège de Guyenne, in which George Buchanan and other noted Scotsmen were professors in the 16th century. During the Revolution it was the principal seat of the Girondists, and suffered fearfully at the hands of the Terrorists. Its inhabitants, disaffected to Napoleon's government, were the first to declare for the Bourbons in 1814. During the Franco-Prussian war, the first sittings of the National Assembly in 1871 were held here in the Grand Théâtre. Bordeaux is the birthplace of Richard II. of England, the poet Ausonius, and Rosa Bonheur.

Bordelais, the country round about Bordeaux, was a recognised division of the province of Guienne.

Bordentown, a town of Burlington county, New Jersey, on the Delaware, 6 miles SE. of Trenton by rail, and 28 miles ENE. of Philadelphia by rail or steamer. It has iron-foundries, machine-shops, shirt-factories, and shipyards. Pop. (1880) 5334.

Borders, THE, as denoting the tract of country lying immediately on both sides of the frontier line between England and Scotland, is a term somewhat elastic in its signification. *Geographically*, the frontier line runs diagonally north-east or south-west, between the head of the Solway Firth at the latter extremity, and a point a little north of the mouth of the Tweed at the other extremity; the counties touching upon this line being Cumberland and Northumberland on the English side, and Dumfries, Roxburgh, and Berwick on the Scottish side. The distance between the two extremities is nearly 70 miles as the crow flies; but, following the frontier line in its irregularities, about 110 miles. The line of division is for the most part a natural one. The middle portion, extending 35 miles, is formed by the high barrier of the Cheviot range, the watershed of which may be regarded as in general the line of division. Leaving the Cheviots in the south-west, the line descends for nearly 22 miles by the Kershope Burn, and the waters of the Liddel, the Esk, and the Sark, to the Solway Firth. From the north-east extremity of the Cheviots, the windings of the Tweed, for about 13 miles eastward, form the natural boundary. But at a point about 5 miles from the mouth of that river, the line strikes out semicircularly in a

north-easterly direction, till it reaches the east coast a few miles north of the town of Berwick-on-Tweed; the space thus inclosed, embracing within it what are known as the 'Liberties' of that town, having been at one time regarded as neutral territory between the two kingdoms. On the western Border, near the Solway, was a corresponding tract of country claimed by both kingdoms, and hence called the 'Debateable Land.'

While the above may be taken roughly as defining the Border in the geographical sense, the word has for *historical* purposes a wider signification, especially on the Scottish side. In old Scots Acts of Parliament applying to the Border district, and in general in Scottish history, the counties of Selkirk and Peebles, though they nowhere touch the frontier line, are embraced within the term. While, therefore, the southern limit of the English Border may be defined by a line drawn from Carlisle to Newcastle, following nearly the route of the Roman Wall, the Scottish Border may for historical purposes be described as a truncated or rounded triangle, its base-line extending from Wigtown Bay on the west to the mouth of the Tweed on the east, the apex or central portion running as far north as the town of Peebles, nearly 40 miles from the Cheviots. The territory thus indicated as the Scottish Border includes the whole of the counties of Berwick, Roxburgh, Selkirk, and Peebles, a considerable portion of Dumfriesshire, and part of Galloway.

There is yet a third and more popular sense in which the word Border is used, and here again affecting the Scottish side. This, which may be called the *literary* sense of the term, arises out of the extraordinary prominence which has been given to the vale of the Tweed, including its tributaries the Yarrow, the Ettrick, and the Teviot, by the splendid romances and poems of Sir Walter Scott, by the poetry of Leyden and the Ettrick Shepherd, by the ancient and traditional ballads relating to the district, and by the pathetic songs and legends more immediately connected with the Yarrow, and glorified by the genius of Wordsworth. While, indeed, all these three senses of the word—the geographical, the historical, and the literary—fall to be recognised in any formal treatise on the subject, it must be admitted that in ordinary usage the third or literary sense predominates. Hence, when Border tales or Border ballads or Border traditions are spoken of, it is the Scottish rather than the English side of the frontier that is referred to.

Although the name of the Border, or Borders, is not perhaps older than the 13th century, it is of interest to note that from the very dawn of British history the district so called has exhibited in its annals the characteristics of a frontier or borderland, in so far as it has almost constantly formed the boundary or point of contact between contending races and nations. It is first made known to us by Tacitus as part of the kingdom of Brigantia, or the territory of the Brigantes—probably a Welsh-speaking race of Celts—who ruled all the country between the Humber and Mersey as far north as the Firth of Forth. They were a strong, courageous, and warlike people, able for many years to keep the Roman cohorts at bay, and thus to serve as a check upon the northward progress of the invaders. It has even been suggested, on plausible grounds, that the great earthwork which runs almost parallel with the Roman Wall between Carlisle and Newcastle, was the work, not of the invaders, as hitherto supposed, but of these native tribes, and erected by them as a barrier against the advance of the Romans. The earthwork faces south, and is therefore presumed to have been built as a defence against the south (see paper by Professor Hughes

'On the Ancient Earthworks between the Solway and the Mouth of the Tyne,' in *Communications of Cambridge Antiquarian Society*, vol. vi., 1887-88). If so, we have here a defined frontier line as far back as the 1st century of the era. The district immediately to the north of this line and the Solway Firth was subsequently, however, conquered by Agricola, and held by the Romans, though not without many insurrections on the part of the natives, until the departure of the former from the kingdom. The district then became the common battle-ground successively of Picts and Britons and Angles, until the 6th century, when we again find it appearing in history under the name of Bernicia (a name regarded by Professor Rhys as traceable to the older Brigantia), and occupied by an English-speaking people. Bernicia, in the succeeding century, was conjoined with Deira to form the great kingdom of Northumbria, which kingdom, as Brigantia had done, included all the territory between the Humber and the Forth. From the 7th to the 11th centuries, what we now call the Border district still continued to be the meeting-point of hostile races, the Scots of Dalriada and the Picts, and latterly the Scots alone, contending, now with the Angles, and now with the usurping Danes, for the possession of the country watered by the Tweed. At length, in 1018, the Scots, under Malcolm II., defeated the Angles of Northumbria in a great battle at Carham, near Coldstream, whereupon the Northumbrians ceded to the Scots the district then known as Lothian (q.v.), that is, the whole of the territory between the Tweed and the Forth. The Scots afterwards obtained possession also of Cumberland, but this was wrested from them by William Rufus in 1092. The Tweed, however, still remained as the boundary between England and Scotland on the eastern Border, until the frontier was finally adjusted, much as it exists, by a commission of both countries in 1222.

From the time of the rise of the Celtic dynasty of Scottish kings in the person of Malcolm II. a change for good is observable in the condition of the Scottish Border. Under his descendant, Malcolm Canmore, the aristocracy was strengthened by the settlement of noble Saxons and Normans; and by David I. were planted the great religious houses of Kelso, Melrose, Jedburgh, and Dryburgh, which could not fail to have a civilising and ameliorating effect upon the people and the country. On the English side the church had a less vigorous growth, having no such munificent patron as King David, yet there also it could boast of the fine cathedral of Carlisle, the Premonstratensian abbey of Alnwick, the ancient monastery and priory of Hexham, and the still more ancient and classic shrine of Lindisfarne or the Holy Island. The Scottish side of the Border made, moreover, at this time a great advance as compared with the English side. This advance was due not a little to its physical superiority. Northumberland, which marches with Scotland for fifty miles, and almost of itself constitutes the English Border, was mostly, with the exception of the south-eastern portion, a barren and bleak country. Even now, its western and northerly parts, with their high and uncongenial exposure, are little better than moorlands. The soil, being cold and wet and sour, is unfavourable to plant-life, and for miles on miles, in some places, scarcely a tree is visible. On the other hand, the Scottish Border, with its broad and fertile valleys fed by numerous streams, its valuable woodlands, and its green hill-pastures, was extremely favourable, notwithstanding its exposure to hostile inroads, for the settlement and support of a numerous and thriving population. Hence Berwick and Jedburgh and Roxburgh rose in the 13th century into towns of great wealth and im-

portance, having an extensive home and foreign trade, Berwick being described as the greatest seaport in the British island. But with the death of Alexander III., and the outbreak of the War of Succession, all this was changed. Berwick was captured by the English king and sacked; the castles of Jedburgh and Roxburgh were from time to time taken and retaken, being alternately garrisoned and demolished. Of the ancient busy trading town of Roxburgh, not one stone is left upon another; and of its great castle and fortress, but the merest vestiges. Even the splendid religious establishments—the abbeys, churches, and monasteries—did not escape spoliation and destruction, Melrose requiring, after the time of Edward I., to be almost rebuilt. On the English Border, the ruinous effects of these national wars were felt also, though not to the same extent; for in Northumberland was no town to speak of nearer than Newcastle, and the intervening moors and mosses afforded but scant booty to the spoiler. The Scots, therefore, in their reprisals, while not omitting to ravage the nearer dales of the Rede and the Till, were obliged to extend their inroads beyond the high and barren tracts of Northumberland; and it was the richer though more distant valleys of Durham and Yorkshire that heard the fierce war-cry of Randolph and the Douglas, and yielded to the invaders the harvest of the sword. Weardale and Teesdale were better hunting grounds in which to 'drive a prey,' than the upper waters of the Coquet and the Tyne.

It was doubtless due to the exigencies occasioned by these constantly recurring Border wars and raids, from the 13th to the 16th century, that the whole country on both sides of the frontier became so thickly studded with castles and peel-towers, the numerous ruins of which still form a distinctive feature in Border scenery. These castles and towers, generally planted on heights overlooking the river-valleys, stood as a rule within sight one of another, in order that the signals of invasion or alarm might be the more rapidly spread from point to point. From a survey made in 1460, we find that Northumberland alone possessed thirty-seven castles and seventy-eight towers; and the Scottish side was equally well strengthened and defended. Among the larger and more important fortresses on the English side, were the castles of Wark, Norham, Alnwick, Newcastle, Carlisle, Naworth, and Cockermouth; and on the Scottish side, the castles of Berwick, Roxburgh, Jedburgh, Ferniehirst, Cessford, Branksholme, Hermitage, Lochmaben, Caerlaverock, and Threave; besides the hundreds of peel-towers and bastel-houses scattered over the country. On both Borders also grew up many fortified towns, upon whose walls the citizens by turns kept nightly watch and ward.

To narrate all the invasions that took place on either side of the Border would be to repeat great part of the general history of England and Scotland; but as giving some idea of the extraordinary havoc and destruction occasioned by these wars and invasions, two authentic reports may be referred to. In 1544 Sir Ralph Evers and Sir Brian Latoun, with an English army, invaded the Scottish Border, and between July and November they destroyed 192 towns, towers, barnkyns, parish churches, &c.; slew 403 Scots and took 816 prisoners; carried off 10,386 head of cattle, 12,492 sheep, 1296 horses, 200 goats, and 850 bolls of corn, besides an untold quantity of 'inside gear and plenishing.' In one village alone—that of Les-sudden (now St Boswells)—Sir Ralph Evers writes that he burned '16 strong bastel-houses.' Again, in September of the following year, the Earl of Hertford a second time invaded the country, and between the 8th and 23d of that month, he 'razed

and cast down' the abbey of Jedburgh, Kelso, Dryburgh, and Melrose, and burned the town of Kelso. At the same time he destroyed about 30 towns, towers, and villages on the Tweed, 36 on the Teviot, 12 on Rule Water, 13 on the Jed, 45 on the Kale, 19 on the Bowmont, 109 in the parishes of Eccles and Duns in Berwickshire, with 20 other towers and villages in the same county. The places destroyed are all named in the report to the English king, along with a classified list of that terrible sixteen days' destruction, embracing 7 monasteries and friars' houses, 16 castles, towers, and peels, 5 market-towns, the immense number of 243 villages, with 13 mills, and 3 'spitals and hospitals.'

The Borders have likewise been the scene of some great historical battles. Of what may be called national contests, in which Scots and English armies were opposed to each other, there is the battle of Halidon Hill (1333), Otterburn (1388), Homildon Hill (1402), Piperden (1435), Flodden (1513), Solway Moss (1542), and Ancrum Moor (1544). In three of these battles—Otterburn, Piperden, and Ancrum Moor—the Scots were victorious. Of what may be called internal contests, we have the fight at Arkinholm, now Langholm (1455), between Scotsmen, when James II. broke the power of the Douglasses; the battles of Hedgocoy Moor, near Percy's Cross, and of the Levels, near Hexham (1463), between the English adherents of Lancaster and York, when the Lancastrians were defeated; the skirmish of Haliden, near Melrose (1525), between Scotsmen under Angus and Buccleuch, when Angus vanquished the Border chief; and the battle of Philiphaugh (1645), when Leslie drove Montrose off the field. Of many faction fights and deeds of daring, such as the Raid of the Reidswire (1575) and the rescue of Kinnmont Willie from Carlisle Castle (1596), the ancient ballad-writers are the best historians.

In order to provide against the exceptional tendencies of the Borderers on the one side of the frontier to fall out with and plunder those on the other side, the governments of both countries, in the 14th century, divided the frontier into the East, West, and Middle Marches, over each of which divisions wardens were appointed by their respective sovereigns. These wardens were salaried officials, and endowed with great administrative and judicial powers. They stood to their respective districts in the place of the sovereign; and the office was at one time hereditary, being practically vested as the prerogative of a few of the higher nobles who had estates on the Borders. At certain times, a day of truce was held, when the English and Scottish wardens met, examined each other's credentials, and settled any questions that might be in dispute between their followers. As in the case of the Raid of the Reidswire, these meetings did not always end peacefully. (For details as to the duties of the wardens, and the laws and usages of the warden courts, see *The History of Liddesdale and the Debateable Land*, by R. B. Armstrong, part i. 1883.) One district which was the cause of much trouble to the wardens of the West March, was that known as the Debateable Land, which lay partly in England and partly in Scotland. Its south boundary was formed by the Esk, from its junction with the Liddel to where it enters the Solway; and within the Debateable Land were comprehended the baronies of Kirkcandrews and Morton in Cumberland, and Brettaloch or Bryntallone (now Canonbie) in Dumfriesshire. It is first mentioned in a proclamation of 15th November 1449, as 'the lands called Batable or Threep lands.' Its chief families were the Armstrongs and Grahams, both clans being noted as desperate thieves and freebooters.

They had frequently to be dealt with by force of arms, till in the 17th century the Grahams were transported to Ireland, and forbidden to return upon pain of death. Other districts of the Borders from time to time called forth hostile visitations from the Scottish kings or their commissioners, when great numbers of the robbers were frequently seized and hanged. So late as 1606, the Earl of Dunbar executed as many as 140 of them. The union of the crowns removed some obvious grounds of contention between the English and Scottish people, and after the middle of the 17th century the Borders gradually subsided into a more peaceful condition.

The character and habits of the Borderers were much alike both on the English and the Scottish side. While the greater nobles lived in large and strong castles, the inferior gentry occupied the peel-towers, in which the accommodation might barely suffice for the wants of a small farmer of the present day. And yet the accommodation, meagre as our modern ideas would esteem it, was probably sufficient for the simple wants of a rude and hardy people, who must have set but little value upon movable and perishable property, knowing how liable they were to have it stolen or consumed, and how readily, by equally predatory means, they might replace it from the stores of others. The tie or feudal bond, on the Scottish Border at least, between the chiefs and the principal men of their clans, was that implied in the term 'kindly tenant'—i.e. a tenant who was of the kith, kin, or family of the chieftain, or who had held his lands in succession, from father to son, for several generations. This tie was not dependent upon payment of rent either in money or in kind, but upon kinship, and was for the binding together of the leading members of the clan in the common objects of self-interest and self-defence (see *Edinburgh Review*, July 1887, pp. 12, 13). In a state of society so constituted, it was inevitable that there should be much strife and contention, not only between the residents on opposite frontiers, but among the clans themselves, and many instances of cruelty and almost savage vindictiveness have been left on record; yet what to some extent redeemed this state of things from sheer barbarity, was the fine and elevating spirit of chivalry which actuated both knights and nobles, and which spread itself from them through men of less degree. Hence the achievements which have found lasting enshrinement in the Border ballads, instinct as these are with the poetry of action, of chivalrous bearing in love and war.

For the early history of the district, see Dr Skene's *Celtic Scotland* (3 vols. 1876-80); Professor Rhys's *Celtic Britain* (2d ed. 1884). For later periods: Ridpath's *Border History of England and Scotland* (1776); *History of Northumberland*, by Wallis (2 vols. 1769); by Hodgson (7 vols. 1820-58); F. H. Groome's *Short History of the Borders* (1887); and Family Histories by Sir William Fraser (q.v.). For general antiquities: Dr Collingwood Bruce's *Roman Wall* (3d ed. 1867); W. Sidney Gibson's *Descriptive and Historical Notices of Northumberland Castles, Churches, and Antiquities* (3 series); Scott's *Border Antiquities of England and Scotland* (2 vols. 1814-17); M'Gibbon and Ross's *Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland* (2 vols. 1887); and *Proceedings of Scottish Society of Antiquaries, Archaeologia Æliana* (Newcastle), *Berwickshire Naturalists' Club*, and *Hawick Archaeological Society*, generally. For manners, customs, dress, weapons, superstitions, poetry, &c.: Scott's *Mintrelsy of the Scottish Border*, Introduction and Notes (3 vols. 1802-3); Professor Veitch's *History and Poetry of the Scottish Border* (1878); Henderson's *Folklore of the Northern Counties* (2d. ed. 1879). For local history: Tate's *History of Alnwick* (2 vols. 1866); A. Jeffrey's *History and Antiquities of Roxburghshire* (4 vols. 1858-69); Dr W. Chambers's *History of Peeblesshire* (1864); T. Craig-Brown's *History of Selkirk*.

shire (2 vols. 1886); Mrs Oliver's *Upper Terriotdale*, and the *Scotts of Buccleuch* (1887). See BALLADS, CASTLE, PEEL-TOWER.

Border-warrant, an obsolete form of diligence used in the Border counties of Scotland for detaining the person of an English debtor. It was more rigorous than the general *meditatio fuge* warrant. See DEBT, MEDITATIO FUGÆ.

Bordighera, a winter resort in the Riviera, North Italy, on a hill overlooking the Mediterranean, 7 miles WSW. of San Remo by rail. It was founded in 1470, but its modern progress dates from the opening of the Cornice road in 1823, and of railway communication. It possesses several hotels and an English church. Bordighera suffered in the earthquakes of February 1887. Pop. (1881) 2556. See Hamilton's *Bordighera*, translated from the French by Dowson (1883).

Bordone, PARIS, a painter of the Venetian school, was born of noble parentage at Treviso in 1500. He studied under Titian, to whom his works are often attributed; and under Giorgione. He worked in his native town, in Vicenza, and in Venice. In 1538 he was invited to France by Francis I., who employed him to paint portraits of himself and of leading members of his court. He was knighted by Francis II. At Augsburg he painted in the Fugger Palace, and at Milan in the chapel of St Jerome; and he died at Venice in 1570. His most important monumental work in painting was the six sacred subjects with which he decorated the dome of San Vincenzo, Treviso; and his 'Fisherman presenting the Ring of St Mark to the Doge,' now in the Academy, Venice, is ranked as masterpiece among his easel pictures. He is represented in the National Gallery, London, by 'Daphnis and Chloe,' and 'A Portrait of a Genoese Lady.'

Bordure, in Heraldry, a border surrounding a shield (fig. 1), generally said to occupy one-fifth of the field. Though sometimes an independent bearing, it is often a difference of a cadet; and the differencing of cadets by bordures, according to a definite system of rules, has never ceased to be in use in the heraldry of Scotland. There is a great variety in bordures. Besides being engrailed, invected, wavy, &c., they may be parted in many ways and charged. A bordure *compony* or *gobornated*—i.e. divided into sixteen squares (fig. 2)—is often an indication of illegitimacy; and in later times a bordure wavy has been used in England



Fig. 1.

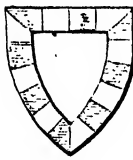


Fig. 2.

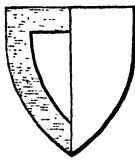


Fig. 3.

(not Scotland) with the same significance. A chief or a canton is sometimes placed over a bordure; but this is not done when the bordure is a mark of cadency. It then always surrounds a coat, and may even surround a quartered coat, a very frequent arrangement in Scotland.

When, however, a coat having a bordure is impaled with another, the bordure is omitted along the line of impalement (fig. 3).

Bore, a tidal phenomenon at the estuaries of certain rivers, also called *Eagre*. When a river expands gradually towards a very wide mouth, and is subject to high tides, the spring flood-tide drives an immense volume of water from the sea into the river; the water accumulates in the estuary more rapidly

than it can flow up into the river; and thus there is gradually formed a kind of watery ridge stretching across the estuary, and rushing up towards the river with great violence and much noise. In some cases this ridge or bore is many feet in height. This phenomenon is observable in several British rivers, as the Severn, Trent, Wye, and Solway. The most celebrated bores are those of the Ganges, Brahmaputra, and Indus: in the Hoogly branch of the Ganges, the bore travels 70 miles in four hours, and often appears suddenly as a liquid wall over 7 feet high. That at Hang-choo-foo is very dangerous; and the Bay of Fundy is remarkable for its tidal phenomena. See TIDE.

Bore is the internal cavity of any kind of firearm. It is in most cases cylindrical; but in the Lancaster gun it is oval, and in the Whitworth hexagonal, both being also spiral; while in all rifled firearms it is furrowed with spiral grooves, and for the same reason—viz. to give that rotation which enables an elongated projectile to be used (see RIFLE). In most modern guns and small arms there is a chamber at the bottom of the bore. In breech-loading weapons this chamber is larger in diameter than the bore, in order that the cartridge and projectile may enter it easily. In muzzle-loaders it is generally of smaller diameter, but an enlarged chamber has been tried in some heavy guns in order to give more air space for the expansion of the gases when the cartridge is fired. The diameter of the bore is called the 'calibre.' In rifled guns it is measured, not from the bottom of the grooves, but from the smooth surfaces between them, called the 'lands.' Heavy iron guns were formerly cast solid and then bored out, but, as it is essential that the surface of the bore should be extremely hard to prevent its being 'scored' by the shot, endeavours were made in America to attain this object by casting them hollow, and cooling the inner surface more rapidly than the rest of the metal. Large guns of modern construction are, however, either made entirely of steel, as in the 'Krupp' process, or as in the Woolwich and Armstrong systems, have a steel tube, toughened in oil, for the bore, and strengthened outside by coils of wrought iron shrunk on over it (see CANNON), so that the hardness of the bore is assured.

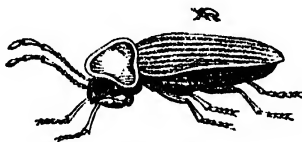
Boreas, the Greek name of the north-east wind, blowing towards Hellas from the Thracian mountains, and personified in mythology as the son of Astræus and of Eos or Aurora, and as brother of Notus, Zephyrus, and Hesperus. He was said to dwell in a cave of the Thracian Hæmus. He had a temple in Athens, because he destroyed the Persian fleet of Xerxes; and at Megalopolis, a yearly festival was celebrated in honour of his aid against the Spartans.

Borecole. See KALE.

Borelli, GIOVANNI ALFONSO, a distinguished mathematician and astronomer, and the founder of the iatro-mathematical school, born at Naples 28th January 1608, was educated at Florence, and became professor of Mathematics at Pisa, and of Medicine at Florence. Having taken part in a revolt, he was obliged to leave Messina, and spent the remainder of his life at Rome, where he died 31st December 1679. He carefully observed the motions of the satellites of Jupiter, then little known, and was one of the first to recognise the parabolic paths of comets. He wrote a treatise on fevers, and a number of works on subjects of applied mathematics, of which the most celebrated is that *De Motu Animalium* (Rome, 1680-81). In this work he applies the laws of mechanics to the motions of animals.

Borers, a name applicable to many beetle-like or Coleopterous insects in the family of wood-eaters

or Xylophaga, but peculiarly applicable to the genera *Ptinus* and *Anobium*. The larvæ eat their way through wood, and when that happens to be furniture, the species of *Ptinus*, &c. come to have some practical human interest. They are mostly inconspicuous animals, resting during the day in the larval tunnels, active and roving at night. *Ptinus fur* is common all the world over, and both as adult and larva much too common in the experience of herbarium keepers, insect collectors, owners of stuffed birds, not to mention wearers of furs, and housewives generally. They are most readily got rid of by the lure of a damp cloth or by vegetable matter left in the room over night, and destroyed with its attracted victims in the morning. The larva of *Anobium striatum* does great damage to furniture made of soft wood. Its little round tunnels, looking as if made by a drill, and full of the finest powder formed from the devoured wood, are familiar enough.



Borer (*Anobium striatum*):
Natural size, and magnified.

The larva rests after a while, spins a silken cocoon, sleeps and grows for a time at the bottom of its hole, and finally emerges a miniature beetle, a dark-brown insect, with a proportionately large thorax overlapping the head, but not measuring in all much above a line in length. Like its relatives in this family, it pertinaciously feigns death when touched or alarmed, an instinct probably at first due to a pathological panic and paralysis, but now normal, habitual, and doubtless of advantage. Other species (*A. tessellatum* and *A. pertinax*), also found in furniture, but likewise, as is indeed usual, on trees, have in their adult stage some importance in the history of superstition as insects which produce a knocking noise, regarded as a presage of the approach of death. The adult is wont to knock against the wood with his upper jaws, but these 'blows, which are taken for the knocking of Death himself, are nothing but a knocking of the male at the door of his loved mate.' The larvæ should be smothered. There are many other genera of borers, *Lyncæon navale* on ship-timber, *Ptilinus* on books, *Apate* on oak furniture, and so on; but the point of interest is the general habit of the family. See DEATH-WATCH, also BORING-ANIMALS.

Borgerhout, a suburb of Antwerp, on the Schyn, with manufactures of tapestry and tobacco, and dye and bleaching works. Pop. (1886) 26,388.

Borghe'se, a family of great distinction in the republic of Siena, and afterwards at Rome. One of the family, CAMILLO BORGHESE, ascended the papal throne in 1605 as Paul V., and by him other members of the family were advanced to high positions. A marriage with the heiress of the house of Aldobrandini brought the Borghe'se family into the possession of great wealth.—CAMILLO FILIPPO LUDOVICO BORGHESE, Prince Borghe'se, born at Rome in 1775, joined the French army, and in 1803 married Pauline, the sister of Napoleon Bonaparte, and widow of General Leclerc. Under the French empire he was for some time governor-general of the provinces beyond the Alps, and held his court at Turin. He sold the Borghe'se collection of artistic treasures to Napoleon for 13,000,000 francs, receiving in part-payment the Piedmontese national domains; but

when these were reclaimed by the king of Sardinia in 1815, he received back some of the works of ancient art. After the overthrow of Napoleon he separated from his wife, and broke off all connection with the Bonaparte family. He lost Guastalla, which he had received through his wife, but retained the principalities of Sulmona and Rossano, his hereditary possessions. He died in 1832.—The *Borghese Palace* is one of the most magnificent at Rome, and its collection of paintings is remarkably fine.

Borghesi, BARTOLOMMEO, COUNT, a distinguished Italian antiquary, born at Savignano, in 1781. At Bologna and Rome he devoted himself to archaeological researches. He next arranged and catalogued various collections of coins, including that of the Vatican. In 1821 he fixed his residence in the little republic of San Marino, where he lived devoted entirely to study, and died 16th April 1860. Borghesi did enormous service to Roman epigraphy and numismatics. See his complete works, published at the expense of the French government by the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris (vols. i.-ix. 1862-79).

Borgia, a family originally of Jativa, in the Spanish province of Valencia, where, at the time of the expulsion of the Moors (1238), the name figures among the *Caballeros de la Conquista*. One of its members, Alfonso de Borja (1378-1458), bishop, and private secretary to Alfonso of Aragon, accompanied that monarch to Naples, where he had gone to establish his rule. This Borja, chosen pope as Calixtus III., settled a number of his family in Italy. Rodrigo de Borja (1431-1503), his nephew, in turn ascended the papal throne in 1492, under the title of Alexander VI. (q.v.); and from that time the principal seat of the family was in Italy, while its name took the Italian form of Borgia. Before his elevation to the pontificate Alexander had had a number of children by a Roman girl, known in history as Vanozza, but whose real name was Giovanna Catanei (1442-1518). Two of these children, Caesar, the fourth, and Lucrezia, Duchess of Ferrara, the fifth, were destined to play important parts, and to acquire in history an unhappy renown.—CÆSAR BORGIA was born in April 1476, and died in 1507. An ambition that knew no bounds, energy that never flagged, and a contempt for laws divine and human, joined to qualities of the first order as a general and administrator, rendered him one of the most extraordinary figures of the Renaissance period. To arrest his vast projects, there was required a league of all Italy and of the most powerful sovereigns of Europe. Vowed to the priesthood from his birth, and from the age of seventeen invested with the dignity of cardinal, he early resolved to surmount all obstacles to his ambition; he shrank from neither sacrilege nor murder, and procured the assassination of his elder brother, Giovanni, Duke of Gandia, whom he shortly after succeeded in the post of captain-general of the Church, for which he readily doffed the purple to assume the breastplate. His father, Alexander, had made an alliance with Louis XII. of France for the invasion of the kingdom of Naples. In the Princess Charlotte d'Allret, sister of the king of Navarre, a bride had been found for Cæsar, who, named Duke of Valentinois, with a rich pension and the promise of a company of two hundred lances for the support of the throne of St Peter, went to contract his marriage (11th May 1499) in France, and carried in exchange to Louis the papal bull, which was indispensable to the king before he could espouse his predecessor's widow, Anne of Brittany. Cæsar's active life extended over no more than four years. Whilst his father

was crushing the feudal power of the barons of the Romagna, he undertook to recover, one by one, all the fiefs along the Adriatic coast which had ceased to acknowledge the over-lordship of the Holy See. In two successive campaigns, he made himself master of the Romagna, Perugia, Siena, Piombino, the duchy of Urbino; he went so far as to threaten Florence itself, and was planning the reconstruction of a kingdom of Central Italy, with himself at its head, when a powerful league was formed against him. His own officers sought to arrest his march, but he misled them by a feint, divided them, invited them to Sinigaglia, and there coldly passed on them sentence of death. Named Duke of Romagna by the pope, he was proceeding to menace Bologna and expel the family of Bentivoglio, when, on the eve of his departure for his third campaign, both he and his father were stricken with sudden illness while at a farewell banquet given by the Cardinal of Corneto. There was talk of poison. The old man succumbed (August 18, 1503), but Caesar's youth, and his extraordinary force of will, triumphed over the malady; the death of Alexander, however, was in effect the end of his projects, and his enemies now raised their heads. The election of Pius III. (a Piccolomini) gave him a moment's hope; the succession of Julius II. (Della Rovere), his bitterest enemy, after Pius's brief reign of twenty-seven days, was fatal to him. Caesar surrendered at Naples, under the promise of a safe conduct from the king of Aragon; but Gonsalvo de Cordova broke his oath, and (25th May 1504) had him arrested and carried to Valencia. After an attempt to break out of Chinchilla, where he was first imprisoned, he was removed to Medina del Campo, from whence, on the 25th October 1506, he made his escape to the court of Navarre. Here he took command of the royal forces against Luis de Beaumont, Constable of Navarre, who refused to surrender the citadel of Vianna, which he held for the king; and in a sortie, 12th May 1507, at the age of thirty, Caesar Borgia fell, after heroically defending himself, at a place called Mendavia. Despite attempts to rehabilitate it, his memory remains in execration—despite, too, the estimate of Machiavelli, who had him in view when he wrote the *Prince*; he has moreover left among the peoples whom he governed, the reputation of a just prince, upright and severe, and of an able administrator. He encouraged art, and was the friend of Pinturicchio, and the protector of Leonardo da Vinci.—**LUCREZIA BORGIA**, born at Rome in 1480, married in the first instance Giovanni Sforza, Lord of Pesaro (June 1493); but her father, ambitious of a more advantageous alliance, annulled this marriage (20th December 1497), and gave her (20th June 1498) to Alfonso, Duke of Bisceglia, nephew of the king of Naples. The same motive induced her father and brother to separate her from her new husband, who was assassinated, 18th August 1500, by Michelotto, Caesar Borgia's bravo. For the third time free, the pope's daughter became, in spite of the repugnance of the Duke Ercole d'Este, the wife of the latter's son, Alfonso, who soon after inherited the duchy of Ferrara. Lucrezia has been represented as placed outside the pale of humanity by her wantonness, her vices, and her crimes; but the recent researches of most accurate and unprejudiced historians have demonstrated that in her youth, with no initiative, no choice permitted to her, she was rather the too pliant instrument in the hands of Alexander and of Caesar Borgia. She died 24th June 1519, enjoying the respect of her subjects, a generous patroness of learning and of art, whose praises were sung by the poets of her time; the closing years of her career being in singular contrast to her early life at the Vatican.

Borgo, a name given to a number of towns and villages in Italy and Southern Tyrol, and indicating the growth of the town or village around a castle or castellated rock, the original Borgo (see BOROUGH). Thus there are the *Borgo*, the north part of Rome, on the right bank of the Tiber; *Borgo-Munero*, an Italian town in the province of Novara, with (1881) 4821 inhabitants; *Borgo San Donnino*, in the province of Parma, with 4493 inhabitants, &c.

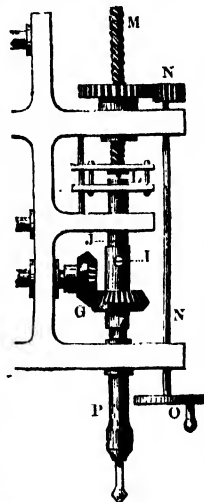
Borgognone, AMBROGIO, a Milanese painter, whose real name was Ambrogio Stefani de Fossano. The assertion that he designed the facade of the Certosa of Pavia in 1473 is very doubtful; but he is known to have been working upon frescoes there in 1490, and the series, in which he was aided by his brother, Bernardino, is so extensive that it must have occupied many years. He returned to Milan in 1494; painted the tribune of the Incoronata, Lodi, 1497; and in 1508 produced an altarpiece, still in San Spirito, Bergamo. His latest undoubted work was a 'Coronation of the Virgin,' in San Simpliciano, Milan, 1524. His devotional subjects are characterised by a gentleness and a measured calm; but in treating dramatic incident he is frequently forced and exaggerated.

Borgomanero, a town of North Italy, 20 miles NNW. of Novara by rail. Pop. 4821.

Borgu, a part of the African kingdom of Gando (q.v.), on both sides of the Niger. The country is generally level, but rises in the north into a lofty, extensive range of hills, and is very fertile and thickly peopled. It was at Bousa, one of the chief towns, that Mungo Park lost his life in 1805.

Boring is a process in mechanical and engineering operations, variously performed according to the medium dealt with. For making small holes in soft woods and like substances, awls are employed, which merely cut and displace a portion of the yielding material. In boring hard woods and large holes, carpenters use gimlets, augers, and the brace and bits, which all cut and scoop out the material. In the jewelry and small metal industries, hand-drills, which consist of a spindle with steel bits, to which reciprocating rotation is given, are the implements for piercing small holes. The boring of holes in metal plates is effected by means of *drills* driven by machinery. The annexed figure shows the essential parts of such a boring machine. The drill is inserted in the end of a vertical spindle, P, which revolves in a fixed frame, and is driven by the bevel-wheels, G. The metal to be bored is placed on a table or other support below the drill; and the up-and-down motion, or end-pressure and off-action, of the drill is effected by the hand-gear, O, N, turning the screw, M; which being coupled to the top of the spindle at L, presses it down or raises it, according to the way it is turned. The spindle slides vertically in the collar forming the axis of the bevel-wheel, but is carried round with it by means of the pin, I, which projects into a groove seen at J.

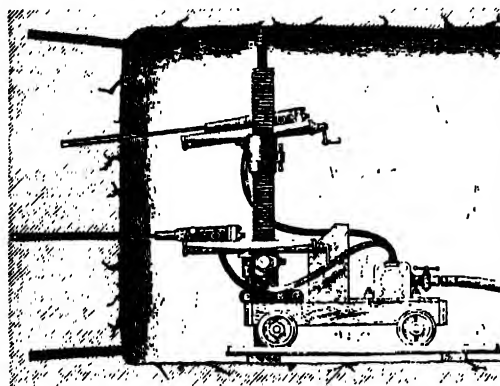
The boring of cannon and of cylinders for steam-engines, and for the propeller shafts of



Boring Machine.

steamers, is most conveniently described under CANNON; see also LATHE.

As applied to the earth and to rocks, boring embraces two classes of operations—boring of shot-holes for Blasting (q.v.), and the sinking of bores in prospecting for minerals, and in forming wells for water, salt-brine, and mineral oils. Blast-holes in rocks are made from 1 to 2—sometimes more—inches in diameter, and may pierce to the depth of 9 feet. Such holes are most simply made in hard rock by a steel-pointed drill, struck by a hammer, and turned partly round after each blow to make the hole cylindrical. The addition of a little water serves to preserve the temper of the boring tool, and makes the rock more easy to cut. In soft rock, whenever the hole is to be vertical, a 'jumper' is used. This is a weighted drill, which acts merely by its own weight when let fall from about a foot in height. The powdered stone is removed at intervals by a 'scraper.' But in all great engineering undertakings rock-boring machinery now supplants hand work. The machines are principally devised to imitate the percussive action of the hand-drill, the boring chisel being worked and rotated by compressed air, and sometimes directly by steam. The compressed-air machines possess the great advantage of aiding in the ventilation of the working—often a most important consideration, seeing the operations are chiefly carried on in confined spaces where vast volumes of poisonous gases are evolved from explosions. The earliest practical rock-boring machine was that of Sommeiller, one of the engineers of Mont Cenis Tunnel, at which undertaking the apparatus was first used. Now the forms of percussion machines are very numerous, improvements being directed towards lightness and simplicity of parts, and to the method—automatic or otherwise—of advancing the boring tool as the work proceeds. Among the best-known machines



Darlington Rock-boring Machine.

are the Barrow, Burleigh, Darlington, Ferroux, Ingersoll, and M'Kean rock-borers. Diamond-drills working in the manner described below are also used. Brandt's rotatory borer is an apparatus similar in action to the diamond-drill, but with a crown of hardened steel in place of cutting diamonds. The tool is pressed against, and rotated by water-power. An apparatus similar in principle to the brace and bits of the carpenter is used with advantage in uniform rock such as slate.

The bores for deep wells of all kinds, and for discovering the mineral contents of a region, come under one category. As a preliminary operation in mining, boring is of the utmost importance for discovering the position, thickness, and dip of mineral strata or lodes, and for ascertaining the nature of the overlying deposits. Bores are made by three

classes of implement—(1) boring-rods, (2) rope-borers, and (3) diamond-drills.

The rod boring instrument consists of an iron shank, having a cross-bar at the top and a hollow screw at the bottom; to this all the successive boring instruments are fastened. A simple chisel is first attached to the screw, and one or two men press upon the cross-bar, and at the same time force it round like an anger; while another workman, by means of a lever erected overhead, with a chain descending from it to the cross-bar, gives an up-and-down motion to the instrument. When the chisel becomes clogged, from the accumulation of material which it has loosened, it is exchanged for a cylindrical auger, provided with a valve, which scoops out the separated material; and thus by alternate chopping and scooping the work is carried on. The nature of the strata is determined with considerable facility and certainty by examining the fragments brought up by the auger. As the work advances, successive lengths of rod are screwed on at the upper end. A derrick pole is erected over the bore-hole for the purpose of elevating the rods, to permit the change of the tools.

The rope method of boring has been long in use among the Chinese. By it the great loss of time, arising from the screwing and unscrewing the rods, at each elevation of the chisel or auger, is saved. The chisel and scooping instrument are fastened to a rope, which is alternately elevated and allowed to descend by the simple force of gravity; the instrument thus forces its way through the ground. In the softer rocks of the newer formations this method has been successfully employed in boring for artesian wells. The rope-boring machinery of Mather and Platt of Salford, in which a flat hempen rope is employed, is in extensive use.

For deep well-sinking, as in the Pennsylvanian oil region where depths of 2000 feet and more have to be reached, and for mineral prospecting, the diamond-drill has of late years largely superseded all other borers. With this apparatus the earth can be pierced at any angle, which is a great advantage in investigating mineral deposits; and moreover, the drill produces solid and continuous cores of the strata through which it passes, so that a complete section of any bore can be exposed to view. The diamond-drill consists of a 'crown,' or cylinder of steel, around one edge of which are fixed a series of black diamonds. These diamonds are so set that they project alternately a little beyond the outside and inside edge of the cylinder. This crown is screwed to lengths of iron tubing as it cuts its way by rotation into the rock, and it makes as it descends an annular cutting somewhat bigger than the thickness of the continuous tube, which the crown and its shaft form. Thus a core of rock is cut out and held within the tube, and the pieces may be lifted out from time to time as the work proceeds. The detritus resulting from the abrasion of the ring of rock is continuously washed away by a current of water forced down within the tubing. Diamond-drills are made of many sizes, from 1½ up to 18 inches diameter. The prototype of the diamond-drill was M. Fauvelle's hollow boring-rod with steel crown described at the British Association meeting in 1846.

Boring-animals. While individual boring-animals are noticed under many separate articles (e.g. BARK-BEETLE, BEE, BIVALVES, BORERS, CATERPILLAR, SHIP-WORM, &c.), it may be convenient to indicate the widespread nature of the habit. Every one is familiar with the appearance of an oyster-shell on the shore riddled with small holes. This is the work of a small sponge, *Cliona* or *Vioa*, one of which inhabits each hole. Other Clonids exhibit a similar power, but how the

boring is effected is not known. The action is probably both chemical by means of secretion, and mechanical by means of spicules. Many worms not only bore in the sand and soil, but into soft organisms like sponges, or among corals and the like. Some sea-urchins, being well equipped with a protruding masticatory apparatus, seem to bore or at least to improve holes for themselves. The Crustaceans can hardly be said to bore, though they burrow very considerably, as in the case of the common crayfish. One of the Isopods, however, *Linnoria terebrans*, devours the wood of harbour piles and the like, and does no little damage to such structures on northern coasts. Many insects are consummate borers both in their adult and in their larval stages. The work of the Bark and Boring Beetles (q.v.), and of the Carpenter Bee (q.v.), are good illustrations of this activity. The name bore-fly is sometimes applied to the large genus of Dipterous insects (*Trypeta*) whose larvae do great damage to many plants. The most important borers, however, are the molluscs, especially such bivalves as *Pholas* (q.v.), *Xylophaga*, and *Teredo*. These belong to the large family *Pholadidae*, which includes some four-score species, all more or less efficient borers in wood or soft stone. Of these the Ship-worm, *Teredo* (q.v.) is probably the most formidable. A closely allied family of *Gastrochaenidae* is characterised by the same habit; *Gastrochaena*, *Clavagella*, and *Aspergillum* (q.v.) are the most important genera. A common bivalve on most coasts, *Saxicava*, is usually credited with considerable boring powers, but it seems probable that its activity has been overrated, and that it utilises old holes to a large extent. *Lithodomus*, belonging to the edible mussel family, is a powerful borer, and has left its marks on the well-known pillars of the Sérapis temple near Naples. Many Gastropods, too, bore with their odontophores into the shells of other molluscs, into coral stocks, and the like; and any one who likes to confine snails in a paste-board box will soon have evidence of the rapidity of their boring powers. There is considerable divergence of opinion as to the exact way in which bivalve molluscs bore, but there can be little doubt that the foot rather than the shell is the chief agent.

Borissov, a town in the Russian government of Minsk, on the Beresina, 418 miles WSW. of Moscow by rail. Pop. (1879) 14,235.

Borkum, one of the East Frisian Islands, at the mouth of the Ems, 25 miles NW. of Emden. Pop. 684, increased in the summer by over 2000 visitors.

Borlase, WILLIAM, antiquary, was born at Pendennis, Cornwall, February 2, 1695. Educated at Tiverton and Exeter College, Oxford, he was presented in 1722 to the living of Ludgvan, near Penzance, and to the vicarage of his native parish of St Just in 1732. He devoted himself to a study of the natural history and antiquities of Cornwall, and in 1754 published his *Observations on the Antiquities of Cornwall*. His account of the Scilly Isles three years later drew from Dr Johnson the praise of being 'one of the most pleasing and elegant pieces of local inquiry that our country has produced.' His *Natural History of Cornwall* appeared in 1758. Soon after he presented his entire collections to the Ashmolean Museum. He had already been elected a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1750, and in 1766 his university gave him the diploma of Doctor of Laws. Borlase was one of Pope's correspondents, and furnished the poet with most of the curious fossils of which the Twickenham grotto was composed. He died August 31, 1772.

Bormio, a place with eight hot sulphur-baths, in the Italian province of Sondrio, 27 miles NNE. of Tirano. Pop. 1744.

Born, BERTRAND DE, a famous troubadour, born about 1140 in Périgord, who played a conspicuous part in the struggles of the English king Henry II. and his sons, during the latter part of the 12th century. He died before 1215. More than forty of his poems are extant, among them both glowing love-poems and strong and sarcastic satires. See his *Life* by Stimming (Halle, 1879).

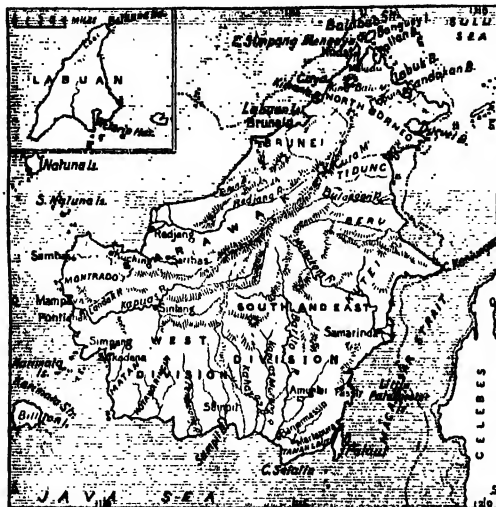
Born, IGNAZ, mineralogist, born at Karlsruhe in Transylvania, in 1742, was trained as a Jesuit, but became a lawyer and judge, and ultimately devoted himself to mineralogy. He prepared important catalogues, wrote several works, and introduced valuable new processes in mining, bleaching, and salt-working. He died in 1791.

Borna, a town of Saxony, on the Wyhra, 17 miles SSE. of Leipzig by rail. Pop. (1885) 7350.

Börne, LUDWIG, a noted German writer, was born 18th May 1786 at Frankfurt, where his father, Jakob Baruch, was a Jewish money-changer. He first studied medicine at Berlin under the guidance of the Jewish physician Marcus Herz, to whose wife he addressed the letters published in 1861. From 1807 he studied law and political economy at Heidelberg and Giessen, and in 1809 he returned to Frankfurt, where he was for two years (1811 to 1813) registrar of the police board. After this he devoted himself wholly to politics, and in 1818 he had himself baptised, changing his name from Löb Baruch to Ludwig Börne. In various journals started or edited by him (1812-21), he established his reputation as a vigorous opponent of the government. The French Revolution of July 1830 drew him to Paris, where he finally settled in 1832, and died of consumption 13th February 1837. His disappointment with the results of the Revolution drove him from the Liberal to the Radical camp. His views are fully developed in his *Briefe aus Paris* and *Neue Briefe aus Paris* (1832-38), which, while reproaching the German people with every kind of vice and folly, labour to incite the nation to revolution. He and Heine became bitterly hostile to each other; it was the mutual antipathy of a practical enthusiast and an æsthetic indifferentist. Börne's bright and polished style was for many years the favourite model of German journalists; his strength lay in witty satire, but the restlessness of his mind made all his productions fragmentary. The first edition of Börne's *Gesammelte Schriften* (1829-31) was followed by a more complete edition in 12 vols. in 1862-63 (new ed. 1868). In 1840 his biography was published by Gutzkow, and Heine gave vent to his hatred in *Heine über Börne*. See Gervinus, *Ueber Börne's Briefe aus Paris* (1838), and Beumann's *Börne* (1841).

Borneo, next to Australia and Papua the largest island in the world, is situated in the Indian Archipelago, in 7° 3' N.—4° 10' S. lat., and 108° 53'—119° 22' E. long. It is bounded on the E. by the Sea of Celebes and the Macassar Strait, S. by the Sea of Java, W. and N. by the Gulf of Siam and the China Sea. Its length is about 800 miles, with a breadth of 700, and an area of about 284,000 sq. m. The population is roughly estimated at 1,865,000, but may be more. The coasts, which are often low and marshy, and rendered dangerous to navigation by numerous islets and rocks, present no deep indentations, though they are pierced by numerous small bays and creeks. A great part of the island must be described as mountainous; but the relations of the various ranges and groupings are still very imperfectly known, and in very few cases has the

altitude of the leading summits been accurately ascertained. In the far north rises the magnificent structure of Kinabalu (13,698 feet high?), built up of porphyritic granite and igneous rocks—the culminating peak probably of the whole Indian Archipelago, and not unworthy in its picturesqueness of such a rank. Throughout the narrow northern portion of the island there runs a kind of central ridge in a general south-west direction, with highest points ranging from 4000 to 8000 feet; and this can be traced, at least as a water-parting, far to the south-west; though broadly speaking, the whole southward country is corrugated and crinkled, as it were, in a most irregular manner. This is the



result of the great process of denudation carried on by the tropical rains, which, scooping out the interior valleys and plains, have laid down the vast alluvial tracts that extend seawards into deltaic morasses. As far as is yet known, the mountain framework of the whole island consists, like Kinabalu, of eruptive and crystalline rocks of high antiquity. Of modern volcanic activity, so prevalent elsewhere in the Indian Archipelago, there is in Borneo no trace either in tradition or in the record of the rocks. A large proportion of the surface, not covered by alluvium, consists of tertiary deposits, in regard to the age of which, however, geologists are not agreed. Pages might be filled with the mere nomenclature of the rivers of Borneo; the more important may be seen on the accompanying map. Though many are powerful streams, navigable far inland for boats of considerable burden, their value as waterways is lessened by the bars which usually prevent the entrance of sea-going vessels, and in their upper reaches by frequent rapids and occasional waterfalls. In connection with the river-systems there are numerous lakes in Borneo; but of true mountain-lakes on a large scale there are probably few. The great lake of Kinabalu, which figured in older accounts with 100 miles of circumference, is a pure myth, based perhaps on a misunderstood description of the great grass-covered plain of Danao.

The climate in the low grounds is humid, hot, and unhealthy for Europeans; but in the higher parts towards the north the temperature is generally moderate, the thermometer at noon varying from 81° to 91° F. During the rainy season, from November to May, heavy storms of wind with loud thunder are experienced on the west coast. The influence of the land and sea breezes passes inland

to quite remarkable distances across the level plains and up the river-valleys. Vegetation is extremely luxuriant. The forests produce iron-wood, bilian, teak, ebony, sandal-wood, gutta-percha, dye-woods, benzoin, wax, dragon's blood, sago, various resins, vegetable oils, and gums. The camphor of Brunei is the best in Asia. The mohor tree, well adapted for making native boats, attains a height of 80, and the kaladang, suited for large masts, of 200 feet. Nutmegs, cloves, cinnamon, pepper, betel, ginger, rice, millet, sweet potatoes, yams, cotton in Amuntai, sugar-cane in Sambas and Montrado, indigo, tobacco, coffee in Sambas, pine-apples, coco-nuts, &c., are cultivated. The mountains and forests contain many monkeys, among which is the orang-outang. Tapirs, a small kind of tiger, small Malay bears, swine, wild oxen or banteng, and various kinds of deer abound. The elephant is only found in the north, and the rhinoceros in the north-west. The few domesticated animals are buffaloes, sheep, goats, dogs, and cats. A few horses are seen in Banjarmassin. Among the birds are eagles, vultures, Argus pheasants, peacocks, flamingos, pigeons, parrots, and the swallows (*Collocalia esculenta*) which construct the edible nests prized by the Chinese for making soup. The rivers, lakes, and lagoons swarm with crocodiles, and many kinds of snakes, frogs, lizards, and leeches. Fish is plentiful, and the coasts are rich in tortoises, pearl-mussels, oysters, and trepang. Brilliant butterflies and moths are in great variety. Among the mineral products are coal, gold, and copper, especially in Montrado; antimony, iron, tin, platinum, nickel, diamonds and other precious stones, rock-crystals, porcelain-clay, petroleum, and sulphur. The diamond mines are chiefly in Landak and Pontianak (q.v.); Sambas produces the greatest quantity of gold; the kingdom of Brunei, Kutei, and Banjarmassin, the largest amount of coal. The Penguron coalfield, worked by the Dutch government, is one of the most important.

The population consists of three classes: the Dayaks or Dyaks (q.v.), who are the aboriginal heathen inhabitants, and constitute the great bulk of the population; the Mohammedans or 'Malays'—for this name is extended so as to include all professors of Islam, whether true Malays, Buginese, Javanese, Dyaks, or Arabs; and the Chinese. The Dyaks live chiefly in the interior, and employ themselves with tillage and the collecting of gutta-percha, resin, gums, rattans, gold-dust, and wax. They are divided into numerous tribes. The Malays (taking the name ethnographically) dwell on the coasts, are traders and bold sailors. They are more civilised than the Dyaks, cultivate the grounds around their houses, lay out gardens, keep cattle, and live partly by fishing. The Chinese, chiefly from Canton, have penetrated far into the interior. They engage in trade and mining, are unwearied in their efforts to make money, and then return to their native country. They have always endeavoured to live as independent republics (*kong-si*) under chiefs chosen by themselves, and according to Chinese laws. In 1857 the Chinese living in Sarawak rebelled, and were nearly exterminated. The Dutch were also compelled to put them down by force of arms, and have imposed a poll-tax.

The women of Borneo, except the Dyak, weave cotton fabrics, make earthenware, baskets, and mats of beautiful designs and colours. In the district of Banjarmassin are factories of weapons. The principal exports are gold, gold-dust, diamonds, coal, rattans, gutta-percha, edible nests, cotton, wax, timber, dye-woods, mats, resins, sandal-wood, camphor, &c.; the imports, earthenware, iron, steel, and copper work, piece-goods, yarns, woollen

and silk fabrics, medicines, provisions, wines, spirits, rice, sugar, tea, tobacco, opium, trepang, gambir, gunpowder, &c.

Borneo has never formed a political unity, and there is no native designation for the island as a whole. The name Borneo (Burnei or Brunei) in fact properly applies only to the Malay kingdom on the north-west coast; and Kalamantan or Kalamantin, sometimes quoted as a general appellation, is also of limited purport. The following are the present political divisions:

(1) *Borneo Proper*.—This originally included nearly the whole of the north-west of the island. The sultan has absolute authority. In 1847 he undertook not to surrender any of his territory to any other power without the sanction of the British government. The capital, Brunei, 20 miles from the coast, on the river of the same name, has at the most 20,000 inhabitants; whereas it was credited by Pigafetta (16th century) with 25,000 houses. The total population of the country within its present limits may be stated at 125,000. Its area was reduced by the erection of

(2) *Sarawak* (q.v.) into a practically independent principality by Sir James Brooke (1841-68), and by the establishment of

(3) *The British North Borneo Company* as a recognised governing body. The company's charter, granted in 1881, transferred to them rights originally obtained by an American adventurer in 1865. This territory consists partly of a portion of the old kingdom of Brunei, partly also of districts on the east coast, claimed by the sultan of the Sulu Islands. Against the British occupation of the Sulu territory, a protest was made by Spain, which had for some time been gradually incorporating the sultan's possessions. As a matter of fact, the British North Borneo Company has been successful in appropriating and developing its territory, which, with an area of 30,709 sq. m., and a coast-line of 900 miles, is now divided into the East Coast Residency and the provinces of Dent, Keppel, and Alcock, and has its capital at Elopura or Sandakan, the largest settlement, with 5000 inhabitants. The population of the territory is estimated at 200,000.

(4) *Dutch Possessions*.—By far the largest part of the island is ruled directly or indirectly by the Dutch, who have divided it into the Residency of the Western Division of Borneo, and that of the Southern and Eastern, the former having Pontianak (q.v.) as the seat of government, the latter Banjarmasin (q.v.). Besides a number of smaller dependencies, the Western Division contains the kingdom of Landak, Tayan, Mampawa, Sukadana, Simpang, Mutan, Sekadow, Sintang, Sambas. Among the separate states which go to form the Southern and Eastern Division are Kotaringin, Banjarmasin, and Martapura. In consequence of a decree of the sultan of Banjarmasin, the district watered by the Great Dyak or Kahayan is preserved for the native tribes, who in 1879 were estimated at 18,000 souls; Chinese, Malays, &c. are forbidden to ascend the river higher than the Kampore Pilany. The same is the case with the basins of the Kapuas Murug, known as the Little Dyak district. The population of the whole of the Dutch portion of the island on December 31, 1881, was 959,491, of whom 799 were Europeans, 31,550 Chinese, 924,731 natives, 2070 Arabs, and 341 miscellaneous orientals. In the number of natives are included from 200,000 to 300,000 Malays settled along the coast, who used formerly to be counted amongst the strangers.

(5) *The Island of Labuan* (q.v.), off the coast of Brunei, has belonged to the British since 1846.

The chief towns in Borneo are Sambas (10,000), Pontianak (9000), Banjarmasin (30,000), Brunei (20,000), and Kuching (12,000).

The Chinese had commercial dealings with Borneo as early as the 5th century, but they made no settlement for a long time after. The Malay kingdom of Borneo proper dates back to the 13th century. Another Malay settlement of later origin, Sambas, was at first dependent on Johore (q.v.) in the Malay Peninsula. Sukadana was founded by Hindu Javanese from the kingdom of Majapahit (see JAVA), and spread its influence on the whole south part of the west coast. Mampawa was a Buginese settlement, and Pontianak was founded as late as 1771 by a colony of Arabs, Malays, and Buginese. Islam began to be preached by Arabs from Palembang in the 16th century.

The Portuguese effected a settlement in 1690 at Banjarmasin; from whence they were, however, soon expelled. The Dutch succeeded in concluding a treaty of commerce with the princes of Banjarmasin. They erected a fort and factory in 1643, and a second in 1778 at Pontianak. The British made unsuccessful attempts in 1702 and 1774 to effect a settlement in Borneo, but have within the present century acquired a preponderating influence on the north-western coast. See Wallace's *Malay Archipelago* (1869); Burbidge's *Garden of the Sun* (1880); Bock's *Head Hunters of Borneo* (1881); Frank Hutton, *North Borneo* (1885); *Handbook of British North Borneo* (1886); J. J. de Hollander, *Handleiding . . . Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch Oost Indië* (1884).

Borneo Camphor is a variety of camphor produced in Sumatra and Borneo. It is obtained from the tree *Dryobalanops camphora*, and is highly prized by the Chinese, who give for it from eighty to a hundred times the price payable for ordinary camphor.

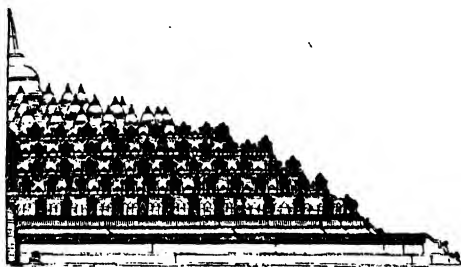
Bornholm, an island in the Baltic Sea, belonging to Denmark, about 90 miles E. of Zealand, to the S.E. of the Swedish coast. Area, 226 sq. m. It is rocky, and traversed from north to south by a high mountain-ridge (511 feet), the slope of which is in great part a waste heath, but elsewhere it is not unfertile, and agriculture and cattle husbandry are successfully prosecuted. High cliffs, sand-banks, and breakers make the coast dangerous. The most notable product of the island is porcelain-clay, with freestone, limestone, blue marble, and coal. The capital of the island is Rønne or Rottum, on the western coast, a place of 7000 inhabitants. Pop. (1880) 35,364.

Borning, or **BONING**, is a process of judging of the straightness or level of a surface or line by the eye, which looks along two or more *borning* or *boning rods* or *pieces* set up for the purpose. The term is used by masons, surveyors, and gardeners.

Bornu, or **BORNORO**, a powerful but declining state of Central Africa, somewhat larger in extent than England, bounded on the E. by Lake Tchad, and N. by the Sahara. The greater part of the country is perfectly level, and much of it is liable to be overflowed in the rainy season, which lasts from October to April. The heat from March to June is excessive, ranging from 104° to 107° F. The two principal rivers are the Shari and the Komadugu Yaobe, both of which fall into Lake Tchad. The soil is fertile, yields plentiful crops of maize, millet, and other tropical produce. Wild beasts are very numerous. Coats-of-mail are made both for horses and their riders. The population, which is estimated at about five millions, are mostly of negro race, and called Bornucse or Kauri. The ruling race, called Shuwas, are of Arab descent and bigoted Mohammedans; but many traces of fetishism remain among the masses. Whatever they have of civilisation is derived from the Arabs. The shores and islands of Lake Tchad are inhabited by negro pirates called

Yedina or *Budduma*. The slave-trade is eagerly prosecuted in Bornu. In the beginning of the 19th century, Bornu was conquered by the Fellatahs, whose yoke, however, was soon shaken off under the leadership of a fanatic fakir named Mohammed-el-Amin. Dr Nachtigal, who visited Bornu in 1870, described it as rapidly decaying. The ruins of Birni, the old capital, on the Yaobe, may still be seen. Kuka or Kukawa, the present capital, on the west shore of Lake Tchad, has a population of about 60,000. Gornu, to the south-east, is still more populous, and has one of the most important markets of Central Africa.

Boro Budor (the 'Great Buddha'), the ruin of a splendid Buddhist temple in Java, residency Kadu, near the junction of the Ello and Progo, is the most elaborate monument of the Buddhist style of architecture anywhere existing. Buddhism was early introduced into Java, and Javanese chronicles place the building of the temple in the beginning of the 7th century; there are no inscriptions, but it was probably finished between 1400 and 1430. Boro Budor is built on a low hill,



Half-elevation of one side of Temple of Boro Budor.

between four vast volcanoes, which supplied the blocks of trachyte of which the edifice is built; its height to the cupola is 118 feet. It is a pyramid of a square form, each side at the base measuring 520 feet, and consists of seven walls, which are built like the steps of a stair up a hill. Between the walls are narrow terraces running round the building; in each is an arched doorway leading to the next higher terrace. These walls are richly ornamented with statuary. Outside are over 400 niches topped with fantastic domes, and each occupied by a large statue of Buddha. Between each of these are bas-reliefs, including figures of the god seated, and architectural ornaments and carvings of all sorts. Below the niches, on the lower story, is an immense bas-relief running round the whole building, representing scenes from the life of Buddha, and religious subjects. The inner faces of the building are also profusely ornamented with bas-reliefs, representing battles, sea-fights, processions, and chariot-races, carried to an extent unrivalled by any other building in the world. Of the large reliefs alone there are over 2000; and most of them are as vigorously designed as they are carefully executed. Within the upper square terrace are three circular ones, the outer ornamented with 32, the next with 24, and the upper with 16 small bell-shaped shrines (*dagops*), each containing a seated statue of Buddha, which can be seen through the open works of their roofs. The whole is surmounted by a cupola, the principal and probably the most ancient part of the structure. It is now empty, a sunken chamber 10 feet deep representing what was, no doubt, a *dagop* intended to contain the precious relic for which this splendid temple was erected. The niches containing the cross-legged figures have been supposed to be a copy, in durable architecture, of the

cells of a Buddhist monastery, each occupied by a shaven priest; the cupola is rather to be classified with the topes or stupas of Afghanistan. The structure is thus a compound of a Tope (q.v.) with a copy, in durable architecture, of the frail cells of a Vihara (q.v.). See Leemans, *Boro-Boedoe op het eiland Java* (Leyden, 1873).

Borodino, a village of Russia, 70 miles W. of Moscow. It is situated on the Kaluga, an affluent of the Moskwa, and gave name to the great battle fought between the French army under Napoleon and the Russian under Kutusoff, 7th September 1812. The battle of Borodino was one of the most obstinately disputed in history, and the loss on both sides was almost equally great. Out of 257,000 men engaged, between 70,000 and 80,000 were killed and wounded. The Russians retreated on the following day, but in the most perfect order, and therefore claim this battle as a victory; but the honour certainly belongs to the French, who name the battle from the Moskwa.

Boroglyceride, a compound prepared by heating together 62 parts of boracic acid and 92 parts of glycerine. It is extensively used as a preservative of food, and also in antiseptic surgery, combining, as it does, the valuable properties of the above-mentioned substances.

Boron (sym. B, eq. 11) is a non-metallic element present in boracic acid and Borax (q.v.). It was discovered in 1808 by Gay-Lussac and Thenard in France, and Davy in England. In some respects boron resembles carbon, existing like it in the so-called amorphous, graphitoid, and diamond forms. In the amorphous or pure state, prepared by heating boric anhydride with sodium, it is an olive-green powder, very slightly soluble in water, and unaltered by exposure to moist air. When heated in air, it takes fire, uniting with oxygen to form boric anhydride, B_2O_3 (see BORACIC ACID). The graphitoid and diamond boron are not pure forms of the element, but contain a definite proportion of Aluminium (q.v.). The diamond boron is obtained by heating the amorphous form to a high temperature, along with aluminium, when boron is left as minute crystals interspersed through the earth alumina. These crystals possess great interest from their similarity in properties to pure crystallised carbon, or the diamond. They are remarkably transparent, are tinged yellow or red (though the colours may be accidental), and rival the ordinary diamond in their lustre and refractive power. Boron diamonds not only scratch glass, but also the corundum and the sapphire; they are, however, somewhat softer than real diamonds.

Resembling as in some degree they do the carbon diamond, it was at first hoped that as the method of manufacture became perfected, they would be obtained sufficiently large to become a serious rival to the natural carbon diamond; but as yet they have only been obtained in very small crystals, and their advent in the diamond-market is therefore problematical. They are very indestructible, even withstanding a temperature sufficient to burn the ordinary diamond.

Boron forms but one oxide, Boracic or Boric Anhydride, B_2O_3 (see BORACIC ACID), while it unites with chlorine and bromine directly to form a chloride, BCl_3 , and bromide, BBr_3 .

Borough (A.S. *byrig*, *burg*, *burh*; It. *borgo*; Fr. *bourg*; Scot. *burgh*). The original meaning of this word, by which we now designate a corporate township, seems to have been a hill, rising ground, or heap of earth; and it was probably from the elevated positions on which places of defence were erected, that it afterwards came to signify a fortification or castle, and latterly the

aggregate of houses, churches, and other structures, which, in unsettled times, usually gathered under the walls of a castle; together with their inhabitants, and the arrangements which were made for their government. The questions whether we owe our municipal corporations to Roman, or to Saxon and other Teutonic influences, or to both; and if to both, then to what extent they have severally contributed to their formation, have been keenly discussed by constitutional historians. In so far as etymology goes, its authority is pretty equally divided, the term *municipal*, from the Latin *municipalis*, and *city*, from *civitas*, favouring the Roman view; whilst *borough*, from the root above indicated, and *town*, from the Anglo-Saxon *tūn*, 'an inclosure' (cf. Ger. *zaun*, 'hedge'), support the Teutonic. But the discussion forms a branch of a very wide subject, which has divided recent writers into two opposite schools. The Teutonic side is espoused by most of the Anglo-Saxon scholars of England, and in general by German writers. But from whatever source derived, that the boroughs of England existed, not as aggregates of houses merely, but as corporate bodies, in the Saxon time, is now generally admitted. The borough system of Scotland is also of great antiquity. A *Munse*, or confederation of free burghs for mutual defence and the protection of trade, existed in Scotland, and was known by this name in the reign of David I. (1124-53), more than a century before the formation of the Hanseatic League of the continental cities; and the famous Burgh Laws date from about the same period. 'This code of Scotch burghal regulation,' in Mr Cosmo Innes's opinion, 'though collected in the reign of David, and sanctioned by him, was the result of the experience of the towns of England and Scotland'; and Mr Innes points out the close resemblance between these laws and the burghal usages of Newcastle, and even of Winchester, which seems to suggest their common Saxon origin. Mr Innes also speaks favourably of the burgh life of our ancestors, and considers the burgh domestic architecture, of which monuments remain, sufficient to show that 'the burgess of the Reformation period lived in greater decency and comfort than the laird, though without the numerous following, which no doubt gave dignity if it diminished food.'

Of the boroughs and cities of the middle ages, some were entirely free; they had, like the provincial towns of Italy before the extension of the Roman conquests, a constitution independent of any other powers. Venice, Genoa, Florence, Hamburg, and Lübeck all stood in this position. Next in dignity were the free imperial cities in Germany, which, not being comprehended in the dominions of any of the princes, were in immediate dependence on the empire. Most of these cities rose into importance in the 13th century; and their liberties and privileges were fostered by the Franconian emperors, to afford some counterpoise to the growing power of the immediate nobility. Nürnberg was especially celebrated for its stout resistance to the House of Brandenburg, and the successful war which it waged with the Franconian nobility. In England, the more important cities were immediate vassals of the crown; the smaller municipalities sometimes owned a subject superior, sometimes a greater municipality for their overlord.

Under the Anglo-Saxons, the English boroughs were subject to the rule of an elective officer, called the 'Portrevo,' who exercised in the borough functions similar to those of the shire-reve in the shire. The Norman conquerors recognised the already existing privileges of the towns by granting them charters. Instead of a shire-reve, a viscount was placed by the king over each shire, and a bailiff

instead of the former elective officer over each borough. In the larger towns, the bailiff was allowed to assume the Norman appellation of Mayor. The municipal franchise seems to have been vested in all the resident and trading inhabitants, who shared in the payment of the local taxes, and performance of local duties. Titles to freedom were also recognised on the grounds of birth, apprenticeship, marriage, and sometimes free gift.

In all the larger towns, the trading population came to be divided into guilds or trading companies, through membership of which companies admission was obtained to the franchise. Eventually the whole community was enrolled in one or other of the guilds, each of which had its property, its by-laws, and its common hall, and the community elected the chief officers. It was on the wealthier and more influential inhabitants that municipal offices were generally conferred; and the practice gradually gained ground of these functionaries perpetuating their authority without appealing to the popular suffrage. Contentions and disputes arose regarding the right of election, and eventually the crown threw the weight of its influence into the scale of self-elective ruling bodies. As the greater municipalities grew in strength, we find their right recognised to appear in parliament by means of representatives. The sheriffs were considered to have a discretionary power to determine which towns should, and which should not have this privilege of representation. The sovereigns of the House of Tudor and Stuart acquired the habit of extending the right of parliamentary representation to boroughs not in the enjoyment of it, while at the same time, by granting or renewing to them municipal charters, they modelled the constitution of these boroughs to a self-elective type, and restricted the right of voting in the choice of a representative to the governing body. During the reigns of William III., Anne, and the earlier Georges, the influence of the crown was largely employed in calling new municipal corporations into existence, with a view of creating additional parliamentary support for the ministry in power. The boroughs of Scotland had a history much like that of the boroughs of England; their earlier charters were mere recognitions of already existing rights, and were granted to the inhabitants at large.

In its modern sense, a borough (*or* burgh) is commonly understood to mean a city or other town that sends burgesses to parliament—a privilege the nature and extent of which will be explained under PARLIAMENT (q.v.). But apart from their importance as areas for the parliamentary franchise, boroughs are important units of local government in the United Kingdom. Following, as a necessary consequence, the great change in the political franchise introduced by the Reform Act of 1832, came the reconstitution of the municipal corporations—separate acts of parliament for this purpose having been passed for England, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, within the succeeding ten years.

I. In England, by the Municipal Corporations Act, 1835 (5 and 6 Will. IV. chap. 76), one definite form of government was imposed upon boroughs, and all charters inconsistent with the purpose of the act were abrogated. In 1886 there were 282 municipal boroughs in England, of which 178 were included in the Act of 1835, differing greatly both in population and rateable area. By the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, the last-mentioned act, and various amending statutes, were consolidated and amended. They are governed by corporations, called Town-councils, consisting of a mayor, aldermen, and common council of burgesses; the number of councillors varying from forty-eight to twelve. The mayor and aldermen are chosen

by the council, and the councillors are elected by ballot by the burgesses. They serve gratuitously. The qualification required for a councillor or alderman is in addition to ordinary burgess-ship, £1000 property, or £30 rating, in the larger boroughs (when divided into four or more wards), and £500 property, or £15 rating, in other cases. On the other hand, the qualification required for the municipal franchise consists, in the ordinary case, of those who are on the burgess roll, or who occupy a house or other building, and reside within seven miles of the borough boundaries, and who pay poor and borough rates. Females, though excluded from the parliamentary, are entitled to exercise the municipal franchise. The tenure of office is, in the case of the mayor, one year; in the case of the aldermen, six years; in the case of the councillors, three years. The town-clerk, the treasurer, and other officials, are appointed by the council.

Many of the larger boroughs possess a separate commission of the peace. Under the Municipal Corporations Act, the mayor and ex-mayor are *ex officio* justices of the peace, and the other borough magistrates are appointed by commission from the crown. The town-council has no magisterial functions as such. In most boroughs the magistrates are unpaid, but in some of the larger boroughs a stipendiary has been appointed by the crown on the application of the town-council, his salary being paid out of the borough funds. A borough may also obtain the right by petition to the crown to hold a separate quarter-sessions, which involves the appointment of a salaried recorder, coroner, and clerk of the peace. This gives freedom from control of county justices, and from payment of county rate.

As regards the administrative functions of the corporation, the principal are to provide for the watching (by means of a force of borough constables) and the lighting of the borough, as prescribed by the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882; and to enforce the sanitary laws under the Public Health Acts, 1873 and 1875. In its capacity as sanitary authority, the town-council has power to regulate sewerage, burial-grounds, water and gas supply, common lodging-houses, baths, and other sanitary matters. The execution of the Elementary Education Acts has also been intrusted to the borough councils in certain cases where there is no school board; and by recent legislation, certain other functions have been assigned to them, such as the regulation of weights and measures, and the establishment of free libraries.

Expenses of Administration.—The expenses incurred by the council in the exercise of their functions are ordinarily defrayed out of the *Borough Fund*, supplemented where necessary by a *Borough Rate*. The borough fund was expressly defined by the Municipal Corporations Act, 1835, which declared that the rents and profits of all hereditaments, and the interest, dividends, and annual proceeds of all moneys, dues, chattels, and valuable securities belonging or payable to any body corporate named in conjunction with a borough in the schedules, or to any member or officer thereof in his corporate capacity, and every fine and penalty for every offence against this act (the application of which has not been already provided for), shall be paid to the treasurer of such borough; and all the moneys which he shall so receive shall be carried by him to the account of a fund to be called 'the Borough Fund;' and such fund, subject to certain payments and deductions, shall be applied towards the payment of the salary of the mayor, and of the recorder, police magistrate, town-clerk, treasurer, and other officers. (See 45 and 46 Vict. chap. 50, sects. 138-

144.) In a few favoured boroughs the borough fund is large enough to meet the whole costs of administration and to leave a surplus, which must be applied, not as of old in private bounties, but for the benefit of the inhabitants and improvement of the town. The borough rate, on the other hand, which has to be levied to a greater or less extent in most boroughs, is similar to the county rate. Authorised by the Municipal Corporations Act to be levied in all cases where there is a deficiency of borough fund, it is intended to meet the maintenance of the police force, borough jail, public baths and wash-houses, public libraries, parks and cemeteries, and lunatic asylums, together with 'general expenses.' These 'general expenses' include the expense of paving, lighting, sewerage, and all appropriate town improvements. The school rate is also included in the borough rate. Where parties consider themselves aggrieved by a borough rate, they may appeal to the recorder at the next quarter-sessions for the borough; or, if there be no recorder, to the next county quarter-sessions.

Besides boroughs proper under the Municipal Corporations Act, there are other organisations of a burghal character with administrative boards possessing many of the powers of town-councils. Such are the 'Local Government Districts,' of which there are a very large number, constituted under the Public Health and Local Government Acts, and the 'Improvement Act Districts,' constituted under various local acts. There are also certain semi-urban districts, constituted under the Lighting and Watching Act, 1833.

The position of the City of London among the urban communities of England is in nearly all respects unique, and will be explained under the article LONDON.

II. In Ireland, the term *Borough* is not much used as a designation for cities and towns, either in their parliamentary or municipal character. The history of burghal life in Ireland prior to this century, shows an absence of that free and vigorous life which was to be found in the sister-kingdoms. This is in large measure to be ascribed to the pernicious system of excluding Roman Catholics from municipal liberties and offices, and admitting non-resident freemen to take part in elections.

The Irish towns are partly corporate, partly governed by commissioners. The corporate towns, or boroughs proper, are regulated by the Irish Municipal Reform Act, 1840 (3 and 4 Vict. chap. 108). There are eleven such boroughs governed by a mayor, aldermen, and councillors. The number of members in a council varies from sixty in Dublin to twenty-one in Wexford. The aldermen and councillors are elected for three years. The qualification for a burgess elector is a house of £10 yearly value, residence within the borough, or occupancy for a defined period, and payment of rates. Councillors, on the other hand, must be qualified as electors, and must also be owners of a certain amount of real or personal property, or occupiers of a house of a certain value, the amount depending upon the size of the borough.

The municipal council administer the ordinary affairs of the borough, such as lighting, watching, cleansing, and all sanitary business; and they have power to levy rates for these purposes. In one or two boroughs the fiscal powers of the grand jury have been transferred to the town-council.

Besides the incorporated boroughs, there are a large number of towns in Ireland with an organisation and administrative functions similar to those of the incorporated boroughs. These towns have been constituted mainly under the Lighting and Cleaning Act of 1828 (9 Geo. IV. chap. 82), and the Towns Improvement Act of

1854 (17 and 18 Vict. chap. 103). One unincorporated municipality—viz. Carrickfergus—has been constituted under the above-mentioned Act of 1840. The governing body in these cases is composed of elected commissioners, whose numbers vary from twenty-one to nine. There are certain qualifications (occupation of premises of a certain value) required for electors and commissioners respectively. The commissioners have, as a rule, powers to carry out all ordinary municipal purposes, and can levy rates.

III. In Scotland, the word *burgh* corresponds to the English *borough*. There were originally three distinctive classes of burghs—viz. *burghs of barony*, *burghs of regality*, and *royal burghs*. The effect of the Reform Act, 1832, was to bring into existence a new class—what are called *parliamentary burghs*—i.e. towns or burghs not being royal burghs, but sending or contributing to send representatives to parliament, under the Act 2 and 3 Will. IV. chap. 65. Besides these, the necessities of modern urban life have created yet another class; for, by the General Police Act for Scotland, the word *burgh* was declared to mean also any 'populous place,' the boundaries of which are fixed by the act.

(1) **BURGHs OF BARONY** are corporations consisting of the inhabitants of determinate tracts of ground within the *Barony*, and municipally governed by magistrates and a council (or sometimes by magistrates alone), whose election is either dependent on the baron superior of the district, or vested in the inhabitants themselves. Sometimes their charter of incorporation gave them power to create subordinate corporations and crafts, as in royal burghs; but all exclusive privileges of trading in burghs are abolished by the 9 and 10 Vict. chap. 17. The magistrates (along with the council when there is one) have power to administer their corporate property (*common good*, as it is called), to elect their burgh-officers, and to make bye laws. They may be (where the inhabitants so resolve) the local authority for executing the provisions of various statutes affecting urban interests—as, for instance, matters of police under the General Police Acts, 1850 and 1862; and sanitary matters under the Public Health Act, 1867. But where separate police commissioners have been elected for burghs of barony, separate from the burgh council, the administrative functions of the latter become merged in those of the former. A proportion of the land-tax is payable by burghs of barony.

(2) **BURGHs OF REGALITY** were burghs of barony, spiritual or temporal, enfranchised by crown charter, with regal or exclusive criminal jurisdiction within their own territories, and thence called *Regalities*. Some of these burghs of regality, especially those which were dependent on the greater bishops and abbots, were of high antiquity, and possessed jurisdiction and privilege of trade only distinguishable from those of royal burghs by being more circumscribed in their limits. Since the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions, by the Act 20 Geo. II. chap. 43, the distinction between burghs of regality and burghs of barony has ceased to be of any practical importance.

(3) **ROYAL BURGHs.**—A Royal burgh is a corporate body deriving its existence, constitution, and rights from a royal charter—such charter being either actual and express; or presumed to have existed, and by the accident of war and time to have perished. By a Scotch act passed in 1469, a constitution was given to royal burghs, by which the right of appointing their successors belonged to the old councils, the act also containing the singular provision, that when the new council was chosen, the members of it, *along with those of the old council*, should choose all the office-bearers of the

burgh, each craft or trade corporation being represented at the election by one of themselves. But this simple plan was not universally adopted, and the election gradually lost its former free and popular form—a close and exclusive proceeding being ultimately established in its place. This 'close system,' as it has been called, notwithstanding its repugnancy to the spirit of the times and modern ideas of public administration, continued in force until the year 1833, when an act of parliament was passed, the 3 and 4 Will. IV. chap. 76 (amended by the 4 and 5 Will. IV. chap. 87, and the 16 Vict. chap. 26), by which it was abolished, and an entirely new constitution given to royal burghs, with the exception of nine of them, which, on account of the smallness of their population, were left unchanged till the passing of the Municipal Elections Amendment Act (Scotland) in 1868.

At the 'union of England and Scotland there were seventy royal burghs, all of them except four (viz. Auchtermuchty, Earlsferry, Falkland, and Newburgh) returning members to the Scottish parliament. Two royal burghs (Rothesay and Peebles) were deprived of the burgh parliamentary franchise in 1832, and nine (Stranraer, New Galloway, Whithorn, Wigtown, North Berwick, Haddington, Dunbar, Jedburgh, and Lauder) in 1885. One town—viz. Coatbridge—was created a municipal burgh with the municipal privileges of royal burghs by special act of parliament in 1885.

Under the Municipal Acts of 1833 and 1868 the following organisation has been provided for royal burghs. They are governed by corporations composed of magistrates and councillors elected by the citizens. The number of members of a town-council varies from fifty in Glasgow to six in Ohan. The electors consist of the persons qualified to vote for a member of parliament under the Reform Acts of 1832 and 1868, and the persons possessing the qualifications which would be sufficient for the parliamentary franchise under the said Reform Acts in respect of premises situated within the municipal boundaries, when such boundaries extend beyond the parliamentary. The councillors are chosen from among the electors residing, or personally carrying on business, within the royalty; and formerly, where there was a body of burgesses in the burgh, each councillor, before his induction, required to be entered a burgess, but by an act passed in 1876, the right of burgess-ship is now practically extended to all resident ratepayers. By 44 and 45 Vict. chap. 13, sect. 2, women who are unmarried, and married women living separate from their husbands, were admitted to the municipal franchise, but they cannot be elected town-councillors. The electors of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Dundee, Perth, and several other of the larger burghs, are divided into wards. At the election immediately succeeding the passing of the act, each ward elected six councillors; but as every year the third part of the council goes out of office in the order prescribed by the act, two councillors are now annually chosen by each ward, there being no bar, however, to the re-election of an outgoing councillor. It is now competent for burghs with a population above 5000 to be divided into wards for the purpose of municipal as well as parliamentary elections by resolution of a majority of two-thirds of the council to that effect. The electors in other burghs choose the whole council exactly as these wards do their proportion of it, and consequently elect each year a third part in place of that which has retired. Upon the third lawful day after the election succeeding the passing of the act, the councillors meet and choose, by a plurality of voices, a provost, bailies, treasurer, and other office-bearers, as existing in the council by the 'sett' or usage of the burgh. Vacancies taking place

during the year by death or resignation are supplied, *ad interim*, by the remaining members of the council, and the persons so elected by the councillors retire at the succeeding election. The rights of the guildry, trades, &c., to elect their own dean of guild, &c., are still preserved; but these officers are now no longer recognised as constituent members of the council, their functions being performed by a member of the council, elected by a majority of the councillors. In Aberdeen, Dundee, and Perth, however, the dean of guild, and in Edinburgh and Glasgow, the convener of trades and the dean of guild are, *ex officio*, members of council; and the electors in all the above-named burghs choose such a number of councillors as, together with these officers, makes up the proper number. No magistrate or councillor can be town-clerk. The magistrates and council possess the same powers of administration and jurisdiction as were enjoyed by the magistrates and town-council before the passing of the act; and none of them is responsible for the debts of the burgh, or the acts of his predecessors, otherwise than as a citizen or burghess. The existing council in all burghs royal must every year make up, on or before the 15th of October, a state of their affairs, to be kept in the town-clerk's or treasurer's office.

From an early period in Scottish history the royal burghs have been in use to consult together and take common action in matters concerning their welfare. Evidence of this is found so far back as the middle of the 12th century, when the court of the four burghs (Edinburgh, Berwick, Stirling, and Roxburgh) met under the presidency of the High Chamberlain of Scotland. This court was superseded in the 15th century by the meeting of representatives of all the royal burghs. This was called the *Convention of Royal Burghs*, and according to the Scottish Act, 1487, chap. 3, which organised it, the duties of the convention were to deal with 'the welfare of merchandise, the good rule and statutes for the common profit of burrows, and to provide for remedie upon the skaith and injuries sustained within the burrows.' The convention still meets annually in Edinburgh, and though shorn of much of its previous influence, it still shows a considerable amount of vitality, particularly in furthering legislative measures which may be useful to trade. The convention is recognised as a corporation. The proportion of the land-tax payable by royal burghs is also adjusted by the convention. By an act passed in 1879, parliamentary burghs (see below) are enabled to send representatives to the convention.

(4) **PARLIAMENTARY BURGHS.**—For municipal purposes these burghs stand practically in the same position as royal burghs, being regulated by the Municipal Reform Acts of 1833 and 1868. Among parliamentary burghs are Paisley, Greenock, Leith, Kilmarnock, Falkirk, Hamilton, Peterhead, &c. The boundaries of parliamentary burghs, being fixed for the first time by the Reform Act of 1832, were adopted for municipal purposes. A number of parliamentary burghs were previously burghs of barony and regality, their character as the latter being generally merged in the former.

(5) **POLICE BURGHS.**—Prior to 1833 it was necessary for towns desiring to make provision for police and sanitary matters to obtain special acts of parliament for the purpose. In this year the first General Police Act was passed, laying down certain general provisions for watching, lighting, and cleansing, which might be adopted by a royal, regality, or barony burgh. Another general act was passed in 1850, and the existing General Police Act in 1862 (25 and 26 Viet. chap. 101), which supersedes the earlier ones. In this last-

named act 'burgh' is defined to mean all burghs and populous places whose boundaries have been fixed; and it is provided that the sheriff may fix the boundaries and so constitute a burgh in this sense, for purposes of improvement and police, at the instance of seven or more householders.

The local authority in police burghs is the police commissioners. Their number varies from twelve to six, and in the case of towns divided into wards the number must be so arranged that each ward be represented by three members. The commissioners are elected by occupiers of premises (including females who are unmarried or living separate from their husbands) of £4 value who have paid rates. The same qualification is required for a commissioner as for an elector, but a female cannot be elected. The commissioners hold office for three years, retiring annually by thirds, or as nearly as may be. They choose magistrates, one senior or chief, and two junior magistrates. The principal administrative functions of the commissioners are watching, paving, cleansing, lighting, and improving the burgh. The expenses are defrayed by a rate called 'Police Assessment,' levied upon occupiers of lands within the burgh.

By the local government measure of 1888 it was first proposed to introduce into counties a system of administration largely resembling that heretofore in use in boroughs (see COUNTY, LOCAL GOVERNMENT).

BURGH ACRES are acres or small patches of land lying in the neighbourhood of *Royal Burghs*, usually fenced or leased out to burghesses or persons resident within the burgh.

BURGH LAWS (*Leges Burgorum*), in Scottish legal history, was the name given to a collection of ancient laws relative to burghs. The authenticity of these burgh laws is beyond question; they are universally allowed to have been enacted in the reign of King David I. in the 12th century. See REGIAM MAJESTATEM.

In the United States of America and in the British colonies, cities and towns have grown up and have been organised in accordance with (speaking generally) the most enlightened ideas of modern civic life. According to the opinion of American constitutional lawyers, the city or borough organisation is regarded as a grant from the state for the purpose of carrying out minor matters of civil government in urban communities. It has attached to it the general powers inherent in all corporate bodies, with powers to make bye-laws consistent with the objects of the incorporation.

See the articles **BURGESS**, **CITY**, **MAYOR**, **MUNICIPALITY**, **PROVOST**, **TOWN-COUNCIL**. For full information regarding boroughs in the United Kingdom generally, see Gneist, *Self-government* (3d ed. 1871), and other works by Gneist; *Golden Club Essays on Local Government and Taxation*, edited by J. W. Probyn (Lond. 1875 and 1882); and regarding Scotch burghs, see Goudy & Smith's *Local Government* (Edin. 1881), and Marwick on *Municipal Elections*. For information regarding the history of boroughs, see Maine's *Early Institutions*, and Stubbs' *Constitutional History*.

Boroughbridge, a small market-town of Yorkshire, on the Ure, 2½ miles NW. of York. Edward II., in 1322, defeated the Earl of Lancaster here. Hard by are three great monoliths, called the 'Devil's Arrows,' 16 to 22 feet high. Pop. 906.

Borough English is a custom that prevails in some ancient boroughs in England, according to which the youngest son inherits the heritable property within borough in preference to his elder brothers. The origin of this custom has not been satisfactorily determined. One reason assigned for it is, that the youngest son, on account of his tender age, is not so capable as his elder brothers

to maintain himself. Another explanation is that it was the result of the so-called *jus prima noctis*—a barbarous feudal custom by which a feudal overlord is said to have obtained the right of concubinage with the wife of his vassal on the night of her wedding; but the existence of this custom is more than doubtful. Maine suggested that it was derived from the *Patria Potestas* (q.v.); and Elton that it is a survival from pre-Celtic, pre-Aryan usages. A posthumous son is entitled to this privilege, and dispossesses his elder brother. The right of representation also exists with reference to it, for should the youngest son die in his father's lifetime leaving a daughter, she will inherit the property. This custom obtains in parts of Kent, Surrey, Sussex, Middlesex, Somerset, and more rarely elsewhere. See GAVELKIND, INHERITANCE, PRIMOGENITURE; and Elton's *Origins of English History* (1882).

Borovitchi, a town of Russia, on the river Msta, 98 miles E. of Novgorod. Pop. (1882) 10,375.

Borovsk, a town of Russia, 49 miles NNE. of Kaluga. In its vicinity is a convent, founded in 1477, and formerly one of the richest in the empire. Pop. (1884) 9505.

Borromean Islands, a group of four small islands on the west side of Lago Maggiore, Northern Italy. They are situated in the western arm of the lake, and are named after the ancient family of Borromeo. Vitaliano, Count Borromeo, about 1671, caused soil to be carried to them, built terraces, and converted them into beautiful gardens. The two most celebrated are *Isola Bella* and *Isola Madre*. On the west side of *Isola Bella*, which rises above the water in ten successive terraces, stands a palace of the Borromeo family, containing many admirable paintings and other works of art. *Isola Madre* is laid out in the same terraced style, and is crowned by a now dilapidated palace. The *Isola de' Pescatori* is inhabited by about 200 fishermen. Jean Paul Richter has described the place in his *Titan*.

Borromeo, CARLO, SR, a great churchman and saint of the 16th century, was born 2d October 1538, at his father's castle of Arona, on the Lago Maggiore. He studied law at Pavia, took the degree of doctor in 1559, and next year was appointed in quick succession by his uncle, the new Pope Pius IV. (formerly Cardinal de' Medici), apostolic protonotary, cardinal, and Archbishop of Milan. As a counsellor of the pope the young cardinal showed wisdom beyond his years, did much to bring the Council of Trent to a successful conclusion, and had the principal part in drawing up the famous *Catechismus Romanus*. The saintly simplicity of his manners, his ardent piety, and his self-forgetful devotion to duty, united to make him the ideal bishop, and have kept his memory green until the present day. But his own severe morality and his determined efforts to maintain ecclesiastical discipline drew upon him the hostility of the monastic orders, and in 1560 a wretch of the order of the Umiliati actually shot at the archbishop as he knelt at prayer in his chapel. Borromeo devoted the greater part of his revenues to the relief of the poor, and during the famine of 1570, and the plague at Milan in 1576, showed such energetic benevolence and fearless devotion as to make his name a proverb throughout Christendom. With a view to provide well-qualified priests for Switzerland, he founded in 1570 the Helvetic College at Milan; and he brought about an alliance of the seven Catholic cantons—the *Golden Borromean League*—for the united defence of the faith. Exhausted by his labours and his austerities, he died 4th November 1584. He was canonised by Pope Paul V. in 1610. His theological works

were published at Milan in 1747, in 5 vols. folio. On the western bank of the Lago Maggiore, in the neighbourhood of his birthplace, is a colossal bronze statue of him. His Life has been written by Sailer, Dieringer, Sala, Abbé Sylvain (1884), and Ginssano (Eng. trans. with preface by Cardinal Manning, 1884).—His brother's son, Count Frederico Borromeo, born 1562, was also a cardinal, and from 1595 to 1631 Archbishop of Milan, where he founded the Ambrosian Library.

Borrow, GEORGE HENRY, was born at East Dereham, Norfolk, 17th July 1803. His father, a captain of militia, during the war moved about with his regiment to Scotland, Ireland, and many parts of England, then settled at Norwich, where young Borrow attended the grammar-school (1815–18), and for the next five years was articled to a firm of solicitors. Already he deserved his Gypsy title *Lavengro* ('word-master'), having picked up a knowledge of Irish, French, German and Danish (these two under 'Taylor of Norwich'), Welsh, Latin, Greek, even of Romany, the language of that strange Gypsy race of which he was almost an adopted member. On his father's death in 1823 he came up to London to seek his fortune, and fared ill as hack-writer to Sir Richard Phillips the publisher. Anon he wandered Gypsy-wise through England, and, on his wanderings, was all but poisoned by a Romany beldame, fought and vanquished the Flaming Timman, with Isopel Berners tented in Mumper's Dingle, and met with other moving accidents (are they not chronicled in his own book, *Lavengro*?). Next—and here facts and dates are again realities, without any suspicion of fancy—as agent of the Bible Society he visited St Petersburg (1833), and Portugal, Spain, Morocco (1835–39). In 1840 he married a well-to-do widow, and settled down on a small estate of hers at Oulton, near Lowestoft, where, after travels in South-eastern Europe (1844), a tour in Wales (1854), and a residence of some years in London, he ended his days, 30th July 1881. The chief of his fourteen published works are: *The Zineali, or Gypsies of Spain* (1840); *The Bible in Spain* (1843); *Lavengro* (1851); its sequel *The Romany Rye* (1857); *Wild Wales* (1862); and *Romano Laro-Lil, or Word-book of the English-Gypsy Language* (1874)—six works, of which the first three increased, as the last three fell off, in vigour and interest. All but the first and last are autobiographical; and even the *Zineali* and *Laro-Lil* are full of the author's strong individuality. He has been likened to Cervantes, Defoe, Lesage; 'a Lesage in water-colours' is how he described himself. In truth, all three were in some ways his literary progenitors; none the less he is always original, always George Borrow, with his love of horseflesh, boxing, strong ale, and open-air life, his hatred of gentility, priestcraft, cant of any kind. His rare mastery of good strong English, his rarer power of depicting mankind and nature, are often marred by studied mannerisms, transparent mystifications, unreasoning crotchets, Manfred-like postings. Not that here lay his chief offending. He was too English for the squeamish age that preceded the gospel of 'Muscular Christianity'; and no writer so well worth reading is even nowadays so little read. In Mr Theodore Watts' 'Reminiscences of George Borrow' (*Athenaeum*, September 3, 10, 1881) we get a splendid picture of the man—his mighty figure, frank and childlike gaze, his fine East Anglian accent, his love of nature and love of adventure, his reverence and unswerving belief in God's beneficence, his talk—fresh, racy, whimsical—of all the wondrous things he had seen and heard in his wondrous life. 'No man's writing can take you into the country as Borrow's can: it makes you feel the sunshine, see the meadows, smell the flowers, hear

the skylark sing and the grasshopper chirp. Who else can do it? 'I know of none.'

Borrowdale, a beautiful valley of West Cumberland, 5 miles S. of Keswick, ascending from the head of Derwentwater towards the Honister Pass. Here is the Bowder Stone, 89 feet in circumference, and 1971 tons in weight. The famous plumbago mine at Seathwaite in Borrowdale, which long yielded enormous profits, was closed in 1850. See BLACK LEAD.

Borrowing. See LOAN, INTEREST, USURY.

Borrowing Days, the last three days of March (old style), supposed in Scotch folklore to have been borrowed by March from April, and to be especially stormy. In Cheshire, the first eleven days of May are called 'borrowed days,' because in old style they belong to April. See Brand's *Popular Antiquities* (Ellis's ed. vol. i.).

Borrowstounness. See BO'NESS.

Borsad, a town in the northern division of the province of Bombay, 24 miles NE. of the port of Cambay. Pop. (1881) 12,228.

Borsippa. See BABEL.

Bort, diamond dust. See DIAMOND.

Borthwick Castle, a splendid ruined peel-tower, 13½ miles SSE. of Edinburgh. Founded in 1430, it is 110 feet high, and measures 74 by 69 feet, but has a long recess on the west side which gives it the shape of a Greek H. In June 1567 Queen Mary and Bothwell spent four days here. The historian Robertson was born at the manse hard by. Crichton Castle, whose beautiful courtyard is finely described in *Marmion*, stands 1½ miles to the east.

Bory de Saint Vincent, JEAN BAPTISTE, a French traveller and naturalist, was born at Agen in 1780. In 1798 he explored Bourbon and other islands. He served in the army at Ulm and Austerlitz, on Soult's staff in Spain, and as a colonel at Waterloo; in 1816 he had to retire to Belgium. He returned to France in 1820, wrote for Liberal journals, and for Comtin's *Encyclopédie*, &c. In 1829 he headed a scientific expedition to the Morea, and in 1839 to Algeria. He died 22d December 1846. His most important productions were: *Essai sur les Iles Fortunées* (1803); *Voyage dans les Iles d'Afrique* (1804); *Voyage Souterrain* (an account of the Maestricht chalk-quarries, 1823); *L'Homme, Essai Zoologique sur le Genre Humain* (1827); *Résumé de la Géographie de la Péninsule* (1838).

Bos. See BOVIDÆ, and CATTLE.

Bosa, a cathedral city on the west coast of Sardinia, 85 miles NNW. of Cagliari. Pop. (1881) 6696.

Boscan-Almogaver, JUAN, a Spanish poet, born about 1495 at Barcelona, of an ancient noble family, came to Granada to the court of Charles V. in 1519. The education of the celebrated Duke of Alba was afterwards intrusted to him. He died in 1542. He was the first to make use of Italian measures in Spanish verse, and thus became the creator of the Spanish sonnet. His poems, which are still esteemed, were first published in 1543; the best edition appeared at Madrid in 1875.

Boscawen, EDWARD, an eminent English admiral, third son of Viscount Fulmouth, was born 19th August 1711, and highly distinguished himself at the taking of Puerto Bello, and at the siege of Carthagena in 1741. Successively in command of the *Prince Frederick* and the *Dreadnought*, in the latter in April 1744 he captured the French ship *Medée*, with 800 prisoners. He had an important share in the victory off Cape Finisterre (3d May

1747), where he was wounded in the shoulder; and six months after receiving the command of the East Indian expedition, he displayed high military skill in conducting the retreat from Pondicherry. He returned in 1750, and in the following year became a lord of the Admiralty. In 1755 he was again afloat, and intercepted the French fleet off Newfoundland, capturing two 64-gun ships and 1500 men. In 1757 he was appointed second in command of the main fleet under Hawke, and in 1758, now admiral of the blue, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the successful expedition against Cape Breton. Boscawen crowned his career by his signal victory over the French Toulon fleet in the Bay of Lagos, 18th August 1759. On his return home, he received the thanks of parliament, a pension of £3000 a year, a seat in the Privy-council, and the command of the marines. In the following summer he commanded the fleet in the Bay of Quiberon. He died 10th January 1761. Boscawen was notable for his ready and decisive courage; amongst the sailors he was known as 'Old Dreadnought.'

Boscobel, on the eastern verge of the county of Shropshire, 7 miles E. of Shifnal, and 37 N. of Worcester, was, after the defeat of Worcester (3d September 1651), for two days the hiding-place of Charles II. The 'Royal Oak' in which, with Major Careless, he concealed himself for more than twenty-four hours, is represented by a tree grown from one of its acorns; but Boscobel House, then occupied by the Penderel family, still stands, a half-timbered dwelling. See the *Boscobel Tracts* (1660-81; best ed. by J. Hughes, 1857), by Thomas Blount.

Bosco Reale, a village of South Italy, at the south base of Mount Vesuvius, 10 miles ESE. of Naples. Pop. (1881) 5190.

Boscovich, ROGER JOSEPH, a celebrated mathematician and astronomer, was born at Ragusa in 1711, and at an early age entered the order of the Jesuits. Before the completion of his course of studies in Rome, he was appointed teacher of Mathematics and Philosophy in the *Collegium Romanum* there; his reputation had been previously established by a solution of the problem to find the sun's equator and fix the time of his rotation by observing the spots. The pope gave him a commission to measure a degree of the meridian in the States of the Church. He was sent to London in 1760 in defence of the interests of Ragusa. In 1764 he was appointed to a professorship in Pavia, and subsequently at Milan. After the dissolution of his order in 1773, he went to Paris, received a pension from the king, and was appointed director of optics to the navy. Boscovich afterwards returned to Milan, but fell into a depression of spirits, which at last grew into complete insanity. He died in 1787. His works include dissertations on a great variety of important questions in mathematical and physical science, and were published collectively under the title *Opera Pertinentia ad Opticam et Astronomiam* (5 vols. 1785). His name is connected with a molecular theory of physics, first published in his *Theoria Philosophiæ Naturalis* (Vienna, 1758). He was also a poet, and his Latin poem, *De Solis ac Lunæ Defectibus* (1764), was dedicated to the London Royal Society, of which he had been elected a member.

Bosio, FRANCOIS JOSEPH, BARON, an eminent sculptor, born March 19, 1769, at Monaco; studied first at Paris, next in Italy, and first became famous by the figures which, at the request of Napoleon, he executed for the column in the Place Vendôme, Louis XVIII. and Charles X. also patronised Bosio,

the former made him royal sculptor, the latter, a baron. He died director of the Academy of Fine Arts in Paris, July 29, 1845.

Bosjesman. See BUSHMEN.

Bosna-Serai, or SERAIEVO, capital of the province of Bosnia, occupied by Austria since 1878, is beautifully situated in the midst of gardens on both sides of the Miljatzka, an affluent of the Bosna, about 122 miles SW. of Belgrade. The town is the seat of a Catholic archbishop and of a Greek metropolitan. Almost the sole occupation is the manufacture of articles of copper and iron, of which there are valuable mines close by. It has a palace (*Serai*) built by Mohammed II., and an old castle on a height. Since the Austrian occupation, a better class of buildings have sprung up, including *gymnasias* and schools of military instruction, and the appearance of the town has been considerably improved. Since 1882 it has been connected by railway to Brod (167 miles) with the Austrian markets, and its commercial activity has consequently increased. Pop. (1885) 26,268, about two-thirds of whom are Mohammedans.

Bosnia and Herzegovina. In accordance with the provisions of the Berlin Treaty of 1878 this portion of Turkey in Europe was handed over to the administration of Austria-Hungary, who already possessed the adjoining province of Dalmatia, a long slip of coast divided from Bosnia and Herzegovina by the Dinaric Alps. Although not formally incorporated by treaty, these provinces, together with the sanjak of Novi-Bazar (between Montenegro and Serbia), form virtually a portion of the empire-monarchy, and enjoy the advantages of a settled government. Their joint area is nearly half that of England.

Their physical features are in striking contrast. Bosnia, the most beautiful of the Balkan provinces, reminds one of Styria or the Tyrol in its rugged mountainous character, its dense, almost virgin, forests, and in the picturesqueness of its valleys. The Dinaric Alps, here attaining a maximum altitude of 7663 feet, form the water parting between the Adriatic and Danube basins; and four rivers—the Unna, the Verbas, the Bosna (from which the province takes its name), and the Drina—flow northwards to their confluence with the Save. The Herzegovina, on the other hand, is a wild district, overstrewn with cyclopean rocks, and watered chiefly by the streams which form in winter in the higher lands, and, save in a few depressions, eventually lose themselves underground.

Unlike Slavonia and Hungary, Bosnia offers no advantages for the growth of cereals; but, as in Switzerland and the Tyrol, flocks and herds may be reared with profit. The commerce of Bosnia is almost exclusively in the hands of the Jews, the majority of whom reside in Serajevo or Bosna-Serai, the capital. With the exception of the Jews, Tsigans (Gypsies), and some Osmanli—functionaries, soldiers, and merchants—who live in the larger towns of Bosnia, all the inhabitants of the Illyrian Alps are Slavs, and in Herzegovina their characteristics are most strongly marked. The Bosnians themselves, though united by race, are divided by religion, Mussulman against Christian, Greek-Orthodox against Roman Catholic. Hence, in spite of every natural advantage, they were, unlike their Serbian brethren, unable to emancipate themselves from the Turkish yoke. Although they form little over a third of the population, the Mussulmans possess more than their share of landed property.

The superficial area in square miles of Bosnia is about 16,142; of Herzegovina, 3515; and of Novi-Bazar, 3522. According to the census of 1885

the population of the former two was 1,336,091, composed as follows: Mohammedans, 492,710; Greek-Orthodox, 571,250; Roman Catholics (with three bishoprics), 265,788; Jews, 5805; the remainder belonging to different faiths. Novi-Bazar had in 1879 a population of 168,000.

History.—Bosnia, in ancient times a part successively of Illyria, Pannonia, and Dalmatia, was during the great migrations occupied by Slavs or Slavonised Illyrians, at first dependent on Hungary; but it became a kingdom in 1376, under Tivartko, a native prince. Occupied by the Turks in 1401, it was annexed in 1463, but not recognised by Europe as a Turkish province till 1699. Extortionate taxation caused a rebellion of the Christians in 1849, suppressed by Omar Pasha; but a more determined rising in 1875, which the Turks failed to put down, led to the occupation of the province by the Austro-Hungarians, which the Moslem population opposed in a fierce but unavailing struggle. The treaty of Berlin formally intrusted the administration to Austria-Hungary, the nominal supremacy of the sultan being recognised in 1879. Since 1880 Austrian methods of government have been gradually introduced. See A. Evans, *Through Bosnia and Herzegovina on Foot* (1876); Strauss, *Bosnien* (2 vols. Vienna, 1882-84); and *Statistik von Bosnien und der Herzegovina* (Bosna-S. 1886).

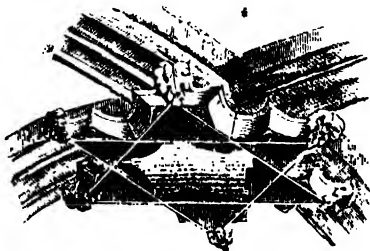
Bosporus (also BOSPHORUS, Latinised forms of a Greek word meaning 'ox-ford'), the ancient name of the channel which separates Europe from Asia, and connects the Black Sea (*Euxine*) with the Sea of Marmora (*Propontis*). It was so called, according to the legend, from Io, who swam across in the form of a cow. Afterwards, as the same name was bestowed upon other straits, this was designated the *Thracian Bosporus*. Both its south and north entrances have light-houses on either side. Its shores are elevated, and throughout its length the strait has on either side seven bays or gulfs, with corresponding promontories on the opposite side. One of these gulfs forms the harbour of Constantinople, or, as it is often called, the Golden Horn. Across the Golden Horn is Pera, and opposite the imperial city, on the other side of the Bosporus, is Scutari. The length of the Bosporus is about 17 miles, with a breadth of from little more than a third of a mile to two miles, and its average depth is about 30 fathoms. Both sides look highly picturesque from the deck of the steamers plying up and down the straits, being richly dotted with cypresses, laurels, and ancient plane-trees, and covered with palaces, kiosks, villages, villas, and gardens. At the middle of this strait, where it is about 2800 feet in breadth, Darinus made his bridge of boats when he marched against the Scythians. The Bosporus has long been under Turkish control, and repeated European conferences, including that of Berlin in 1878, have confirmed the stipulation of the treaty made in 1841, that no ship of war belonging to any nation but Turkey shall pass through it without the consent of the Ottoman authorities. For map, see CONSTANTINOPLE.

The name of CIMMERIAN BOSPORUS was given by the ancients to the Strait of Kaffa (q.v.), also called the Strait of Yenikalé or of Theodosia. The country on both sides of the Cimmerian Bosporus formed, about 500 B.C., a kingdom which grew till it embraced the whole Crimea, and of which the capital was *Panticapæum*. Many of its kings were in close alliance with the Athenians, but it at length became tributary to the Scythians.

Bosquet, PIERRE FRANÇOIS JOSEPH, French marshal, born 8th November 1810, at Mont de Marsan, in Landes; entered in 1834 the Algerian army, and reached the rank of general of brigade

in 1848. In the Crimean war, he contributed greatly to the victories of Alma and Inkermann, and took a leading part in the capture of the Malakoff, where he was severely wounded. Made senator and field-marshal in 1856, he died 5th February 1861.

Boss, in Architecture, a raised ornament, covering the intersections of the ribs of ceilings. They



Boss.—From Notre-dame la Riche, Tours.

are more frequently seen in vaulted roofs, as in the aisles of a church, but occur also where the ceiling is flat. In early Norman work there are generally no bosses, and they become richer and more frequent as we advance towards the Decorated and Perpendicular styles. In the Decorated style the boss usually consists of foliage, sometimes combined with animals, heads, and the like. Coats-of-arms, charged with armorial bearings, came then also to be used for this purpose, though they were more frequent in the Perpendicular. —The boss of a bit is the ornament with which a bridle-bit terminates at each end. It was borne in the arms of the corporation of Lorimers. See LORIMER.

Boss, a modified form of the Dutch *buis*, 'master,' is used in the United States for an employer of labour, or a local political chief; and in Britain is a slang word, or is employed humorously. To 'boss' is to play the master.

Bossuet, JACQUES BENIGNE, who ranks with Massillon as the greatest of French pulpit orators, was born at Dijon on the 27th September 1627. His family belonged to the middle class. He was educated in the Jesuits' School in Dijon, and at the Collège de Navarre in Paris. He received a canonic at Metz in 1652, and soon afterwards earned distinction as a controversialist by a reply to a work of the Protestant divine, Paul Ferri. In 1661 he preached for the first time in the chapel of the Louvre before Louis XIV., who was so impressed by the discourse, that he wrote to Bossuet's father congratulating him upon having such a son. Bossuet remained at Paris until 1669. His reputation as an orator spread over France, and he became the recognised chief of the devout party at court. After holding for a short time the bishopric of Condom, he was appointed tutor to the Dauphin, for whose benefit he is said to have written his *Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle* (1679). In 1680 he was elected to the academy, and in 1681 he received the bishopric of Meaux. He took a leading part in the Gallican controversy. His *Exposition de la Doctrine de l'Eglise Catholique sur les Matières de Controverse*—in which he advocated the royal as opposed to the papal claims—was adopted by the assembly of the French clergy held in 1682. He was less fortunate in his controversy with Fénelon, whose mysticism he regarded as heretical, and whom he attacked with an excessive violence, in strong contrast to the quiet and telling irony of his adversary's reply. The king, however, and ultimately the pope, supported Bossuet. He was made a member of the Council of State in 1697,

and first almoner to the Duchess of Burgundy in 1698. He died at Paris on the 16th April 1704. Bossuet's character is not an attractive one. He never protested against the king's licentiousness, oppressions, and unjust wars. As a preacher, he had neither the outspoken courage of Bourdaloue nor the persuasive gift of Massillon. His greatest works are the *Histoire Universelle*, regarded by many as the first attempt at a philosophy of history, and the *Oraisons Funèbres*, discourses on the death of the two Henriettas of England, of Condé, of Turenne, and of the Princess Palatine. Their chief characteristics are the splendour of the diction and the sustained flight of the rhetoric. While their author cannot be classed among great original thinkers, he is not a mere weaver of eloquent words. Intense religious conviction and deep knowledge of human nature give fervour and weight to his imposing sentences. As a controversialist, he combines, when at his best, the energy of enthusiasm with great dialectic ability; grasping his subject firmly, and showing remarkable wealth and felicity of allusion and metaphor. His chief controversial work is the *Histoire des Variations des Eglises Protestantes* (1688). Bossuet was also the author of *Maximes sur la Comédie*; *Conférence avec le Ministre Claude* (1678); *Négociations avec Leibnitz* (1691); *De l'Etat Présent de l'Eglise*; *Sur la Morale Relâchée*; *Mémoires présentés à Louis XIV.* (1700); *Politique Tirée de Sainte Ecriture*, in which he upholds the divine rights of kings, and which was published in 1709. The best edition of Bossuet's works is the Benedictine (Versailles, 1815-19). See his Life by Réaume (3 vols. Paris, 1870), and the *Mémoires et Journal* of the Abbé Ledieu, Bossuet's secretary. —JACQUES BOSSUET, nephew of the above, was born in 1644. He became Bishop of Troyes, where he died, 12th July 1743. He left a voluminous correspondence, dealing mainly with the controversy between his uncle and Fénelon.

Bossut, CHARLES, mathematician, born at Tartarus, near Lyons, 11th August 1730, was furthered in his early studies by Clairaut and D'Alembert, and was, from 1752 till the Revolution, professor at Mézières, and under the empire in the Polytechnic Schools at Paris, where he died, 14th January 1814. In the compulsory retirement that followed the Revolution he wrote his famous *Essai sur l'Histoire Générale des Mathématiques*. He edited Pascal's works (5 vols. 1779).

Bostan' (EL), 'the Garden,' a town of Asiatic Turkey, situated in a plain on the Sihun, on the north side of Mount Taurus, 40 miles NW. of Marash. Pop. 8500.

Boston, a parliamentary and municipal borough and seaport in Lincolnshire, on both sides of the Witham, 30 miles SE. of Lincoln, and 107 miles NE. of London, by rail. Its name is a contraction of 'Botolph's town,' and it is commonly supposed to occupy the site of the Benedictine abbey founded on the Witham by St Botolph in 654, and destroyed in 870 by the Danes. Under the Normans, Boston became a place of importance, and in 1204 it paid the largest dues (£780) of any English port but London (£836). In the reign of Edward III. many foreign traders settled, and the merchants of the Hansatic League established a guild in Boston. After their departure, the town declined, and the suppression of the monasteries by Henry VIII. further injured it; but his grant of a charter of incorporation, and Mary's subsequent grant of extensive lands, partly compensated for this. The modern town consists chiefly of four good streets, two on either side of the river, here crossed by a handsome bridge. The parish church of St Botolph measures 283 by 99 feet, and is one of the largest without transepts

in England. The tower is 263 feet high; it is in the Perpendicular style of architecture, and terminates in an octagonal lantern, doubtless intended



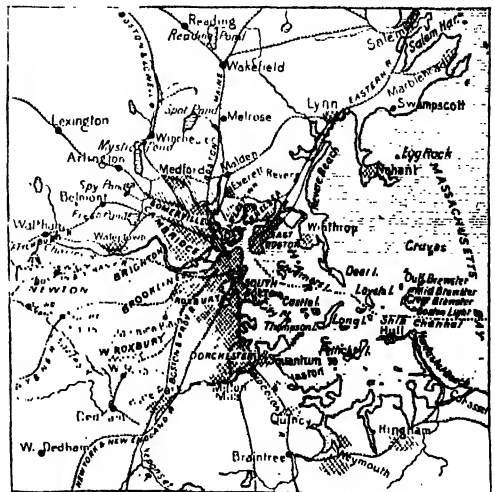
St Botolph's Church, Boston.

for a lighthouse by land and by sea, as well as a campanile, and by all the district, as seen rising above everything for miles around, is known as 'The Stump.' The founder's chapel is in the Early Decorated style of Edward II. (1307), and the nave, aisles, and the western part of the chancel are of the Late Decorated, Edward III. In 1843 the restoration of the church was commenced, the works continuing ten years, and over £10,000 being expended. A chapel to the memory of the Rev. Thomas Cotton, at one time vicar of Boston, was erected at the expense of the inhabitants of the daughter-city of Boston in America. A promenade by the river is tastefully laid out, with a people's park, public gardens, and recreation ground adjoining. Boston has also a free grammar, charity, national, and other schools, a guildhall, covered markets for fish, fowls, butter and eggs, a working-men's college, and school of art. The clearing of the river of silt, the formation of a new channel in 1881, and the opening of a new dock in 1884, have greatly promoted the trade of Boston. Ships of 2000 tons can reach the heart of the town; and the number of foreign vessels entering the port rose from 17 in 1884 to 170 in 1887. The chief exports are coal, machinery, corn, and wool; and the imports consist of timber, maize, cotton-seed, and general merchandise. The river and canals furnish communication with Lincoln and several other towns. Boston is a great market for cattle and sheep, and has manufactures of canvas, sail-cloth, ropes, sackings, beer, iron, brass, leather, bricks, whiting, and hats, with some shipbuilding. Fox the martyrologist, and Herbert Ingram, founder of the *Illustrated London News*, to whom a statue was erected in 1862, were natives of Boston. Since the Distribution of Seats Act (1885) Boston returns only one member to parliament. Pop. of municipal borough (1851) 14,733; of parliamentary, 17,518; (1881) 14,932 and 18,887.

Boston, the capital of Massachusetts, and one of the chief cities of the United States, is situated on an inlet of Massachusetts Bay, called Boston Harbour, at the mouths of the Charles and Mystic rivers, in 42° 21' 27" N. lat., 71° 3' 30" W. long., and 234 miles NE. of New York by rail.

Boston possesses an excellent harbour, protected by several forts, and covering 75 sq. m., with a minimum depth of 23 feet at low tide, and is in all respects favourably situated both for foreign commerce and coasting-trade; the harbour has four fine lighthouses, and is dotted with more than fifty islands, on some of which hospitals have been built. Eight lines of railway, controlling over 2000 miles of road, converge at this city, in the outskirts of which the Junction Railroad connects most of the lines with one another; and ten lines of ocean-steamers ply regularly between this and British and other foreign ports. The chief imports are sugar, wool, hides (for its large boot and shoe manufactures), chemicals, flax, and cotton goods; the principal exports, meat and dairy products, cattle, bread-stuffs, cotton, and tobacco. The value of imports for the fiscal year, ending June 30, 1887, was \$61,018,330, and of exports \$59,001,505; 2047 vessels in the foreign trade, of 1,258,524 tons, entered the port in 1886, 1949 of them, with a tonnage of 892,897, being British. The Charlestown government navy yard is within the present limits of Boston, and the city, besides being the seat of many varied local manufactures, is the headquarters of heavy railroad, mining, and insurance interests, the active operations of which are carried on in all sections of the United States. It has 60 National Banks, with an aggregate capital of about \$60,000,000, 13 savings-banks, and a board of trade.

Boston is exposed to east winds, and pulmonary complaints are very prevalent; but otherwise its



Map of Boston and Vicinity.

climate is healthy. It is one of the best built cities in the United States, prominent among its specimens of elaborate architecture being Trinity Church and the Roman Catholic cathedral, the former erected at a cost of \$750,000, and said to be the finest church in New England. The streets in the older portion of the city, once singularly irregular in their course, have been very generally straightened, at great expense, and most of the principal ones are traversed by tramways,

which extend for many miles, connecting with suburban towns. Nevertheless, the 'North End'

still preserves something of the appearance that characterised the town in colonial times. The older buildings include the State-house (1795), with a conspicuous gilded dome, and fronting on the well-kept Common, the Old State-house (1712), Christ Church (1723), Faneuil Hall (1743), afterwards termed 'The Cradle of Liberty,' and King's Chapel (1754). Among later public buildings and institutions may be noted Tremont Temple, the headquarters of New England Baptists, containing an audience-hall, with seats for 2600, and a fine organ; the Free Public Library, with a half-million bound volumes, accessible to all comers; the government Post-office and Sub-treasury building, of granite, erected at a cost of about \$6,000,000; the Lowell Institute, for the support of free public lectures; the Massachusetts City, and several minor hospitals; a large number of homes, asylums, and orphanages, under the charge of the various religious denominations; and city dispensaries and institutions for the insane, the blind, &c.

Boston has about 225 churches, of which 34 are Congregationalist, 31 Roman Catholic, 27 Baptist, 30 Methodist, 26 Unitarian, and 26 Episcopalian. Its elaborate system of public schools embraces high, normal, and Latin schools, over 50 grammar-schools, and more than 400 schools of minor grade, with a staff of some 1400 teachers. The average attendance of pupils is over 60,000, and about \$2,000,000 is expended annually for school purposes. Among the higher institutions of learning are the Boston College (Catholic); the Boston University (Methodist), for the education of both sexes; schools of technology and industrial science; two conservatories of music, both of high repute; schools of law and divinity; and the Massachusetts Medical College, connected with Harvard University, which, though located in the adjacent city of Cambridge, is virtually a Boston institution.

The 'Hub of the Universe' has long been noted for the interest taken by its citizens in literature, science, and art. The city possesses some 250 literary, musical, and kindred associations, many of them incorporated and endowed, besides a number of social and political clubs. The number of newspapers and periodicals here published is about 250, of which 9 are issued daily, and the remainder weekly, monthly, or quarterly.

Originally founded in 1630 upon a peninsula known as Shawmut, it was first called Trimountain, from the three hills which were then a marked feature of the territory, and was afterwards officially named Boston, after Boston in Lincolnshire, the native place of some of the principal colonists. This tract, purchased from the original settler, William Blaxton (or Blackstone), for £30, comprised 783 acres; but by successive additions the territory of the city has been increased, until, in 1888, it covered 23,661 acres, or nearly 37 sq. m. Among these additions are comprised the city of Roxbury, annexed in 1867; Dorchester, annexed in 1869; and Charlestown, West Roxbury, and Brighton, annexed in 1873. Charlestown had in 1870 a population of 28,000. Large tracts of ground

also have been reclaimed from the harbour and its branches, and sixteen bridges, besides the railway-



Trinity Church, Boston.

(From a Photograph by H. G. Peabody, Boston.)

bridges and steam-ferries, connect the city with its suburbs.

Boston has been identified with many events of general interest to Americans, such as the meeting of the first grand jury (1635), and the publication of the first regular newspaper (1704). The stern, impatient Puritan spirit of its founders led to the banishment of heretics and the execution of Quakers and witches, and later, to the expulsion of James II.'s officials. The conspicuous part borne by the town in the early troubles with England brought about the 'Boston Massacre' of 1770, in which several people were killed by the fire of the soldiery; and after the destruction of the British-taxed tea in the harbour (1773), the port was practically closed, and the town occupied by a British force, which, in March 1776, was finally compelled to evacuate the place (see BUNKER HILL). From 1830 to 1860 Boston was the headquarters of the movement for the suppression of slavery, against which its citizens had shown a strong feeling as early as 1645. The city has suffered from several destructive conflagrations, that of 1872 having been exceeded in the United States in the extent of the calamity only by the Chicago fire (1871).

The population in 1800 was 24,937; in 1820, 43,298; in 1840, 93,383; in 1860, 177,840; in 1880, 362,839; and by state census of 1885, 390,393. The value of real and personal estate in 1884 was \$682,656,658. See Winsor's *History of Boston* (4 vols. 1880-82).

Boston. THOMAS, a Scottish divine whose writings were once extensively popular, was born at Duns, Berwickshire, 17th March 1676. His father, who possessed a small property in Duns, which Boston afterwards inherited, was, in the persecuting period in Scotland, imprisoned for non-conformity, and paid besides a fine of £50 Scots. Boston, when a boy, lay in prison with his father, and to this may, perhaps, be attributed his early religious fervour, as also the somewhat severe tone which frequently marked his writing and preaching later in life. Two years after leaving the grammar-school of his native town, he in 1691 entered the university of Edinburgh, and managed to maintain himself by private teaching during the whole of his course. He received license as a preacher

in 1697, and was greatly appreciated by the serious portion of the community; but his uncompromising character prevented him from receiving a clerical charge for two years. As he puts it in his autobiography, he was, 'through the mercy of God, generally acceptable to the people, but could never fall into the good graces of those who had the stroke in the settling of parishes.' At length, in 1699, he was ordained minister of Simprin, Berwickshire, and in 1707 was translated to Ettrick, in Selkirkshire, where he died on the 20th May 1732. Of his works the one by which he was best known is the *Fourfold State*, published in 1720. It discourses of human nature in its fourfold state of primitive integrity (in Eden), entire depravity (by the fall), recovery begun on earth, and happiness or misery consummate hereafter. This work went through many editions, and was long recognised as a standard exposition of Calvinistic theology. *The Crook in the Lot* was a little book of a more attractive character, written in a quaint and striking style, and full of allusions to Bible history and biography. This book and his posthumous *Autobiography* (the latter published in 1776) were great favourites with the Scottish peasantry, and were to be found in almost every house. As a pastor, Boston was eminently laborious and deservedly popular. In the ecclesiastical courts he distinguished himself by his zeal in defence of the church's independence, and in the controversy regarding the *Marrow of Modern Divinity* (which was objected to as being too free in its offers of salvation) he was one of the ten ministers who declared their approval of that work (see MARROW CONTROVERSY). As a theologian, Boston had a marked influence upon his own and succeeding generations. His language, sentiments, and characteristic modes of expressing the peculiarities of Calvinistic psychology, have coloured the style of Scottish preaching more than have those of any other writer of the same school. Although often displaying what we should now call narrowness, Boston exhibits also flashes of insight and beauty, quaint felicities of diction—as, for instance, when in *The Crook in the Lot* he warns the profligate against the possibility of a 'leap out of Delilah's lap into Abraham's bosom'—and an occasional shrewdness of thought, which render his works even yet worth studying.

Boswell, JAMES, immortal as the companion and biographer of Dr Johnson, was born at Edinburgh, October 29, 1740. He was the eldest son of Lord Auchinleck, a judge in the Court of Session, who had taken his title from an estate in Ayrshire, which had belonged to the family since the reign of James IV. He had his education at the Edinburgh High School and at the universities of Edinburgh and Glasgow, but his impressionable nature and characteristic love of such distractions and dissipations as were available showed themselves early, and caused much dissatisfaction to the surly but shrewd old judge. A year in London at twenty spoiled him for ever for a provincial. That restless itch for writing, which was yet to lead him so far, made him, a boy of eighteen, keep an 'exact journal,' write poems and prologues to Edinburgh plays, and publish, at twenty-three, a series of would-be clever and witty letters that had passed between himself and a companion of equal age and experience. His capacity for making friends and for falling temporarily in love, and his eagerness to know people that were notorious for anything, were as deep-rooted in his nature as his love of letters and literary distinctions. During his second visit to London he had the supreme happiness to make the acquaintance of Dr Johnson in the back-parlour of Tom Davies's shop in Russell Street (May 16, 1763). The sincerity of the disciple's respect seems to have touched the

master's heart, and the acquaintance quickly ripened into a warm friendship, which stood the strain of many a brutal rebuff on Johnson's part, and was kept in repair by frequent letters on both sides throughout the rest of Johnson's life. A few months later Dr Johnson accompanied Boswell to Harwich, on his journey to study civil law at Utrecht, and parted from him with counsels to be studious and steady, and many expressions of warm affection. At Utrecht Boswell spent one winter between study and dissipation, on an allowance from his father of £240 a year; after which, instead of returning home, he proceeded on a tour through Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, making on the way, with his usual assiduity, the acquaintance of Voltaire and Rousseau. The latter gave him a letter of introduction to Paoli, and to that hero the indefatigable Boswell at once repaired. He was well received by the Corsicans, and for a time played the great Englishman to his heart's content, not forgetting the while to ask Paoli 'a thousand questions with regard to the most minute and private circumstances of his life.' Soon after his return he was admitted advocate (July 1766), and seems to have had some little professional success, and to have employed himself voluntarily at least in the last stages of the famous Douglas cause. His *Account of Corsica* appeared early in 1768, and had great success. Johnson said the journal was 'in a very high degree delightful and curious;' but the poet Gray, whose eyes were undimmed by the partiality of friendship, called it, in a letter to Horace Walpole, 'a dialogue between a green goose and a hero.' Early in 1767 Boswell waited upon Chatham in Corsican costume to plead for Paoli, and was honoured some time after by a warm letter from the great statesman, which encouraged him in reply to the characteristic temerity of asking, 'Could your lordship find time to honour me now and then with a letter?' To correspond with a Paoli and with a Chatham is enough to keep a young man ever ardent in the pursuit of virtuous fame.' From this time Boswell's mind was much taken up with a succession of matrimonial schemes, which ended somewhat prosaically with his marriage, in November 1769, to his cousin, Margaret Montgomery, a prudent and amiable woman, who bore him seven children, and who proved herself a sensible and forgiving wife. On the same day his father married a cousin of his own, to the son's disgust and alarm. The old judge allowed his son £300 a year, and from time to time paid his debts for him, but not without much grumbling and many threats. Boswell never became a prosperous lawyer, and continued to make visits to London almost every year. In April 1773, fortunately for the world, but against the wishes of many of the members, he was elected, through Johnson's influence, a member of the famous Literary Club. Later in the same year occurred the memorable journey to the Hebrides. Neither the old judge nor Boswell's own wife could understand the enthusiasm for the uncouth-looking philosopher, and although the latter was studiously polite, she could not hide from the astute Johnson the fact that he was disliked. In 1775 Boswell began to keep his terms at the Inner Temple, and was ultimately called to the English bar in 1786; in 1776 the Auchinleck property was entailed upon him; and in the August of 1782 he succeeded, on his father's death, to an estate of £1600 a year. His last meeting with Johnson was at a dinner at Sir Joshua Reynolds's early in 1784, the year towards the close of which Johnson died. Croker calculated that Boswell met Johnson in all on 180 days, or 276 including the Scotch tour. Boswell now made some attempts to enter on a political career, for some years entertained hopes from the

patronage of Lord Lonsdale, and could not understand Pitt's 'utter folly' in not seeing the value of 'my popular and pleasant talents'; but his sole reward was the recordership of Carlisle, which he resigned in a year, through resentment of his patron's treatment of him. In 1789 his wife died, and henceforward his drinking habits gained the better of him more completely. But indeed he had been drinking all his days, with fits of repentance and solemn promises of amendment between. From his drunkard's hypochondria and the pressure of difficulties for money he found refuge in the preparation of his life of Johnson, which occupied him several years. Spite of occasional despondency and the pinch of financial difficulty, he refused to part with the copyright, and his confidence was justified. The book appeared in the May of 1791, was received with delight, and sold rapidly. A second edition was issued in July 1793. But his success failed to lift him out of his gloom and intemperance, and his health began to give way. He died in London, after a brief illness, 19th May 1795.

Boswell's *Life of Johnson* is admittedly our greatest biography, and the remarkable merit of the book has led many to wonder how it could possibly have been written by a man of such egregious weakness and vanity as Boswell. Indeed, Macaulay advanced the preposterous paradox that it was because of his unrivalled qualities as a fool that its author had written the best life in existence. The true explanation, however, is that this vanity and folly by no means made up the whole mental equipment of Boswell, and that these unenviable qualities in his character have merely become so conspicuous because he had so much less reticence than ordinary men. The man who could retain the friendship of Samuel Johnson, and who could be described as 'the best travelling companion in the world,' was something more than a parasite and a fool. Nor could the most voracious fool have written such a dexterously artistic book. Nothing has suffered in his hands; indeed, we know from some evidence we happen to have about a few conversations, that these at anyrate have gained greatly in point from his editorial touch. He adds not one word too much, but gives us the most vivid dramatic pictures by a few simple but subtle strokes. This is not the work of memory nearly so much as of artistic reproduction—it is not photographic and realistic half so much as it is idealistic and creative. We have here a special literary faculty, and, moreover, one of the rarest. This noisy, ugly, foolish, drunken Scotch lawyer and laird had in him something of the true Shakespearian secret.

The latest and best editions of Boswell's great work are those by Napier (4 vols. 1884; two supplementary vols. contain Boswell's *Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides*, and 'Johnsoniana') and by Dr Birkbeck Hill (6 vols. 1887). Invaluable for the new light thrown on Boswell's inner character are his own lifelong *Letters to Temple* (1856), whose acquaintance he had made while yet a student at Edinburgh University, and *Boswelliana* (1874) by Charles Rogers. The famous essays by Macaulay and Carlyle contradict rather than correct each other, and an average struck betwixt the two will not construct a Boswell. But the latter has much more truth in it than the former.

Boswell's eldest son, ALEXANDER, was born at Auchinleck in 1775, and educated along with his younger brother James at Westminster and Oxford. He settled at Auchinleck, and set up here a private press, at which he printed many rare books in early English and Scottish literature. He had all his father's industry and love of letters, and published many volumes of more or less meritorious verse. Already, in 1803, he had printed a volume of vigorous poems in the Ayrshire dialect,

and in 1817 he contributed twelve songs to Thomson's *Select Collection of Original Scottish Airs*, of which 'Good-night, and joy be wi' ye a', 'Jenny's Baubee,' and 'Jenny dang the Weaver' are still popular. A devoted admirer of Burns, Boswell raised by his exertions £2000 for the monument on the banks of the Doon. He was created a baronet in 1821 for a loyal song, 'Long live George the Fourth.' He died at Balmuto in Fife, 27th March 1822, of a wound received the day before in his duel with James Stuart of Dunearn, who had challenged him as the author of some anonymous political pasquinades.—JAMES BOSWELL, his younger brother, was born in 1778. He early became intimate with Malone, and assisted him in his Shakespeare work. His name is now known chiefly to Shakespeare scholars as the editor of what is known as the third *Variorum Shakespeare* (21 vols. 1821). He died suddenly at his chambers in the Temple, February 24, 1822.

Boswellia, a genus of Amyridaceæ, of which the species are still very imperfectly known, although the product of some of them—Olibanum (q.v.), generally believed to have been the Frankincense (q.v.) of the ancients—has long been of considerable commercial importance for the preparation of incense. The most important species appears to be *B. carteri*, but several other species or varieties have been described from the same region (Southern Arabia and Eastern Africa, near Cape Guardafui). *B. thurifera* or *serrata* of Coromandel yields a soft fragrant incense-resin, but which is not true olibanum; and the closely allied *B. glabra* also yields a comparatively coarse resin, sometimes used as incense, but also boiled with oil as a substitute for pitch. The Abyssinian *B. papyrifera* (so called from its laminated paper-yielding bark) also yields an olibanum, but it is not collected.

Bosworth, or MARKET BOSWORTH, a small market-town in Leicestershire, 12 miles W. by S. of Leicester. On a moor 2 miles to the south was fought (1485) the battle in which Richard III. was slain, and which terminated the Wars of the Roses. On an elevation, called Crownhill, Lord Stanley placed the crown on the head of the Earl of Richmond, Henry VII. Simpson the mathematician was a native, and Dr Johnson was an usher in the grammar-school. Pop. of parish (1881) 3978.

Bosworth, JOSEPH, D.D., an Anglo-Saxon scholar, was born in Derbyshire, in 1789, and educated at Repton, Aberdeen, and Trinity College, Cambridge. Presented in 1817 to the vicarage of Little Horwood, Buckinghamshire, he devoted all his spare time to literature, and especially to researches in Anglo-Saxon. The result of his labours appeared in his *Elements of Anglo-Saxon Grammar* (1823), and a *Dictionary of the Anglo-Saxon Language* (1838), his *magnum opus*, a new edition of which, by Professor Toller, has been issued from the Clarendon Press since 1882. Bosworth resided as British chaplain in Holland from 1829 to 1840, when he obtained the vicarage of Wathe, in Lincolnshire, in 1857 becoming rector of Water Shelford, Buckinghamshire, and in 1858 professor of Anglo-Saxon at the university of Oxford. He gave £10,000 towards the establishment of a professorship of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge, having, according to his own statement, realised £18,000 by the sale of his works. He died 27th May 1876.

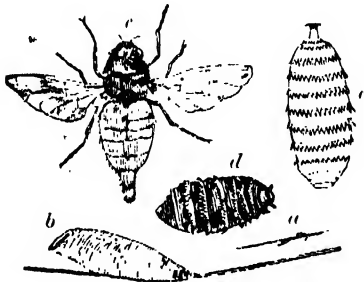
Böszörmény, a town of Hungary, 10 miles NNW. of Debreczin. Pop. (1880) 19,035.

Bot, Bot-fly, Gad-fly, and Warble-fly, names common to many insects of the family (Estridæ, the genus *Estrus* of Linnaeus. The name bot is sometimes restricted to the parasitic and destructive larvæ, which appears to have been its original use, the other names being given to the

perfect adults, and the name gad-fly often to blood-sucking insects of the very different genus *Tabanus* (q.v.), to which some try to restrict it. The insects of this family are now supposed not to be those which were called *Estrus* by the ancients, although, like them, extremely troublesome to cattle. They are Dipterons (two-winged) (q.v.) insects, nearly allied to the Muscides (House-fly, Flesh-fly, Blow-fly, &c.).

The head is large, and as if blown out; the antennae are short and spring from deep pits; the proboscis and palps are degenerate; the eyes are small, and there are three eye-spots; the posterior part of the body is rounded; the hindmost legs are often very long. The larvae have toothed body-rings, and are parasitic in the nose, throat, stomach, or under the skin of mammals, and are unfortunately more familiar than the bee-like adults.

(F) The Horse-bot, or Gad-fly of the Horse (*Gasterophilus*, or *Gastus* or *Estrus equi*), sometimes also called the Breeze and Horse-bee, is much less common in Britain than in some parts of the continent of Europe, and occurs chiefly in elevated heathy districts. It is not quite half an inch in length, woolly, with yellowish gray head, rusty thorax and abdomen, and whitish wings, with brownish-gray spots. The abdomen of the female



Horse Bot-fly:

a, a horse-hair with eggs of bot-fly; b, one egg magnified; c, larva; d, pupa; e, perfect insect female, a little larger than life.

ends in a black horny egg-laying tube. In the later part of summer, the female hovers about horses, and deposits her eggs on their hairs, where they remain attached by a glutinous substance, until they, or the larvæ just emerging from them, are licked off by the tongue of the horse, their destined place being its stomach. It is believed that the fly deposits her eggs only on those parts which are accessible to the horse's tongue, seeming to prefer the back of the knee-joint, where they may sometimes be found in hundreds. The larva is yellowish, without feet, short, thick, soft, composed of rings which have a double row of short teeth surrounding them; it is somewhat sharply pointed at one end the head; and the mouth is furnished with two hooks, one on each side, for taking hold of the inner coat of the horse's stomach, to which the bot attaches itself, and from which it derives its subsistence, hanging in clusters sometimes of three or four, sometimes of more than one hundred. Here it spends the winter, and in the following summer, when it is about an inch long, it disengages itself, and being carried through the horse's intestines, burrows in the ground, and changes into an oval black pupa with spiny rings, from which, in a few weeks, the perfect insect comes forth. Multitudes, of course, become the prey of birds before they can accomplish their burrowing. It has been disputed whether or not bots are very injurious to horses; and some have with apparent improbability main-

tained that, when not excessively numerous, their presence is rather beneficial. —The Red-tailed Horse-bot (*G. haemorrhoidalis*), also a British species, deposits its eggs upon the lips of the horse, distressing it very much by the annoyance which it gives in so doing. The larvæ attach themselves chiefly to the surface of the intestine and about the anus of the horse, and sometimes cause an annoying irritation. Linseed-oil is used for their removal. *G. nasal* also finds its way into the stomach, more frequently the small intestine, of the horse.

(2) The Ox-bot, Ox Gad-fly, or Warble-fly (*Hypoderma* or *Estrus bovis*), is more troublesome than any species of horse-bot. It is a beautiful insect, not unlike a humble-bee, not quite half an inch long, and thicker in proportion than the horse-bots; it has brown unspotted wings; the face whitish, the crown



Ox Bot-fly:

a, larva, full grown, natural size; b, pupa; c, perfect insect, a little larger than life.

of the head brown, the thorax black, the abdomen whitish, with a broad black band around the middle, and yellow hairs at the extremity, where also the female has an ovipositor, a remarkable organ, formed of a horny substance, and consisting of four tubes retractile within one another, like the pieces of a telescope; and the last of them terminating in five points, three of which are longer than the others, and hooked. By means of this organ, a small round hole is pierced in the hide of an ox's back, in which an egg is deposited. Egg-laying takes place during summer, especially in heat and sunshine;

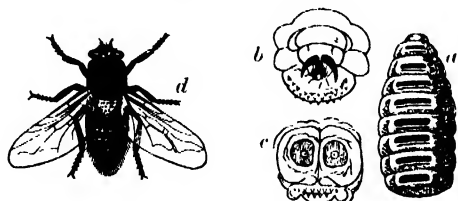


Ovipositor of Bot-fly:

hence the importance of cattle having shade, and when possible water shelter. The fly is very quick in depositing her egg, not remaining upon the back of the animal more than a few seconds. Cattle exhibit great alarm and excitement at the presence of the warble-fly, and rush wildly about, with head stretched forward, and tail stuck out, to escape from their tormentor. The further injury done by this insect is often, however, very great; the larva—a little pearl-white maggot (*warble* or *worm*)—feeding upon the juices beneath the skin, causes a swelling, called a *warble*, forming a sort of sac, within which it lives and grows, amidst a kind of purulent matter suited to its appetite; and from which it finally emerges, leaving a small sore, and like the horse-bot, undergoes its further transformations in the ground. The warbles open in January or February, and a breathing chimney communicates with the surface; the larva should then be squeezed out, and smothered with any thick greasy matter, such as McDougall's dip, ear-grease and sulphur, &c. To prevent the panic and often fatal galloping, train-oil, preferably with some flowers of sulphur and spirits of tar, should be rubbed on spine, loins, and ribs. Warbles also occur, usually singly, under the skin of horses.

(3) The Sheep-bot (*Estrus* or *Cephalomyia ovis*) is a much more serious pest than any other British species, and is not unfrequently very destructive to

flocks. The insect is smaller than either the ox-bot or horse-bot, is of a yellowish-gray colour, with a large head and yellow face, and is most abundant in damp situations and woody districts. It is to be seen chiefly in the months of June and



Sheep Bot-fly (*Estrus ovis*):

a, larva from above; b and c, the same seen from in front and from behind; d, adult insect.

July. Sheep exhibit great alarm when it approaches them, and seem to seek, by keeping their noses close to the ground, and by incessant motion of their feet, to keep it from entering their nostrils. It is in the nostrils of the sheep that this fly deposits its eggs, and the larvæ, when hatched, make their way into the maxillary and frontal sinuses, feeding upon the juices there, until they are ready to change into the pupa state, in April or May of the following year, when they find their way again through the nostrils to the ground. They seem to cause great irritation in their progress up the nostrils of the sheep, and the poor animals run hither and thither, snorting and in great excitement. 'The common saying, that a whimsical person is *maggoty*, or has got *maggots in his head*, perhaps arose from the freaks the sheep have been observed to exhibit when infested by their bots.' The bots cause considerable irritation in the cavities, where they usually fix themselves, and sometimes getting into the brain cause death. These larvæ move with considerable quickness, holding on by the hooks with which their mouth is furnished, and contracting and elongating the body. It is said that flocks fed where broom is in flower are never infested with them; and when many cases arise in a flock, removal to a dry soil is found particularly advantageous.

These three genera, with their three modes of parasitism, do not complete the list of bot-flies; *Cephenomyia* and *Pharyngomyia* are two others with several species infesting, in their larval state, deer, goats, and other hoofed mammals. Elephants are also afflicted; and *Cuterebra* deposits its eggs under the skin of hares and the like. The eggs of one of the species which attacks the fallow-deer are deposited in the nostrils, and the larvæ make their way in large numbers to a cavity near the pharynx. Reindeer are excessively tormented by these insects; one kind depositing its eggs in their nostrils, and another in their skin; and it is no unfrequent thing for a large part of a flock to be destroyed by them. When feeding where bot-flies are numerous, they are said to keep such watch against them, that they neglect to eat, become emaciated, and often actually perish in consequence. Even human beings are said to be sometimes afflicted by insects of this family. Humboldt saw Indians in South America having the abdomen covered with tumours produced by their larvæ. They touch human life more certainly and disastrously in an indirect way by the injuries they inflict upon stock. Dairy and sheep farmers, and stock-keepers generally, not to speak of leather manufacturers, know well the disastrous work of these bot larvæ. The attack of warbles (alone) is now grown to be one causing enormous annual national loss, estimated by practical men at sums from two

million to seven million pounds sterling per annum, at the least, and there is no reason why we should suffer it to go on' (Miss Ormerod, 1887). Those practically interested should consult Miss Ormerod's reports on the Warble-fly and other insect pests.

Botallack is the name of a famous mine on the west coast of Cornwall, 8 m. N. of Land's End. The works are on the edge of the cliff; part of the underground workings (abandoned in 1875) extended 2448 feet beneath the sea. The mine was worked as a tin mine in 1721, in 1841 was famous as a very rich copper mine, and has subsequently been wrought for both or for one of those metals.

Botanical Geography. See GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF PLANTS.

Botanic Garden. While ordinary gardens are concerned with utility or beauty only, the botanic garden has for its primary aim the promotion of botanical science, and is thus necessarily of comparatively modern origin (see BOTANY). Like the science itself, the botanic garden owes its birth to the needs of pharmacy; thus at the earliest European school of medicine, that of Salerno, we find record in 1309 of the medical garden of Matthæus Sylvaticus; while in 1333 a similar garden was established by the Republic of Venice. These private and public examples seem to have been more or less widely followed, yet the botanic garden in the modern sense is usually dated from a private one founded at Padua (between 1525 and 1533), from the public one of Pisa, established by Cosmo de' Medici in 1544, or from that of Padua, which dates from the following year, and was greatly enriched by its founders, the Signiory of Venice. The other great Italian cities soon followed this example, and a botanic garden was also founded at the university of Leyden in 1577, and at the universities of Montpellier, Leipzig, Breslau, and Heidelberg before the end of the century. At Paris, too, a royal garden was founded in 1597, but at first, it is said, only with the petty aim of varying the bouquets worn at court; in 1626, however, its scientific purposes were defined; in 1635 chairs of Botany and Pharmacology were founded, and it soon became famous as the *Jardin des Plantes*. The establishment of physic or botanic gardens continued during the 17th century, and those of Oxford (1632) Chelsea (1677), and Edinburgh (1680) may be particularly noted. A further impetus was given by the popularisation of botany in the last century by Linnaeus, and by the consequently increased importance of the subject as a branch of academic education: most European universities, including all German ones, have now their botanic gardens, as well as many purely commercial cities. The leading American universities and cities have also followed suit, the gardens of Philadelphia, New York, and Cambridge being especially well known. Similar institutions, usually of more definite economic aim, have been founded by the principal governments in their colonial dominions; those of Buitenzorg in Java, of Calcutta, and of Paradenya in Ceylon, may be mentioned as of special importance. While almost every botanic garden boasts its own peculiar excellence, the comparatively modern establishment of Kew, founded in 1760, is reckoned the largest, richest, and most fully organised (except for teaching purposes) in the world; those of Paris, Berlin, Vienna, and Edinburgh may also be mentioned as each in certain respects claiming in the foremost rank.

The mode of arrangement of botanic gardens varies infinitely in detail, yet more or less faithfully reflects the state of scientific knowledge and of horticultural and general taste at the period

of its foundation or reconstruction; hence the advantage of the more modern gardens. The Linnean system of arrangement has of course now been replaced by the natural, but in their mode of expressing this no two gardens agree; in some the principle of arranging plants according to their geographical distribution is also largely followed, while economic or medical interests have had a very variable share. The primeval and convenient separation of plants as trees, shrubs, perennial herbs, and annuals has also to be largely attended to; while the very varied origin of the collection, from all countries and climates, necessitates their disposition as nearly as possible in corresponding artificial climates and soils; and thus not only the rockery and alpine garden, the bog garden, and the pond are required beside the ordinary garden beds, but a series of greenhouses and hot-houses of different temperatures and sizes; the latter culminating in the gigantic palm-house. The best garden may be taken as that which best combines all these advantages, and reconciles them with the respective claims of simplicity and beauty; yet no garden can be considered as complete without its accompanying *hortus siccus* or herbarium, its museum, and its library, as well as its laboratories for research, and its lecture-rooms for teaching. It is concerned with the introduction of new plants and the exportation of others to new countries, and thus requires a colonial and international organisation of exchanges and correspondence. It forms a natural centre for the preparation of scientific travellers and the training of gardeners, arboriculturists, nurserymen, and florists; while it owes services both to medical and general education.

While for the full performance of all these varied functions the resources of a great botanic garden are never too ample, it is important to note in conclusion that many of these purposes, and particularly the educational one, can be largely reached upon an incomparably smaller scale. A 'type botanic garden,' illustrating all the more important natural orders of temperate climates, and therefore containing examples of the majority of the plants most important from the point of view alike of botany and medicine, of history, literature, and economics, can be made at altogether trifling expense, and within the narrowest limits. The establishment of such small popular gardens has been followed by the most beneficial results, and their adoption by public and private schools and other institutions is happily in active progress (see BOTANY). For the literature of botanic gardens, see Jackson's *Guide to the Literature of Botany*, pp. 405-453. On 'Type Botanic Gardens,' see *Trans. Bot. Soc. Edin.* (1884).

Botanomancy. See DIVINATION.

Botany is that sub-science of biology which has for its special province the phenomena of the vegetable world. Its general origin and rise, its place among the sciences, its progress in morphological and physiological analysis, and its broadest generalisations, have thus been already outlined under BIOLOGY (q.v.); here it remains to give a sketch of the history of the special study of plants, an account of its present state, and an indication of the most direct and profitable way of approaching the subject. From this brief account the reader may therefore pass on the one hand to the major article BIOLOGY, with its subordinate general articles like MORPHOLOGY, PHYSIOLOGY, &c., and on the other to any of the numerous minor articles concerned with the details of the subject.

1. *History of Botany.*—The special history of the science may be very briefly outlined. Aristotle's treatise *On Plants*, if indeed it was Aristotle's, is

lost, but the writings survive of his pupil Theophrastus, who not only describes about 500 plants, but discusses the vegetable world with something of his master's philosophic spirit. The 1st century produced the *Materia Medica* of Dioscorides—in which 600 plants are named, 400 with descriptions—as well as the writings of the elder Pliny, which, however, contain no original matter, but are simply a compilation of literary and popular knowledge, chiefly with reference to practical uses. Although some knowledge of botany must have been conserved in the medical traditions of the following centuries, we hear nothing of botany until the time of Charlemagne, who was a hearty patron of gardening as well as agriculture. The early Greek knowledge of the subject found its way through the Herbal of Avicenna into Western Europe, and it is probably to this transmission that we owe the 13th-century work of Albertus Magnus, although this is a mere worthless commentary upon the classical writers already mentioned. The merit of initiating the independent observation of plants themselves is usually ascribed to Otto Brunfels of Strasburg, whose *Krütterbuch* was published in 1537, three years after his death. Similar descriptive efforts followed with increasing rapidity during the remainder of this and the following century, to which period belong many botanists of honourable memory. Among these may be especially named, in Germany, Boeck, Fuchs, and the brothers Bauhin; in Switzerland, Gesner; in the Netherlands, Dodonæus, Lobel, and Clusius; in France, Ruellius and Delechamps; in England, Turner; and in Italy, Cæsarpinus; while the rate and reality of progress may be judged from the fact that while Brunfels describes only 240 species, Boeck has 800, Lobel 2191, and Bauhin (in 1623) 6000 species. Botanical travellers also arose, among whom Clusius in Europe and Albin in the east are especially remembered. Botanic Gardens (q.v.) next were founded, classificatory attempts were made with more and more frequency, and the advent of Linnæus was thus fully prepared for. The later portion of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century is also memorable for the fruitful application of the microscope to the study of plants by Malpighi (q.v.), whose discoveries were continued and extended by his English exponent Grew, as well as by the indefatigable enthusiasm and industry of Leeuwenhoek. The study of cryptogamic plants was thus rendered possible, and its initiation is ascribed to the labours of Micheli and Dillenius during the second quarter of the 18th century. The rise of Vegetable Physiology (q.v.) is also dated from the classic observations (1727) of Stephen Hales upon the movement and pressure of the sap.

The descriptive botanist still necessarily occupied by far the foremost place, especially as the progress of botanical travel was now passing the limits of Europe to bring home an indefinite variety of plant marvels from all the most distant countries. Many stately monographs thus date from the same pre-Linnean period, while the replacement of the crude and empirical classifications due to Cæsarpinus and other writers of the 16th century became increasingly hopeful as well as urgent. The classifications proposed by Morison, Ray, and Tournefort were especially of service, and will be considered at VEGETABLE KINGDOM. Under this head must also be discussed the epoch-making *Systema Naturæ* of Linnæus, as well as the various phases of that necessary replacement of his artificial method of larger grouping which has been in progress during the past hundred years. Although the foundation of the 'Natural System' is with

substantial justice assigned to the two De Jussieus (uncle and nephew), it must also be remembered that its essential principle—that affinities are to be determined not by any single character, but by the sum of all—had been more or less familiar to many of the earlier botanists, particularly to Ray, as certainly also to Linnaeus himself. He in fact proposed his artificial system avowedly as provisional; and the blame of its obstinate and bigoted retention for well-nigh two generations after Linnaeus and the elder De Jussieu had departed, must thus, as in so many other historic cases, be ascribed, not to the purpose of the master, but to the blind and indiscriminating reverence of his disciples in adhering to the letter of his writings at the expense of their general aim and spirit.

The story of this long and laborious indexing of the book of nature is an interesting tale. The wanderings of Clusius were repeated and outdone by the immediate scholars of Linnaeus, a generation later by Humboldt, and again by the younger Hooker, with whom the roll of great travellers fitly closes; and the story has in it an element of epic breadth, as becomes what is indeed the modern re-search after the golden apples. Nor should the patient complementary systematic toil, of which the colossal *Prodromus Systematis Naturalis*, the monument of three generations of De Candolle (Geneva, 20 vols. 1818–73), is only the central work, pass without recognition.

But it is a less favourable aspect of the progress of botany which forces itself on the student. From the petrifying predominance of letter over spirit, no science has indeed been wholly exempt. Yet happily, for the past century at least, no department of knowledge save botany has ever fallen into such utter intellectual torpor, lain in it so long, nay, indeed, even now escaped from it so incompletely. It was much certainly to have done with commentaries upon Dioscorides and Pliny, and again begun after an interregnum of fifty generations to gather fresh flowers and look at them in themselves; still, this return to nature was far less thorough than it seemed. For although the old herbalist's reference-book of dried simples gathered from the fields and woods around his town was growing into a vast herbarium of all the world, and although he had been suddenly raised into a position of high academic honour and influence, the unnoticed drawbacks of such apparently complete scientific success were neither few nor small. The best botanist was thus he who had described most plants and had accumulated the richest herbarium; but the art of describing plants, once clearly learned, became a mechanical routine, a mere Latin clerkship. The inventory done, the interest of the consignment of new plants was exhausted, or thereafter oscillated between the petty pride of priority and possession, and the exercise of the surviving commercial passions in incessant barter. In their new-won academic seats, the systematic botanists in fact speedily absorbed all the vices of the old-world pedantry around them. First, the simple descriptive language of Linnaeus was elaborated into a barbarous terminology which he would have been the first to denounce; and the concrete teaching of the facts of botany became more and more pushed aside. The whole course of degeneration was in fact a curiously perfect outcome and reflection of the established course of general education, in which the abstractions of grammar, at first admitted as a preliminary aid to the study of literature, had finally come to exclude that study for the majority of learners altogether. Nor did these vices by any means wholly end with the victory of the Natural System; some residue of them is inseparable from all study of the subject on a purely morphological

basis. Linnaeus and De Jussieu alike committed themselves to this, and that necessarily so far as their immediate problem was concerned (see BIOLOGY, § 3). They failed sufficiently to realise, or at anyrate to point out to their successors, what an abstraction from the realities of the living world is involved in looking at the plant from a primarily morphological point of view: in regarding it as a fixed and empirical phenomenon of pure form, which may be analysed and compared, named and classified, but admits of nothing more. Hence, while their followers rightly continued to avail themselves of this abstraction, which they found to yield a wealth of detailed results, they became unconsciously enslaved by it, and henceforth mistook for the sole method of botany what was really no more than the necessary artifice of its morphological department. They even unhappily lost sight of the only real problem of their subject, that of interpreting the plant as a changing manifestation of life. It was much indeed to pass from the counting of the reproductive organs only with the Linnæan systematist to that comparison and scrutiny of all which was initiated by De Jussieu, and hence to extend our knowledge to the cryptogamic world; and much also to discern with Goethe and succeeding morphologists the deep unity of principle which underlies the widest apparent varieties of form, and which has enabled us to reduce all organs to the simple categories of root, stem, leaf, and trichome or hair, and even to analyse these into their component tissues—epidermic, fundamental, and fibro-vascular; and finally most of all with the embryologist to describe all these forms as the final phases of a process of continuous development from unicellular to multicellular, general to special, simple to complex. In this way we at length reach a morphological conception of even the evolution of organic beings, as a kind of phantasmagoria in which the empirically known forms undergo a broadly similar individual and racial development, and in which individuals and species alike are constantly replacing or being replaced by others. Yet so long as our original standpoint is unaltered, our botany is one-sided; nay, our knowledge is not yet truly biological at all, for we are forgetting that it is the phenomenon of life which is the *differentia* of the science.

Here, then, it is that the real understanding of the subject must begin; our essential problem is to understand the life of the plant, to comprehend the sum of its functions, to answer first of all the questions natural to every healthy mind, whether child's or beginner's, and inquire what is the use to the plant of its root, stem, and leaves, its flower and fruit. To answer these questions rightly involves indeed at once all the preceding morphological inquiries, yet now in a new spirit; for these parts are no longer to be thought of as forms to be discussed by themselves, but as the result of the adaptations in the past and the present of the living being to its surroundings, of organism to environment, inside to outside. Some of these adaptations are active, enabling the plant to utilise its favourable conditions; others passive, to resist its unfavourable ones. Hence, whether we seek rationally to comprehend the history of botany, or its present state, or profitably to undertake its study, the physiological standpoint is the essential one. While recognising the importance and legitimacy of morphological inquiries, of description of general form, or of the study of organs, tissues, cells, and protoplasm (see BIOLOGY, § 3), we have distinctly to correlate and subordinate this sub-science to the physiological interpretation the mind is primarily seeking. Our biological science is a concrete and

dynamic, not an abstract and static one; its highest ideal is a synthetic view of functions and forms, and to this the analysis must be subservient.

Yet in the pre-Linnean, Linnean, and even post-Linnean period, the morphologists predominated almost exclusively: the discovery of the sexes of plants had indeed been made, but lay almost unutilised. Kölreuter might indeed experiment on the fertilisation of plants, and Sprengel exultantly publish his *Secret of Nature Discovered*, but these admirable labours were absolutely ignored until their repetition a century later by Darwin. The physiological investigations of Hales were similarly left uncontinued until comparatively recent times; and the yet more important line of discovery as to the function of leaves and their relation to the atmosphere initiated by Bonnet, Ingenhousz, and Senebier a century ago, seems to have met with similar indifference so far as professed botanists were concerned, although their transcendent physiological, chemical, and agricultural interest secured their continuance after Priestley by chemists like T. de Saussure and Boussingault.

The tendency towards recovery from this dry-as-dust character of the science can of course be traced in the writings of many botanists, especially after the time of Goethe. From faults of this order the 'Naturphilosophie,' of which Oken (q.v.) was the leading representative, certainly escaped. The peculiar extravagances of his speculations can only be explained as the violent reaction of an original but inaccurate mind of strong physiological bias, and his conspicuous failure to make any substantial contribution to science, and the natural repugnance of all the more exact although narrower minds around him to his baseless hypotheses, had a most disastrous effect in discouraging and postponing any trespass beyond the conventional lines of labour, or any progress to a fresher and more vital point of view. The developmental and physiological attitude was, however, much more effectively reasserted by Schleiden, whose *Principles of Botany* (1846) is full of a trenchant and perverid criticism, in spirit and expression often curiously suggestive of Carlyle. His views gained great weight from his high histological and physiological position as the founder of the cell theory; and in no small measure through him progress in Germany henceforth became so rapid as soon to place that country in the van instead of the rear. Not only have the labours of cryptogamists like Hofmeister, Cohn, and De Bary been of wide influence, but great schools have arisen of vegetable physiology, e.g. those of Sachs and Schwendener. Since 1859, the commanding influence of Darwin has been steadily saturating botanical thought. It is to him (see BIOLOGY, p. 161) we owe the authoritative accomplishment of the change from the primarily analytic and static, or morphological view of the plant-world, to the dynamic or physiological one. Here, with the science centred no longer upon the herbarium specimen, but once more, as it were, upon the living dryad, this retrospective sketch of the progress of botany may fitly conclude, leaving further details to be sought for in the articles devoted to the lives of different botanists, and to special departments of the subject.

2. *Present State of the Science.*—While more and more influenced by the historic movement above outlined, the present state of botanical research presents many examples of work in all departments and aspects of the subject. Whole battalions of workers are busy upon each successively deepening plane of analysis (see BIOLOGY, § 3). Thus, although this age of great travellers is necessarily ended, the explorer still finds abundant gleanings in many parts of the world, and the

minor fungi and algae will also long furnish an especially fertile field of systematic labour. The essential problems of the morphology of the higher plants may be said to be mainly solved; and though those presented by cryptogamic plants are less understood, the splendid generalisation which unifies the cryptogamic and phanerogamic plants as members of a single series must always remain the backbone of the subject. As respects tissue and cell, the progress of microscopic investigation is still yielding results of the highest importance, while the study of protoplasm is also rewarding an increasing number of workers. Physiology, as we have seen, is steadily acquiring its due predominance; indeed, the abundance of workers and of results demands a separate discussion. Here we may merely note how these workers fall into two main schools, the one, represented by Sachs, studying protoplasm and cell, tissue and organ, by help of all the resources of chemistry and physics; the other, of which Darwin was the head, concerned with the detailed interpretation of the adaptation of the plant to its mode of life, and with the history of its evolution. In this relation the studies of the botanical geographer and the palaeontologist are also of special importance; and it is naturally from this evolutionary school that the synthetic impulse chiefly emanates which is now beginning to be felt in all departments.

The voluminous literature embodying the results of all these labours is published sometimes as of old in separate volumes; more frequently in the proceedings of learned societies; but oftener in special journals too numerous for mention, of which the weekly *Botanische Zeitung* may be said to occupy the foremost place. Of this copious outflow of new published matter a partial idea can be obtained from such abstracts of selected papers as are published in the *Journal of the Royal Microscopical Society*; while the entire literature of each year is indexed and summarised in the volume of the *Botanisches Jahreshericht*. The most ready and convenient method both of obtaining a general idea of the literature of the subject, and of threading one's way into any of its minor mazes, is by help of Jackson's *Guide to the Literature of Botany* (Index Society, 1880).

3. *Method of Botanical Study.*—While the professed student of botany cannot avoid embarking upon this sea of literature, he can now happily obtain such more or less adequate section charts as are afforded by the manuals of Vegetable Physiology, of the Vegetable Kingdom, or of such special groups as Fungi and Bacteria, which the rising synthetic spirit of recent years has fairly commenced to supply. The beginner, however, demands a single introductory text-book; and simple as his demand may seem, it is absolutely the most difficult to supply. At best, such manuals can never replace good practical oral teaching, or keep abreast of the most recent developments of knowledge. Many of the existing manuals are even positively mischievous. Survivals of one or other of the earlier phases of the science, they land the student at the very outset at some long-past stage of its progress, where he is only too likely permanently to remain. And when not altogether pre-physiological and pre-evolutionary, they are apt to introduce the student to evolution and physiology at the conclusion of his course of study, instead of training him from the outset to grasp and interpret everything by their aid.

The worst of these many introductory manuals are mere crowded morphological compilations, all more or less antiquated, if not inaccurate. Even when they do not confuse and repel the student from the outset, they are wont to reverse that fundamental principle of progress from the known

towards the unknown which underlies all effective research. To the beginner the cell and protoplasm are not the fundamental units that they are to the teacher; they are precisely the things which lie furthest from his experience, and are only intelligible as the ultimate results of a long process of analysis (cf. BIOLOGY, § 3). Most manuals still retain these grammarians' vices more or less completely; even Sachs's serviceable *Text-book* is no exception. A partial transition is afforded by the mode of teaching, and series of manuals, of which Huxley and Martin's well-known *Elementary Biology* is the type. Here, although the attractive but illusory simplicity of proceeding from the solitary cell towards the cell-complex presented by the higher plants is retained, the steps are worked out concretely in the laboratory by the student for himself. Yet this utter change of the field of experience, or at least its sudden narrowing and deepening to that of the microscope, is not found in practice to be widely satisfactory or attractive to the student; for it is with the changeable carpet of the woods and fields, and its world-summary in the botanic garden, that most of the problems of the science and of its general interest alike for ever lie. With child and herbalist the student must begin in the fields, must learn on the one hand to observe and delight in the varied life of plants, and on the other to collect and name and analyse its forms. His studies begin with the buttercup, not with the amoeba; hence should be mentioned Oliver's small manual of *Elementary Botany* (1st ed. 1863), in which we have some record of the village-school teaching of Henslow, the botanist to whom Darwin was wont gratefully to ascribe the first scientific impulse of his life. Even in the best of such books the morphological bias usually remains; and hence it is that the majority of beginners soon instinctively abandon the whole subject as 'dry,' while the minority tend to become, with too many field naturalists, mere unthinking herborisers, and as Schleiden was wont to bewail, become intellectually lost and smothered amid accumulations of mere misused 'hay.' When this tendency is guarded against, however, a *flora* is invaluable; while even the worst text-book may be helpful as a work of reference. Among relatively good manuals may be mentioned those of Gray, Van Tieghem, Sachs, Luerssen, &c.

Is there then no way of escape from this perpetual tendency to the desiccation alike of the matter and of the spirit of the science? Assuredly; it is simply that while we have indeed to collect, and name, and analyse in death, these are not ends in themselves, but simply means towards widening and deepening the continuance of that observant delight in the sum of living things with which our interest surely began. In a word, the highest modern botany neither harvests plants with the herbalist, nor picks them to pieces with the child, but finds alike its rise and climax in watching the blossoms open and the bees come and go. The pedigree of the science is only on one side from the herbals of Dioscorides and Brunfels to the system of Linnaeus or Jussieu; the other and nobler line rises in Virgil's song of living nature, runs through the keen yet simple records of naturalists like those of Selborne and Walden, and culminates in the monumental volumes of the greater naturalist of Down. It is in the school, or rather garden, of Darwin, viewed both as the last of the old-world naturalists and as the first of evolutionists and physiologists, that our modern 'introduction to botany' must begin; studies in the herbarium of the systematist and the special laboratories of the physiologist, anatomist, and microscopist may follow thereafter as occasion requires. For the age of mere analysis, guided only by the love

of incessant novelty, or even by that of unity amid details, is ending: the student may now approach the science in a new spirit, since he can interpret its literature as but the incipient record of that vast drama of the evolution of life, at which it is his rare good fortune to be an awakening spectator.

Avoiding at the outset all terminology, and even all anatomy as well, the beginner cannot do better than attempt some actual observation of plants in their living relations, as of flowers to insects, and the like, and read some of the abundant and popular literature of such subjects. Or if his curiosity need awakening, it cannot fail to be stimulated by such a tale of living wonders as Darwin's classic *Insectivorous Plants*. His introduction to the subject through such characteristically animal attributes as digestion, movement, and sensitiveness, has the peculiar advantage of soon leading him to see how these are only the more conspicuous developments of functions widely diffused throughout the whole vegetable world, and inherent in all living matter alike. When these apparent anomalies are once understood as illustrations of the thorough unity of organic nature, he may still follow the course of Darwin's own mind and work in his *Climbing Plants and Movement in Plants*, and see how the wonderful sensitive-plant shows only a development of the 'sleep movements' of every cabbage-seedling, or how climbing and twining have been generalised with all other plant-movements as mere developments of the gentle *circumnutation* of every growing point. This is indeed questioned in detail, yet the fundamental lesson will have been learned, and the conventional Linnean and utilitarian conception of the plant, as a mere specimen, useful or otherwise, will have been clearly replaced by the physiological one.

But plants not only move but grow: they have relations to soil and atmosphere; they thirstily absorb and copiously transpire. Here we have to inquire into the chemical composition of plants, to investigate their ash and their organic constituents, and to inquire how these were respectively obtained (see VEGETABLE CHEMISTRY, SOILS, &c.). The germinating plant and the blossom are manifestly breathing, sometimes as warily as an animal (see ANIMAL HEAT); yet this, again, is no anomaly, for all living matter must oxidise and burn away. The functions of the leaf next engage us. We find that given green colouring matter (see CHLOROPHYLL), it can seize the energy of sunlight, reduce the carbonic anhydride of respiratory waste, and pour back oxygen into the atmosphere. Leaving for the present the problematical details of this process, but noting the perfect 'balance of nature' between vegetable and animal life, which is the general result, we must pass to the structure of leaves, and study this first in the light of these essential functions, thence working back to the structure of stem and root; and next, in so far as modified in relation to special functions and environment—e.g. floating or submerged, storing or protective from climate or enemies, insect-catching or attracting, and so on; while leaf-arrangement and bud-packing may here be appropriately considered.

But leaves are not merely vegetative, nor even confined to the purposes of the individual life; they became modified in relation to that of the species, and so we have ultimately *flowers*. This subordination of vegetative life powerfully affects the mode of branching, and gives us the phenomena of inflorescence, while in the individual flowers we have to note the forms and uses of all the separate parts—(1) accessory (sepals, petals), and (2) essential (stamens, carpels). We study the adaptation of all these (*a*) to the collective

and general function of (cross) fertilisation, and (b) to their respective special functions—(1) protection from climate and enemies, attractive, mechanical; (2) reproductive. The deep modification of floral types in relation to fertilisation by insects or by the wind, as of the lily type towards orchids on one hand, and grasses on the other, next demands notice; and the corresponding utility of floral details—e.g. position and shape of parts, colours, markings, and perfume—may be exquisitely traced.

In the same way, the mature ovary or *fruit* opens up a new wealth of interest; and its adaptations must be traced for (1) protecting the seed from climate and enemies; (2) dispersion of seed—(a) passive, by aid of wind, water, or animals; (b) active, by scattering or planting the seed. Finally, the mature ovule or *seed* rewards attention: its contained embryo has special protection from climate and enemies, its external 'albumen' or its internal store is an accumulated capital for its start in the struggle for existence; and this process of germination has again countless points of interest.

Having in this way gone through the general physiology of the plant, we must not only sum these up into a complete notion of our plants, which we are no longer in danger of thinking of as mere names or specimens, but as varied life-histories. Then, remembering that these are but the individuals of the larger drama, we learn to read some of the complex relations of living beings; to see their incessant individual and interspecific struggle for existence, yet also their increasingly important relations of interdependence.

But this wealth of interesting and varied knowledge, this complex lore of life, encourages us towards a wider and wider acquaintance with the flora, which now promises not merely new specimens for our collection, but an unknown wealth of new knowledge, we may almost say a multitude of strange individual biographies. Yet our observation, to be profitable, must be orderly and detailed: descriptions must be given; and these accurate and exhaustive, yet of tersest, as it were telegraphic brevity. As specimens and descriptions multiply, indexing and nomenclature become indispensable; and thus, at this point, we need help from, and are therefore ready to appreciate, the labours of Linnaeus and the whole systematic school. The conceptions of species and genus, and the modes of arranging these into larger groups, are thus no longer the arid abstractions they necessarily seemed before the intellectual need had arisen, but are now indispensable aids; while classification is no longer viewed as an arbitrary jargon only to be learned by rote, but as a provisional attempt towards the rational statement of the actual likenesses and differences between kindred forms, and towards the estimation of their relative importance. See BIOLOGY, § 2.

But since our systematic studies have now brought us face to face with the quarter of a million or more species of the modern herbarium, we require a botanic garden to illustrate a selection of these, nay, a smaller 'type botanic garden' as a key to this again. The phanerogamic series, and in some measure also the cryptogamic orders also, thus commence to lie more clearly before us. Finally, some knowledge of the distribution of the vegetable kingdom in space and time is here seen to be reasonable, and therefore interesting.

Our attempts at classification—at discerning the degrees of likeness—compel a detailed comparison of stems and roots, of leaves and flowers, and this often leads to a difficulty which long perplexed the botanist as well as the zoologist. Obvious and superficial resemblances due to

similarity of environment and function are seen to overlie irreconcilable differences of internal structure or principle; while conversely, some given structural principle becomes modified in the most widely different ways for function and environment. This at first led to mere confusion, but the patient and critical researches of the past generation have clearly distinguished between physiological and morphological resemblance (see MORPHOLOGY); while, finally, the study of individual development and racial evolution enable us to interpret these apparently fundamental and often functionless morphological characters as the residual traces of what were once themselves physiological adaptations in their turn; thus finally demonstrating that ultimate subordination of morphology to physiology which has already been so frequently pointed out. Within its minor province, however, which we have now fairly reached, the study of pure morphology must be abstracted from physiological considerations, and thus yields a series of generalisations of an intellectual simplicity and beauty analogous to those of the crystallographers. The utmost varieties of form in stem and root are generalised into the conceptions of ascending and descending *axes*; similarly, disregarding shapes and uses, we have bulb-scales, bud-scales, foliage-leaves, and bracts all generalised with sepals, petals, stamens and carpels as *appendages*. Conversely, the plant thus reduced to axis and appendages may be gradually modelled back into the essential types of the various natural orders.

Next, tissues and cells need consideration from the same strictly morphological standpoint, apart from use. Axis and appendages are thus reduced to their constituent systems of tissues—epidermic, fundamental, and fibro-vascular—and these may be either modelled in thought into the many varieties of tissue, of which these furnish the common materials, or traced back to the primeval embryonic tissue from which they are themselves differentiated. This, again, is found to have arisen from the multiplication and differentiation of a single embryonic cell, the (fertilised) plant-egg. And in this way the full magnitude and beauty of Schleiden's deep generalisation of ultimate unity of vegetable composition, which we call the cell theory, becomes manifest when we have similarly worked towards it, and, as it were, rediscovered it for ourselves (see CELL). From this to protoplasm, and thence to the attempt to return along that return wave of progress from simple cell to cell-aggregate and cell-complex, with which, as we have seen, so many manuals attempt to start, is an easy step. Such treatises may now profitably be employed; and we may, as it were, proceed to build up the living world afresh. We thus return once more to the actual living plant with which we started, yet rich in the results of our prolonged analysis. We know the process of development, the facts of structure, and their relation to function; hence the plant, as it were, is transparent to the intellectual eye, and our final mental image of it is something wholly different from the shrivelled index-mummy of an earlier but aberrant botanical school; it is a *working thought-model* which not only develops under the mental eye from unicellular simplicity to ultimate individual form and complexity, but in which all that is known of the details of structure and processes of life can be summoned up and watched at will, and of which the very incompleteness furnishes a perpetual suggestion and impulse to new research.

Although the processes of physiology and development have thus been kept in prominence from the outset, the cognate question of the origin of plants still remains for discussion. The history of the

conception of organic evolution, and the evidences of its actual occurrence, have yet to be set forth; while, if evolution has actually taken place, its rationale still demands explanation. The various hypotheses dealing with this, more especially the current one of natural selection, have thus to be considered; but the problem of variation demands a deeper treatment, of which the essential results have been already indicated under BIOLOGY (§6). In any case, so much is clear that our studies culminate in the perception of the vegetable kingdom as a genealogical tree. Our ultimate thought-model is thus 'the great tree of life, which fills with its dead and broken branches the crust of the earth, and covers the surface with its ever-branching and beautiful ramifications.' The problem of accounting for this incessant branching, of determining the law of this beautiful ramification, may therefore be postponed to EVOLUTION.

4. *Botany in Education.*—The place of botany in medical education is historically due to its fundamental relation to *materia medica*, and hence, since pharmacy is becoming completely distinguished from medicine, the teaching of botany is being abandoned in many medical schools. Yet its claims reappear in a far stronger way when it is considered as a preparation in elementary biology. For although the student of medicine may not unjustifiably care little for the collection or dissection of plants, viewed as an end in themselves, he can never dispense with that training in reading the processes of organic life which is afforded by these their simplest manifestations.

As a subject of general education, too, the importance of botany has long been recognised, and now that the dry-dust teaching of the subject is being superseded by a more living and interesting method, its re-adoption into the curriculum both of schools and colleges is in progress, and the botanic garden is becoming a familiar adjunct of the school. At anyrate so far as observing goes, the study of botany may more effectively be commenced in childhood than in later life, while initial discipline in drawing, in manipulation, and in the accurate use of language, may all be profitably associated with it. And if it be admitted that for the study of the social sciences preliminary biological studies are requisite, it is in obtaining some concrete acquaintance with the facts of botany that such preparation most conveniently begins.

See, besides BIOLOGY, and the articles on the several plants, groups of plants, and botanical authors, the following articles, which may be conveniently grouped in such order as the following:

Insectivorous Plants.	Species.	Vegetable
Plants, Movements of.	Darwinian Theory.	Kingdom.
Germination.	Heridity.	Cryptogams.
Fertilisation.	Environment.	Algae, Seaweeds.
Reproduction.	Aquatic Plants.	Bacteria.
Sex.	Variation.	Fungi, Lichens.
Cell.	Branch, Bud, Bulb.	Mosses, Ferns.
Chlorophyll.	Leaf, Stem, Root.	Gymnosperms.
Protoplasm.	Bark, Bast, Wood.	Monocotyledons.
Vegetable Physiology.	Flower, Fruit.	Dicotyledons.
Vegetable Chemistry.	Ovule, Seed.	Phanerogams.
Parasitism.	Histology.	Paleontology.
Plants, Diseases of.	Morphology.	Geographical
Evolution.	Botanic Garden.	Distribution.

Botany Bay, a shallow inlet in the coast of New South Wales, 5 miles S. of Sydney, discovered by Cook on his first voyage in 1770, and named by him from the great number of new plants in its vicinity. The spot where Cook landed, on the south shore, is now marked by a monument. In 1787 it received England's first penal colony in the east; and though it was supplanted next year by Port Jackson, a much better harbour to the north, yet it long continued to be the popular designation, not merely of this convict settlement, but of the Australian convict

settlements generally. The ground is still remarkable for the variety and beauty of the flowering shrubs and plants with which it is covered, but, unlike what might be expected, is a sandy and otherwise barren tract, for the most part unfit for cultivation. The village of Botany is connected with Sydney by tramway, and has several schools and a mechanics' institute.

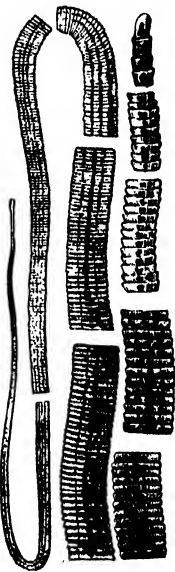
Both. ANDREAS and JAN, two celebrated Dutch painters, brothers, were born at Utrecht in 1600 and 1610. After studying under Abraham Bloemaert, they went to Italy, where they won for themselves a high reputation, Jan painting landscapes in the style of Claude, while Andreas filled in the figures in so careful a manner that the pictures look like the work of a single hand. Andreas was accidentally drowned in a canal in Venice in 1650; Jan then returned to Utrecht, where he died in 1651, or, some say, later than 1662.

Bothie (perhaps from the Gaelic *bothag*) signified originally a humble cottage or hut, but for a considerable number of years the term has been more popularly applied to a barely furnished, generally uncomfortable habitation for farm-servants. Though bothies are principally confined to the eastern and north-eastern counties of Scotland, a few are scattered over a much wider area. The bothie, strictly speaking, of modern times is situated either under the same roof as the stable, or oftener at a short distance from the steading. While the cubic contents are invariably disproportionate to the number of inmates, the furnishings are of an uninviting, sometimes actually repulsive character. One long, roughly manufactured table, a few long stools, a chair or two, a number of victual bunks, a few wooden caps or bowls, and a pot or two, constitute the bulk of the fittings. The inhabitants are generally unmarried men, who frequently have their own food to prepare. Some of the larger farmers provide a woman for cooking and cleaning the bothie. The bothie system can only be defended as under present circumstances a necessary evil. With the increase of farm-cottages, and under the pressure of public opinion and the growing desire for social elevation, the evil is diminishing, and will, there is reason to hope, be entirely abolished.

Bothnia, the name formerly given to a country of Northern Europe, extending along the east and west shores of the Gulf of Bothnia, the eastern portion now being comprised in Finland, and the western forming part of the Swedish province of Norrland.

The GULF OF BOTHNIA is that part of the Baltic Sea (q.v.) which lies to the north of Åland Islands, having on its eastern shore Finland, on the western and northern Sweden and Lapland. It extends from 60° to 66° N. lat. and 17° to 25° 35' E. long., its greatest length being 415 miles, and its average breadth 100 miles. Its depth varies from 20 to 50 fathoms, but both along its shores and in the middle are many small islands, sand-banks, rocks, and cliffs, called *skars*, which render the navigation difficult. It has many good harbours, and from Hudiksvall, Sundsvall, and other ports, timber is largely exported. The rivers which fall into this gulf, both from Sweden and Finland, are numerous; in the upper part of the gulf the alluvial deposits from these have caused the land to extend; in the extreme north-west, on the contrary, the land has apparently been sinking. The waters of the gulf are but slightly salt when the river-flow is greatest; but much more so in winter when the streams are frozen. In winter it is usually so hard frozen that it can be crossed by sledges.

Bothriocephalus (Gr. *bothrion*, 'a little pit,' and *cephale*, 'the head'), a flat parasitic worm allied to the tapeworm (*Tenia*), in the class Cestoda. In its adult stage it is chiefly found in man and dogs,



Bothriocephalus.

and is common in some parts of Europe, such as Western Switzerland, Northern and North-western Russia, Sweden, &c. The adult form consists of a small 'head' without hooks, but with two spindle-shaped lateral suckers, and of a long chain of joints budded off from the attached region. The joints are at first very slender, but gradually increase in length and breadth (the latter always the greater), and become at a certain distance from the head sexually mature 'individuals.' The joints differ conspicuously from those of the common tapeworm in the position of the genital apertures on the flat surface, and also in this, that they are not liberated from the host individually, but in stretches of a few at a time. The total chain may attain the prodigious length of 5 to 10 yards.

The life-history of the common *Bothriocephalus* of man (*B. latus*) cannot yet be said to be fully known with certainty. The embryo which escapes from the eggs of the ripe expelled joints (*proglottides*) differs from that of the *Tenia* in being ciliated and devoid of hooks. It is free-swimming, and passes, according to Brann, into a fresh-water fish—Pike (*Esox*) or Burbot (*Lota vulgaris*). There it becomes the usual asexual bladder-worm, after it has passed from the gut into the muscle of the fish. When the fish is eaten raw or half-cooked by dog or man, the bladder-worm becomes the 'head' of the *Bothriocephalus*, and attaching itself to the intestine, buds off the long chain of sexual individuals or joints. These are liberated as they ripen, and so the vicious circle is complete. *B. cordatus* is another not uncommon species found in fish-eating animals and occasionally in man. There are numerous species, some of which occur, as we would expect, in birds. *Bothriocephalus* is not so firmly attached to its host as the *Tenia* usually is, and thus admits more readily of expulsion by purgatives and similar expedients. An obvious preventive precaution for man is to see that the fish (*Esox* and *Lota*) be well cooked. See CESTODES, PARASITISM, TAPEWORM; and Leuckart's *Parasites of Man*.

Bothwell, a village of Lanarkshire, on the right bank of the Clyde, 8 miles SE. of Glasgow. The parish church includes the choir of the old collegiate church, founded in 1308. The river is crossed here by Bothwell Brig, the scene of Monmouth's bloody defeat of the Covenanters in 1679. A mile from the village are the stately ruins of Bothwell Castle, at whose base the Clyde washes the fair scenery of 'Bothwell Bank,' famous for centuries in Scottish song. Held before that by Olifurds and Murrays, Bothwell Castle was possessed by the Douglasses from 1365 till 1455; and to them it reverted in 1492, being now owned by their representative, the Earl of Home. Thus, contrary to Professor Schiern's statement, the infamous Earl of Bothwell had no personal connection with the castle, as neither had his nephew, Francis

Stewart (circa 1563–1624), who in 1576 was created Earl of Bothwell, and who figures in history through his daring attempts to obtain possession of the person of James VI. Bothwellhangh, about 2 miles ESE., gave designation to James Hamilton, assassin of the Regent Murray. Joanna Baillie was a native of Bothwell. Pop. (1881) 1520. See Sir W. Fraser's *Douglas Book* (4 vols. 1885).

Bothwell, JAMES HEPBURN, EARL OF, born in 1536 or 1537, received an ill training at Spynie Castle under his grand-uncle, Bishop Patrick Hepburn of Moray, and in 1556 succeeded his father as fourth earl and as hereditary Lord High Admiral. 'One of the greatest nobles in Scotland, he professed adherence to the Reformation, but stood staunchly by Mary of Guise, the Queen-regent, who in 1558 made him Warden of the Border Marches, and in 1560 sent him on a mission to France. Then it was that he first saw Queen Mary, and then that Throckmorton described him to Elizabeth as 'a glorious, rash, and hazardous young man, one whom his adversaries should have an eye to.' In 1561, shortly after her landing at Leith, Mary made him a privy-councillor; but his own turbulence and Murray's jealousy made the next three years of his life a period of captivity or exile—captivity first at Edinburgh Castle, and then for more than a twelvemonth in England. Not till her marriage with Darnley did Mary recall him from France; but, on 20th September 1565, she restored him to all his dignities; and five months later he married at Holyrood, with Protestant rites, the Catholic sister of the Earl of Huntly. By hostile accounts, he had ere this had many mistresses, and was addicted to far fouler vices. The hurried events of the next sixteen months must be told in full in our life of Queen Mary—the murder of Rizzio by Darnley (9th March 1566), the birth of James VI. (19th June), Bothwell's appointment as keeper of Dunbar, Mary's visit to him at Hermitage Castle, where he was lying sore wounded by the outlaw Jock Elliot (16th October), Darnley's murder by Bothwell (9th February 1567), the mock trial and acquittal (12th April), Mary's abduction to Dunbar (23d April), Bothwell's divorce (3d and 7th May), his elevation to the dukedom of Orkney (12th May), his marriage to Mary (15th May), and the last parting at Carberry Hill (15th June). On the 27th he sailed from Dunbar, and after brief visits to the Earl of Huntly and to Spynie Castle, passed on to Orkney and Shetland. Narrowly escaping a squadron sent in pursuit, and driven by a storm over to Norway, on 2d September he was brought by a Danish warship into Bergen, and detained as having no passport. He never regained his freedom, but from January 1568 was imprisoned at Malmø, and from June 1573, more rigorously, at Dragsholm in Zealand, where he seems to have gone mad before his death, on 14th April 1578. His Declaration, or so-called 'Testament,' acquitting Mary of all share in Darnley's murder, must, if genuine, have been made before October 1569, but is probably a forgery. See his Life by Professor Schiern (Danish, 1863; 2d ed. 1875; Eng. trans. by the Rev. D. Berry, 1880).

Botocudos, the most barbarous of the Indian tribes of Brazil, inhabiting the East Coast range, between the Rio Pardo and the Rio Doce. They are of middle height, sturdily built, and have small hands and feet; their features are strongly marked, with broad cheek-bones, and repulsively thick lips and nose, redeemed by white, regular teeth, and sparkling black eyes. They are rather yellow than copper-coloured, and their hair, of which only a tuft is worn on the smooth-shaven head, is not quite black. Their name is derived from the

Portuguese *botoqua*, 'bung-hole,' with reference to their under-lip pierced to hold a disc of wood, sometimes $\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter. They generally go quite naked, and have no fixed settlements, but in their wanderings through the country keep the routes open by means of bridges of creepers woven into ropes. Their food includes anything not absolutely poisonous that will stay their hunger; even soft earth is eaten. Their speech is entirely distinct from that of the other Indian nations; they have no religion, properly speaking, but are abjectly afraid of spirits, and pay a certain worship to the moon as creator of the world. Ungovernably passionate, they often commit outrageous cruelties; but through systematically cruel treatment they have been almost annihilated, and now number not more than 4000.

Botoshani, a town of Moldavia, on the Shiska, 62 miles NW. of Jassy, at the terminus of a branch railway, has an active trade in country produce. Pop. 39,941, 63 per cent. of whom are Jews.

Bo-tree, the name given in Ceylon to the PIPAL or PEETUL (q.v.) of India (*Ficus religiosa*). It is held sacred by the Buddhists, and planted close by every temple. The Bo-tree of the sacred but ruined city Anuradhapura, 80 miles N. of Kandy, is in all probability the oldest tree in the world. It is said to have been planted in 288 B.C., as a branch of the tree under which Gautama sat when he became Buddha. Sir James Emerson Tennent believed that the tree was in 1859 really of the wonderful age of 2147 years. Its leaves are carried away as treasures by pilgrims. The main stem was broken off by a storm in October 1887, and the severed portion solemnly cremated with religious rites. See Ferguson, *Ceylon in 1884*.

Botrychium. See MOONWORT.

Botrytis, a genus of Hyphomycete Fungi (see FUNGI), containing many of the plants commonly called Mould and Mildew (q.v.). The silkworm disease known as Muscardine (q.v.) is caused by *B. Bassiana*. Some species have been identified as simply conidium-bearing forms of Ascomycetes, like *Peziza* and *Sclerotinia*.

Botta, CARLO GIUSEPPE GUGLIELMO, an Italian poet and historian, born in Piedmont in 1766, studied medicine in Turin, and in 1794 became a physician to the French army. In 1799 he was appointed a member of the provisional government of Piedmont. After the incorporation of Piedmont with France, he repaired to Paris, where, as a member of the *Corps Législatif*, he gave offence to Napoleon. After the Restoration he became rector of academies at Nancy and Rouen; and in 1830 he was allowed to return to his native town, and received a pension. He died in Paris, August 10, 1837. Early works are those on Corfu (1799), Dalmatia (1802), and the American Revolution (1809); and his epic poem, *Il Camillo* (1806). His most important works are the *Histoire des Peuples d'Italie* (1825); and *Storie d'Italia dal 1490 al 1814* (20 vols. 1832), which consists of Guicciardini's work (1490-1534), and his own continuation of it. See the Life of him by Pavasio (1874).

Botta, PAUL EMILE, a distinguished archaeologist and traveller, the son of the preceding, was born at Turin in 1802. After extensive travels in the New World and in Egypt, he became in 1833 French consul in Alexandria, and thence undertaking a journey to Arabia, published the results in his *Relation d'un Voyage dans l'Yémen* (1841). He was soon after appointed consular agent at Mosul, and commenced a series of discoveries which form an epoch in archaeological science. Early in the spring of 1843 Botta began his diggings in the heaps of ruins near the Tigris

for monuments of Assyrian antiquity; and the *Journal Asiatique* soon contained accounts of his enterprise, and disquisitions on the cuneiform writing, which afterwards appeared as a separate publication under the title, *Mémoires de l'Écriture Cuneiforme Assyrienne* (1848). The French government took up the matter warmly, and a commission of learned men was appointed to conduct the publication of the magnificent archaeological work, *Monuments de Ninive* (1847-50). In 1848 he published *Inscriptions découvertes à Khorsabad*. In 1846 Botta was appointed consul-general at Jerusalem, and in 1857 at Tripoli. He returned to France in 1868, and died at Achères, near Poissy, 18th April 1870. See ASSYRIA, BABYLONIA.

Bottesini, GIOVANNI, contrabassist, born at Crema, in Lombardy, 24th December 1823. A concert tour, begun in 1840, and extending to America, established his fame as the greatest master of the double-bass fiddle. From 1846 he was director of Italian opera in Havana, Paris, Palermo, and Barcelona, and in 1864 began a series of compositions which ultimately included four operas and an oratorio. His best work, however, is his standard *Méthode Complète de Contre-basse*.

Böttger, JOHANN FRIEDRICH, improver of the porcelain manufacture, was born in 1682 or 1685 in Reuss-Schleiz. He became an enthusiast in the search for the philosopher's stone, and found patrons at the court of Saxony. The king, dissatisfied with his gold-making, sought to avail himself of the skill which Böttger really possessed, and the latter was compelled to enter upon those experiments, of which the celebrated Meissen Porcelain was the result (see POTTERY). He died March 13, 1719.

Botticelli, SANDRO, originally Alessandro Filipepi, an eminent painter of the Tuscan school of the 15th century, was born at Florence in 1447. He was at first apprenticed to Botticello, a goldsmith, whose name he assumed; but as he showed evidence of his genius for painting, he was transferred to the school of Fra Lippo Lippi. In his youth and early manhood, Botticelli felt the spell of classical mythology, and produced many works on classical subjects—the finest his 'Birth of Venus,' in the Uffizi, and his 'Venus with the Graces,' in the Florence Academy. Two smaller examples of this style are in the National Gallery. He also executed numerous devotional pictures, marked by much imaginative refinement—the 'Coronation of the Virgin,' in the Florence Academy, and the large circular 'Madonna and Child,' in the Uffizi, being famous examples. The 'Assumption of the Virgin,' mentioned by Vasari, was painted, about 1470, for Matteo Palmieri, according to the scheme of the Heavenly Hierarchies adopted in his poem the *Città di Vita*. After Palmieri's death, the picture was condemned and concealed from view, as heretical in teaching the final restoration of the angels who had remained neutral in the strife with Lucifer. It was acquired for 4500 guineas at the Hamilton Palace sale, by the National Gallery, which also contains a lovely 'Nativity,' hinting at the same heresy, a work bearing a mystical inscription, and the date, apparently, of 1500, formerly the property of Mr Fuller-Maitland. Botticelli's colouring, often enriched by gold, is brilliant and fanciful, and the minutest care is shown in all the details of his compositions. His flowers, especially his roses, are painted with marvellous delicacy. In the countenances, whether of Madonnas and angels, or of Venuses and Graces, there is a fascinating expression of wistful melancholy. Among Botticelli's greatest works are his three frescoes, representing the 'Life of Moses,' the 'Destruction of Korah, Dathan, and Abiram,' and the 'Temptation of Christ,' executed before 1484, in the Sistine Chapel

at the Vatican. He was powerfully impressed by the teaching of Savonarola; and, according to Vasari, in his later years he 'occupied himself with commenting on a certain part of Dante, and made figures for the *Inferno*, and put them into print.' His great series of pen and silver-point drawings, illustrating the *Divina Commedia*, was acquired by the Berlin Museum at the Hamilton Palace sale. It has been admirably reproduced in phototype, with the addition of eight other drawings of the set which were discovered in the Vatican, and facsimiles of the engravings to the Dante of 1481, which are now believed to have been executed—perhaps by Baldini—under Botticelli's influence. His exact share in these and several other engravings is very doubtful. In age Botticelli became lame, decrepit, and unfit for work, and he died in 1515, a pensioner of the Medici family.

Böttiger, KARL AUGUST, a German archaeologist, born in 1760 at Reichenbach, in Saxony, was successively rector at Guben (1784) and Bautzen (1790), and director of the Gymnasium at Weimar (1791). His literary activity was prodigious, but his works, once held in high estimation, are now only valued for the mass of materials they contain. From 1804 he delivered lectures on special branches of classical antiquities and art at Dresden, where he died in 1835. Among his writings may be mentioned *Sabina* (1803), *Amalthea* (1820-25), and *Ideen zur Kunst-mythologie* (1826-36). His smaller works have been collected and edited by Sillig (1837).

Bottle (Fr. *bouteille*, which is the dim. of *botte* or *boute* [allied to Eng. *butt*], 'a vessel'), a vessel, generally of a round shape, with a narrow neck, for holding liquids. The first bottles were probably made of the skins of animals, mostly goats—of this kind were the bottles spoken of in Scripture. Skin bottles are still used in Southern Europe for the transport of wine, and by tribes of Africa and Asia for carrying water. The ancient Egyptians had bottles of alabaster, stone, gold, ivory, and other substances. Glass bottles, often of great beauty, were made by the Phœnicians and Romans, and in the middle ages at Venice. Porous earthenware bottles have been long in use in the East to keep water cool in. The Chinese have beautiful small bottles of jade, rock-crystal, agate, and a peculiar glass of two coloured layers. Modern bottles are chiefly made of Glass (q.v.), and of stoneware (see POTTERY). In America, cheap, light, unbreakable bottles for most ordinary purposes have of late been made of paper, especially at Chicago. A long strip of paper is bent round a mandrel, and so made into a tube, which, after being covered with an outer glazed sheet of paper, is cut into lengths. These are fitted with bottoms and necks of paper or of wood, and the insides are lined with a composition intended to resist the action of acids, dyes, spirits, &c.

Bottle-brush Plants, a name applied to species of *Metrosideros*, *Callistemon*, and other genera of Myrtaceæ (q.v.), which agree in having sessile crowded flowers with reduced floral envelopes, but large conspicuous compound stamens; the whole inflorescence thus suggesting a red bottle-brush.

Bottle Chart is one which purports to show the track of sealed bottles thrown from ships into the sea. Lieutenant Becher, an English naval officer, constructed in 1843 a chart of bottle-voyages in the Atlantic, so as to illustrate the currents. The time which elapses between the launching of the bottle from the ship and the finding it on shore, or picking up by some other ship, has varied from a few days to sixteen years; while the straight-line distance between the two points has varied from a few miles to 5000 miles. The

Bottle Chart has been re-edited from time to time, and republished.

Bottle-glass. See GLASS.

Bottle-gourd (*Lagenaria*, from Lat. *lagena*, 'a bottle'), a sub-genus of *Cucurbita* (natural order Cucurbitaceæ, q.v.). The Common Bottle-gourd, or False Calabash (*C. lagenaria* or *L. vulgaris*), is a native of India, but is now common almost everywhere in warm climates. It is a climbing musky-scented annual, clothed with soft down, having its flowers in clusters, and a large fruit, from 1 to sometimes even 6 feet in length, which is usually shaped like a bottle, an urn, or a club. The fruit has a hard rind, and when the pulp is removed and the rind dried, it is used in many countries for holding water, and is generally called a *Calabash* (q.v.). In its wild state it is very bitter and poisonous, and even in cultivation some of its varieties exhibit not a little of the bitterness and purgative properties of *Colocynth* (q.v.). Other varieties, particularly the more luxuriant, however, have a cooling edible pulp. The bottle-gourd appears to have been introduced into Europe about the close of the 16th century, but it requires for its advantageous cultivation a warmer climate than that of Britain. It is, however, much cultivated in warmer countries as an esculent, and its rind lends itself to many domestic uses, often furnishing, for instance, not only bottles and dishes, but spoons and hats. It is grown in some parts of the United States. Another species, *L. idolotrica*, is a sacred plant of the Hindus, much employed in their religious ceremonies.

Bottlehead, or BOTTLENOSE (*Hyperoodon*), one of the toothed whales in the same family as the Sperm (*Physteridae*). The most striking feature is the abrupt rise of the head from the small snout. The bones forming the front of the upper jaw rise suddenly behind the nostrils, expanding in crests as they ascend. The result is a rounded and prominent upper head. There is a small conical tooth hidden in the gum at the end of each lower jaw, and sometimes another behind this again. The blow-hole



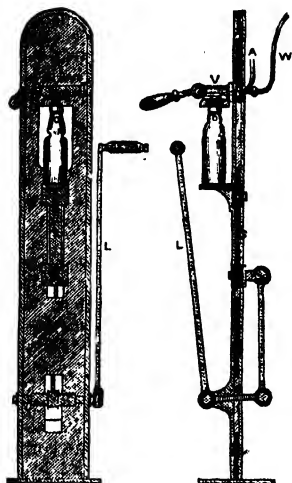
Bottlehead.

is crescent-shaped. The colour is blackish, verging to white below. Two species are certainly known, both from the North Atlantic, and sometimes found in the North Sea. *H. rostratus* (or *bidens*, or *butzkopf*), the common *Bottlenose*, measures about 24 feet in length, and is sometimes stranded on European shores. One described by Hunter in 1787 was caught above London Bridge. *H. latifrons* is somewhat larger, has a flatter forehead, and attains a length of 30 feet. The genus *Xiphius* is closely allied. The *Hyperoodon* must be distinguished from the Bottle-nosed Dolphin (*Delphinus tursio*) occasionally found on British coasts. See CETACEA, WHALE.

Bottling and Bottling Machines. Attention to bottling is of importance not only for the fluids we drink, but also for medical preparations, perfumes, and other liquid bodies, where a porous cork permitting volatile substances to escape, or air to enter, often leaves the contents of the bottle quite worthless. To clean bottles thoroughly they should be left in warm water, containing soda, long enough for any dry films to soften, and then everything adhering to the sides should be removed with a bottle brush. After several rinsings they

should be quite filled with clean water before being left to drain. Shaking up with vitriol removes petroleum and paraffin oil.

From many varieties of machines in use for bottling Aerated Waters (q.v.) we select one (Codd's) for description which is reported to be very serviceable, and which will be easily understood



Codd's Bottling Machine.

from the annexed cuts—one a front and the other a side view partly sectional. Its important parts are the valve, V, for controlling the admission of the aerated water (it does more than this), the lever, L, and slide, S, with their connecting link, which raise the bottle into position and lower it a little for removal when filled. As aerated waters require to be kept under pressure, there is a metal cap at C, supplied internally with an india-rubber ring or washer, against which the mouth of the bottle is pressed to prevent the escape of gas. This form of machine is only suitable for bottles with glass ball stoppers. The attendant has just to raise the bottle into position by the lever, and open the valve by the handle, when the aerated water rushes into the bottle, and, as it fills, lifts the glass stopper into its place. He then lowers the bottle, removes it, and repeats the operation with others. The valve, V, is so designed that while it admits aerated water from the pipe, W, it at the same time lets the displaced air in the bottle escape at the pipe, A.

When it is used for lemonade or any similar sweet drink, the proper quantity of sirup is put into the bottle before it is filled with the aerated water. Another form of this machine has a sirup pump attached to it, in which case the same handle works the valves to admit both sirup and aerated water.

A very simple and efficient kind of bottling apparatus for beer consists of a small wooden trough fed from a barrel, and of sufficient capacity to hold as much liquid as will keep a constant flow through six siphon tubes. The machine is set agoing by the operator sucking the air out of the siphon tubes. He removes a bottle from each of these as fast as it is filled.

For corking-machines, see CORK.

Bottomry. BOND OR CONTRACT OF, is a security by which a ship and tackle is expressly mortgaged or *hypothecated* by the owner or master, for repairs to the ship, or for money advanced for its outfit or some other necessary purpose abroad. It is called a security by *bottomry*, because the bottom or keel of the ship is figuratively used to express the whole of it. The loan or debt is repayable only in the event of the ship's safe arrival at the port of destination; and in consideration of this risk, the lender or creditor exacts a premium, the amount of which depends on the nature of the adventure. If the ship be totally lost, the lender loses his money; but if she returns safely, he recovers his principal,

together with interest at the rate agreed upon. These contracts are not treated as ordinary mortgages, and preferred according to the order of date; but inversely, the latest is preferred to the preceding, because it is presumed that the last loan saved the ship. Bottomry is sometimes granted in the form of a bill, sometimes as a bond, but it must always be in writing, and must state the sum advanced, with the marine interest agreed on (which often amounts to 25 per cent.), the voyage proposed, with the duration of the risk, and whether the security includes cargo as well as ship. The master's authority to grant such a bond arises only in foreign ports, and depends on the question whether the money is necessary to complete the enterprise. The owners of the ship are not personally liable for the advance, as the marine interest generally swallows up their profit, but the master is liable on his own obligation. Where the personal credit of the owner might be obtained by telegraph, the bottomry bond, granted without his authority, is void. The bottomry creditor is not subject to general or particular average. Bottomry was not known to the civil law; the law of the United States is based on that of England. Bottomry contracts, which are subjected to rigid scrutiny, are assignable and negotiable. See the works of Arnould, Parsons, Marshall, Abbott, Park, &c. on Marine Insurance; also INSURANCE, MERCHANT SHIPPING ACT, RESPONDENTIA.

Botzen. or BOZEN (Ital. *Bolzano*), an important trading town of the Austrian Tyrol, charmingly situated on the Eisach, 35 miles NNE. of Trent by the Brenner Railway. An Italian-looking place, it has several churches and monasteries—one of the former dating from the 13th century—a castle, and a gymnasium. It is protected from the inundations of a mountain-torrent in the vicinity by a strong wall about 2 miles in length. It has manufactures of silk, linen, hosiery, leather, &c.; and four extensive annual fairs. Wine and fruits in abundance are produced in the environs. Pop. (1880) 10,641.

Boucher. FRANÇOIS, a French painter, was born at Paris in 1703, studied at Rome, and became a member of the Academy (1734), and painter to Louis XV. (1765). He was an artist of much ability, and equally facile in the production of figure or landscape pictures. The number of his pictures and drawings is said to have exceeded 10,000; he also executed engravings. At his death, which occurred May 30, 1770, he was director of the French Academy.

Boucher de Crèvecœur de Perthes, JACQUES, anthropologist and writer, born at Rethel, 10th September 1788. Through his father, an active botanist, he came under the notice of Napoleon, and was employed in numerous missions to Italy, Germany, Austria, and Hungary. From the Restoration he lived at Abbeville, and there he died, 5th August 1868. He wrote travels, poems, and an early apology for free-trade; but only his works on the archaeology of man are of consequence now. The first, *De la Création* (5 vols. 1839-41), already brought him some reputation, but his long investigations on stone weapons and other remains of early human civilisation in the tertiary and older quaternary diluvial strata made him famous. His most striking discovery was that of a fossil human jawbone in the quarries of Moulin-Quignon, near Abbeville, in 1863. Other works of great value are *Antiquités Celtiques et Antédiluviennes* (3 vols. 1846-65), and *De l'Homme Antédiluvien et de ses Œuvres* (1860).

Bouches-du-Rhone ('mouths of the Rhone'), a département in the south-east of France, formerly a part of Provence, with an area of 1971 sq. m.

It is divided into the three *arrondissements* of Marseilles, Aix, and Arles. Through the northern and eastern districts the Maritime Alps slope gently down to the basin of the Rhone. Towards the seashore there are several plains of considerable extent; the western portion called the *Camargue* is very unhealthy. The amount of arable land is small; heaths, woods, wastes, and water occupy the rest. The Rhone—which between Arles and the sea separates into several branches, forming a delta, called *Ile de la Camargue*—and its affluent, the Durance, are the principal rivers. The department is intersected by several canals of importance, and by a great aqueduct conveying water from the Durance to Marseilles. The soil in some parts is strongly impregnated with salt. The great plain of Crau, to the east, is stony and arid. Besides the *Etang de Berre*, there are numerous salt-lakes communicating with the sea by natural or artificial channels. Marble, limestone, and gypsum are found, and from 1000 to 2000 men are engaged in coal-mining. Leather, hats, perfumes, soap, olive-oil, vinegar, and chemical products are manufactured; there are extensive brandy-distilleries and sugar-refineries; the produce of the salt-works is larger than that of any other part of France, and that of wine is large. Pop. (1872) 554,911; (1886) 604,857.

Boucicault, DION, dramatist and actor, was born at Dublin, 26th December 1822. He was educated at University College, London, and in 1841 produced his first drama, *London Assurance*, before he was nineteen years old. It was signally successful, and its success determined his career. Once embarked in the career of a playwright, Boucicault produced piece after piece in rapid succession, in comedy, farce, and melodrama. When he went upon the stage he secured a high reputation as an actor. From 1853 till 1860 he was in America. On his return to England in 1860, he produced *The Colleen Bawn*, the first of several popular Irish dramas which proved among the most successful of modern times. This was followed by *Arrah-na-Pogue* (1864), and *The Shaughraun* (1875). The popularity of another 'sensation' drama, *The Octoroon* (1861), was inferior only to that of *The Colleen Bawn*. For a time he was joint-manager of the Adelphi, and in 1862 opened a new theatre in London, the Westminster, but was ruined by the speculation. He afterwards re-established his fortunes by new plays, in some of which he and his wife took the leading parts. *The Streets of London*, *Flying Scud*, and *After Dark* were the most notable of his later works, all of which are of the 'sensation' school, with which, it may be said, he first familiarised the public. He has written more than 140 original pieces and adaptations. In 1876 he went to live in New York, but in 1887 visited England, taking part in one of his own plays, *The Jilt*.

Boué, AMI, geologist, was born at Hamburg, 16th March 1794; studied at Geneva, Paris, Edinburgh, and Berlin; lived at Paris, and then at Vienna, where he died, 22d November 1881. He travelled extensively, and wrote many geological works, one on the geology of Scotland (1820), and three on the geology of Turkey in Europe.

Boufarik, a town of Algeria, 23 miles S. of Algiers by rail. Pop. 3621.

Boufflers, LOUIS FRANÇOIS, DUC DE, peer and marshal of France, one of the most distinguished generals of his time, was born in 1644, of an ancient family of Picardy. He began his military career early, and served under the great Condé, Turenne, and Catinat in the wars of Louis XIV., with such distinction that he received the mar-

shal's baton in 1693. His famous defence of Namur against William III. in 1695, and of Lille against Prince Eugene in 1708, made him a duke and peer of France. After the defeat of Malplaquet in 1709, he conducted the French retreat with admirable skill and success. He died at Fontainebleau, 20th August 1711.—His son, JOSEPH MARIE, Duc de Boufflers (1706–47), was likewise a marshal of France.

Boufflers, STANISLAS, MARQUIS DE, commonly styled the Chevalier de Boufflers, was born at Lunéville in 1737. He was the son of the witty Marquise de Boufflers, who played a brilliant part at the court of Stanislaus, the exiled king of Poland. He rose to the rank of marshal, was a poet and literary man of some note, and much admired in the French *salons* of his time. He died in 1815. We have his *Œuvres Choisies* (4 vols. 1828), and a new edition of his *Contes en Vers et en Prose* (1878).

Bougainville, LOUIS ANTOINE DE, navigator, was born at Paris, 11th November 1729, studied there, and attained great proficiency both in languages and science. In 1755 he went as secretary of the French embassy to London. In 1756 he acted as Montcalm's aide-de-camp in Canada, where he served with distinction, as also in the campaign of 1761 in Germany. After the peace he entered the naval service, in which he soon signalled himself. He undertook a voyage round the world (1766–69) with a frigate and a St Malo transport, the first voyage round the world which the French ever accomplished. He gave an account of it in his *Description d'un Voyage autour du Monde* (1771–72). Geography and other branches of science were enriched by it with many discoveries. In the North American war Bougainville commanded several ships of the line, and in 1779 was made *chef d'escadre*: in the following year he was made a field-marshal in the army. After the outbreak of the Revolution he retired from public service, and devoted himself entirely to scientific pursuits. By Napoleon I. he was made a senator, count of the empire, and member of the Legion of Honour. After him are named one of the Solomon Islands, a strait in the New Hebrides, and a bay on the north side of the Strait of Magellan. He died 31st August 1811.

Bougainvillea, a neotropical genus of Nycta-



Bougainvillea, foliage and flowering branches: a, two sets each of three flower-buds, with coloured bracts.

ginacea, frequently trained over trellises or under

the roofs of greenhouses, on account of the beauty of its peculiar inflorescence, the small flowers, which grow in threes, being almost concealed by as many membranous bracts of splendid rosy or purple colour.—The same name is given to a genus of hydroid zoophytes.

Bough, SAMUEL, R.S.A., landscape-painter, was born 8th January 1822, at Carlisle, where for two years he was employed in the office of the town-clerk. He received hints from various painters, but never obtained any systematic art instruction. In 1845 he was a scene-painter in Manchester, and later in Glasgow, where Daniel Maenee, afterwards P.R.S.A., encouraged him to become a landscape-painter; and he shortly produced several sketches in Cadzow Forest, and 'Shipbuilding on the Clyde.' Among the more important of his oil-pictures are 'Edinburgh from the Canal' (1862); 'Holy Island' (1863); 'In the Trossachs' (1865); 'The Vale of Leith' (1866); 'Kirkwall Harbour' (1867); 'Borrowdale'; 'St Monance'; 'London from Shooter's Hill' (1872). His 'Royal Volunteer Review' (1860) is in the National Gallery of Scotland. His best oil-pictures are spirited and expressive in touch, and possess a fine sense of atmosphere; but he frequently painted carelessly and hurriedly, and produced much, especially during his later years, that was unworthy of his brush. His numerous water-colours are of more uniform excellence; they are strongly influenced by the example of David Cox, and are especially remarkable for the delicate gray tones of their skies. In 1857 Bough was elected A.R.S.A., and in 1875 R.S.A. He had settled in Edinburgh in 1855, where he died 19th November 1878. A collection of over 200 of his works was brought together in the Glasgow Institute in 1880.

Bought and Sold Notes. See CONTRACT NOTES.

Bougie, a port of Algeria, on the Bay of Bougie, 120 miles E. of Algiers. Bougie was the *Sidda* of the Romans, and in the 5th century was a chief seat of the Vandals; under the Arabs it was raised to such importance that it was called Little Mecca, and was the entrepôt of the trade between Christendom and North Africa; but after various vicissitudes, it had sunk to a small village in 1833, when the French captured the place. Their extensive works have since rendered it a strong fortress, and a commercial centre of some value. Pop. (1886) 12,107.

Bougies are rods of metal or other substances, used for distending contracted mucous canals, as the gullet, bowels, or urethra (see STRICTURE). For the urethra, they are frequently of German silver or pewter, and vary from $\frac{1}{8}$ th to $\frac{3}{4}$ th of an inch in diameter. Still larger sizes are used by many surgeons. For the other canals, they are usually made of plaited thread, like an ordinary riding-whip, impregnated with a substance called *gun-elastic*, of which the chief constituent is india-rubber. This combination of materials possesses a degree of firmness united with flexibility, and a smoothness of surface very suitable for the end to be attained. In form they are cylindrical, with either a slightly tapered round extremity, or a somewhat acorn-shaped dilatation at or near the point. The name is also applied to rods of similar shape made of gelatin, cacao-butter, or some such substance, which melts at the temperature of the body, and charged with medicaments, which it is desired to apply to the mucous membrane of the urethra or the nasal cavities.

Bouguier, PIERRE, a great French physicist, born at Croisic, in Brittany, 16th February 1698. In 1735 he was sent with Godin, La Condamine, and

Jussieu to South America to measure a degree of the meridian at the equator. During their seven years' absence Bouguier and his companions made valuable observations on the length of the seconds pendulum at great elevations, the deviation of the plumb-line from a vertical position through the attraction of a neighbouring mountain, the limit of perpetual snow, the obliquity of the ecliptic, &c. He published an account of his labours in the *Théorie de la Figure de la Terre* (1749). His investigations concerning the intensity of light laid the foundation of photometry; their results were fully embodied in his *Traité d'Optique* (1760). In 1748 Bouguier invented the heliometer, afterwards brought to greater perfection by Fraunhofer. He died at Paris, August 15, 1758.

Bouguereau, WILLIAM ADOLPHE, born at La Rochelle, 30th November 1825. While engaged in business at Bordeaux he was instructed in art; and proceeding to Paris, he worked under Picot, and in the Ecole des Beaux Arts, where in 1850 he gained the *Grand Prix de Rome*, which entitled him to study in Italy, whence he returned in 1855. In 1849 he produced his dignified and austere 'Angel of Death,' but he first made a distinct mark in 1854 by 'The Body of St Cecilia borne to the Catacombs,' which, along with his 'Philomela and Progne' (1861), is now in the Luxembourg, and his 'Maria Consolatrix' (1877) was also a government commission. Among his other works may be named 'The Bather' and 'Vow of St Anne' (1870); 'Harvest-time' and 'The Mower' (1872); 'Nymphs and Satyrs' (1873); 'Homer and his Guide' (1874); 'Holy Family' (1875); 'Youth and Love' (1877); 'Triumph of Venus' (1879); and 'Alma Parens' (1883). His productions are distinguished by a kind of cultured academic grace, finished and balanced design, and careful execution with a smooth surface. He is seen at his best in classical subjects, and in softly idealised scenes from rural life. Occasionally he has painted portraits; and among his decorative works are subjects in the Hôtel Péreire, Paris, a ceiling in the theatre, Bordeaux, and paintings in the churches of St Clotilde and St Augustin, Paris.

Bouillé, FRANÇOIS CLAUDE AMOUR, MARQUIS DE, a distinguished French general, was born in 1739 at the castle of Cluzel, in Auvergne, entered the army at the age of fourteen, and served with distinction in Germany during the Seven Years' War. In 1768 he was appointed governor of the island of Guadeloupe, and afterwards commander-in-chief of all the French forces in the West Indies. When war broke out in 1778, he successively took from the British, Dominica, Tobago, St Eustache, Saba, St Martin, St Christopher's, and Nevis. Louis XVI. nominated him a member of the Assembly of Notables in 1787-88; in 1790 he was made commander-in-chief of the army of the Meuse, the Saar, and the Moselle. His decision of character prevented the dissolution of the army and the outbreak of civil war. For his share in the attempted escape of Louis XVI. he had to flee from France. In 1791 he entered into the service of Gustavus III. of Sweden, and afterwards served in the corps of the Prince of Condé. He rejected a proposal made in 1793 that he should take the chief command in La Vendée; and went to England, where his advice in West Indian affairs was useful to the government, and where he wrote his *Mémoires sur la Révolution Française*. He died in London, 14th November 1800. See Gabriel's *Louis XVI.*, Bouillé, et *Varennes* (1874).

Bouillon, a duchy, originally German, in the Belgian part of the grand-duchy of Luxemburg, consisting of a woody and hilly district in the Ardennes, about 145 sq. m. in extent. This duchy

was the possession of the famous crusader, Godfrey of Bouillon, who, in order to raise money for his crusade, pledged it in 1095 to the Bishop of Liège. It was conquered by France in the war of 1672. By the peace of 1814, the greater part of it was included in the grand-duchy of Luxembourg, and the sovereignty of it passed to the king of the Netherlands. By the revolution of 1830, Bouillon, along with Luxembourg, was separated from the Netherlands, and in 1837 united to Belgium.—The principal town is Bouillon, situated between steep hills on the Semoy, 9 miles NNE. of Sedan, and near the French frontier. Pop. 2765. For the crusader, see GODFREY.

Bouilly, JEAN NICOLAS, a prolific French dramatist, born at La Coudraye, near Tours, 24th January 1763. During the fever of the Revolution he filled with rare prudence several important public offices. He died at Paris, 14th April 1842. In his writings, Bouilly reveals a character of rare elevation and sincerity, but the effect is somewhat marred by his prolixity and by an over-sentimentality that earned him the name of the 'poète lacrymal.' Of his plays the following deserve mention: the comic opera *Pierre le Grand* (1790), *L'Abbé de l'Épée* (1795), *Les deux Journées* (1800) for Cherubini's music, *Fanchon* (1803), *Une Folie* (1803), *Madame de Sévigné* (1805). He wrote many popular books for the young, including *Contes à ma Fille* (1809).

Boulak, or BULAK, the port of Cairo, on the Nile, opposite an island of the same name, about one mile NW. from that city, of which it forms a suburb. It is a close-built town of poor houses, extremely dirty, with very narrow and irregular unpaved streets. It contains the custom-house and warehouses of Cairo, a school of engineering, cotton, paper, and sugar factories, the government printing-press, and the splendid and famous national museum of Egyptian antiquities (formed by Mariette Pasha). In the latter are stored the results of extensive and systematic excavation, including also many of the historical relics brought to light by the agency of the Egyptian Exploration Fund. Pop. 20,000.

Boulainvillers, HENRY, COUNT, an eminent French author, descended from an ancient family in Picardy, was born 11th October 1658, at St Saire, in Normandy. He resigned the military profession, and devoted himself to the investigation of the genealogy of the ancient families of France. His writings, which are pervaded by extreme aristocratic sentiments, were first published after his death, which took place on 23d January 1722. The most valuable of them are his *Histoire de l'Ancien Gouvernement de France* (3 vols. 1727), his *Histoire de la Pairie de France et du Parlement de Paris* (2 vols. 1753), and his *Abrégé Chronologique de l'Histoire de France* (3 vols. 1733).

Boulanger, GEORGE ERNEST JEAN MARIE, a French general, was born at Rennes in 1837, and was educated at St Cyr. He served in Algeria, Italy, and Cochin-China; was with Bazaine at Metz, but escaped to Paris, and held a lieutenant-colonelcy under the Government of National Defence; in 1876 headed the deputation of French officers at the celebration of the centenary of American Independence; became brigadier-general in 1880, by the influence of the Duc d'Aumale; and in 1884-85 commanded the army of occupation in Tunis, till an arbitrary attempt to exalt the military over the civil authority led to his recall. He was wounded in action in Italy and during the Commune. He was minister of war from January 1886 to May 1887, urged forward the expulsion of the Duc d'Aumale and the other princes from France, and through the introduction of some desirable army reforms and the appearance of a

fortunate music-hall song in his praise, was adopted as the embodiment of the 'revenge' policy by the Parisians, who for some months suffered from what was termed the Boulanger fever. In 1887, while commanding an army corps at Clermont-Ferrand, he was, for his remarks on the then war minister, ordered under arrest for thirty days; and in the same year he challenged Jules Ferry for publicly referring to him as a café concert hero. In March 1888, for disobedience to orders, he was deprived of his command, and placed on the retired list; but was immediately elected deputy for Dordogne, and shortly thereafter for Nord.

Boulay de la Meurthe, ANTOINE, COUNT, a French statesman, born at Châmonzey, in the Vosges, in 1761. He espoused the cause of the Revolution, but became known as the opponent both of Jacobinism and the despotism of the Directory. Under the Empire he had an important part in the preparation of the *Code Civil*, and afterwards laboured with zeal in the administration of the national domains. He adhered to the cause of Napoleon, who had created him count in 1813, and was conveyed by the Russians, after the second Restoration, into Germany. Returning to France in 1819, he lived in retirement at Paris, where he died 2d February 1840. He published an essay on the *Commonwealth in England* (1799), and *Bourricone et ses Erreurs* (1830). His son Henri (1797-1858) made some figure as a social reformer.

Boulder-clay is a stony clay which has a very wide geographical distribution. It occurs more or less abundantly in the British Islands, as far south at least as the Bristol Channel and the valley of the Thames. In like manner, it overspreads extensive areas in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Sleswick-Holstein, Holland, Hanover, Prussia, Saxony, Poland, and Central and Northern Russia. In the lower valleys of the Alps, and many other mountain districts of Central and Southern Europe it is also well known. It has likewise been traced over vast regions in British America and the northern states of the Union. Boulder-clay varies in thickness from a few feet up to 20 or 30 yards being generally thickest upon low-lying regions, and thinning away as it is followed up towards the mountains. It is unstratified, and contains stones scattered confusedly through its mass without any reference to their relative size and weight. These stones are of all shapes and dimensions, from mere grit up to great blocks several tons in weight. Many of them are blunted and subangular, and show on one or more sides that smoothed, abraded, and striated appearance which is characteristic of glacial action. The clay itself is generally more or less tough and hard, and has apparently been subjected to intense pressure, as is further shown by the presence now and again of a kind of 'pseudo-lamination' or 'pseudo-bedding,' often marked by differences of colour, and sometimes by lines of stones. These structures appear to be due to the shearing and yielding of the clay under pressure. Here and there lenticular patches of water-worn stones, and gravel, sand, and clay occur completely inclosed in the tumultuous stony clay—being confused, contorted, and involved with the latter in such a way as to show that they and the stony clay had been rolled forward upon each other. The included stones are more or less local in character—that is to say, the great majority in any individual sheet of boulder-clay have been detached from rocks belonging to the drainage area within which that particular sheet of boulder-clay occurs; while those fragments which have come from a greater distance can be shown to have travelled in one and the same direction as the locally derived stones and boulders. In like manner, the colour of

the clay is more or less local. Thus, in regions composed largely of red-coloured rocks, the boulder-clay is red; while it may be yellow, gray, or blue in other regions, according to the prevailing colours of the rocks upon or near to which it lies. Fossils have been met with at rare intervals in boulder-clay, but these are always derivative, and not unfrequently they are smoothed and striated in the same manner as the stones; in other words, they are boulders just as are the stones amongst which they lie. In many places, where the boulder-clay has been stripped off the underlying rocks, these are found to present a highly smoothed and abraded surface, stroaked with rectilinear grooves and scratches, the trend or direction of which corresponds with that followed by the stones and boulders in the boulder-clay. Not unfrequently, however, the underlying rocks present a very shattered and confused appearance under the clay—larger and smaller masses being inclosed in the lower part of the boulder-clay—the bottom portion of which, indeed, is often entirely composed of the debris of underlying rock-masses, which have all the appearance of having been torn out of their places and dragged forward in the direction followed by the further-travelled blocks and boulders of the boulder-clay. In the lower reaches of mountain valleys, as in those of Britain, the Alps, the Pyrenees, &c., boulder-clay tends to form gently undulating or approximately level sheets or layers, which being cut through by streams or rivers, form more or less bold bluffs and scours. In some low-lying tracts, however, it is often arranged in long parallel banks or 'drums,' and 'sowbacks'—the general trend of which corresponds with that of the striae or scratches on the underlying rocks, and with the direction followed by the boulders in the boulder-clay. Excellent examples of *drums* occur in Nithsdale and in the lower valleys of the Teviot and the Tweed. In these and many other regions the boulder-clay is frequently found heaped up on one side of prominent rocky knolls and hills, the steep faces of which *front* the direction in which the boulders of the clay have travelled. This is the appearance called 'crag and tail'—the tail being composed largely of boulder-clay. As examples may be cited Edinburgh Castle, Dalmahoy Crag, and other isolated hills near Edinburgh. The origin of boulder-clay, which has been the subject of much discussion, is now hardly in dispute. Boulder-clay is unquestionably the product of glaciation, and the phenomena mentioned above lead to the belief that this stony clay is simply the bottom-moraine or ground-moraine of extinct glaciers, which formerly had a most extensive development in the northern and temperate latitudes of the globe (see GLACIAL PERIOD, KAIMES, MORAINES). Boulder-clay must not be confounded with the *marine* clays, which contain the remains of marine shells, &c. of arctic and northern species. These clays are usually more or less well bedded, and the stones contained by them have evidently been dropped from floating ice. Boulder-clay is known in Scotland as *Till*—a term which many geologists prefer, inasmuch as boulder-clay is often rather a stony earth than a clay. Formerly the terms *Diluvium* and *Drift* were used to designate boulder-clay and certain gravelly and arenaceous deposits frequently associated with that accumulation; but they are now seldom or never used. In the Alpine regions boulder-clay is known under the names of *Grund-moraine*, *Moraine profonde*, or *Moraine de fond*; in Germany it is called *Geschäbemergel*, *Geschäbelchm*, or *Blocklehm*; and *Kroastenslera* in Sweden.

Boulders, **ERRATIC**, are large masses of rock found at a distance from the formations to which they belong. The term is generally applied when they are found lying detached on the surface.

Large blocks of Scandinavian rocks are scattered over the plains of Denmark, Prussia, and Northern Germany. From their magnitude and number they frequently form a striking feature in the landscape. Some of these have been washed out of the Boulder-clay (q.v.), but the larger number are dotted over the surface of the terminal moraines of the great northern ice-sheet (see GLACIAL PERIOD). They abound on the shores of the Firth of Forth. Such boulders are simply the residue of the boulder-clay which has been denuded and washed away by the action of the sea. The pedestal of the statue of Peter the Great, in St Petersburg, was hewn out of a large erratic boulder, 1500 tons in weight, that lay on a marshy plain near that city. The boulder called *Pierre de Marnettes* at Monthey, in the canton of Valais, contains 70,630 cubic feet, and is



Erratic Boulder at Monthey.

large enough to have a chalet built on it. From the nature of the stone, it is believed to have been carried by glacier action a distance of 35 miles down the valley. On the other hand, the well-known 'Bowler Stone' of Borrowdale (q.v.) is simply a detached block, which has fallen from the adjacent crags.

Boulevard (Fr., also spelt *boulevard*; apparently a corruption of a Teutonic word = Ger. *bolwerk*; cf. Span. *baluarte*, Ital. *baluardo*, 'bulwark'), the name given in France to a broad street or promenade planted with rows of trees. Originally it was applied to the bulwark portion of a rampart, then to the promenade laid out on a demolished fortification. The boulevards of Paris are the most famous. The line from the Madeleine to the Bastille became a walk in the days of Louis XIV., and then a street. The so-called outer boulevards date from 1786, and were also old fortifications, levelled and planted. But many so-called recent boulevards in Paris and elsewhere are simply new and handsome streets, planted with trees, and have no relation to old fortifications at all. Some parts of them present a very dazzling spectacle; and, as a whole, they afford a striking exhibition of the life and character of the French capital in all the different classes of society. The *Boulevards de la Madeleine*, *des Capucines*, and *Montmartre* are the most notable. The Thames Embankment is a boulevard in the usual sense of the term.

Boulogne, a town of France, in the department of the Seine, on the right bank of the river of that name, about 5 miles SW. of Paris, from which it is separated by the Bois de Boulogne. It has numerous villas, and over 400 wash-houses on the river, which is here crossed by a fine stone bridge of twelve arches. Pop. (1886) 30,084. The Bois de Boulogne is traversed by many walks,

through the broadest of which the fashionable world of Paris travels in Easter-week to the Abbey of Longchamp. At the entrance of the wood lies Anteuil (q.v.). During the Revolution, the trees of the older walks were mostly cut down; but when Napoleon chose St Cloud, in the immediate neighbourhood, for his summer residence, new walks were planted and laid off, and the inclosing walls were restored. All traces of the injuries inflicted during the siege of 1870-71 have now disappeared, and the Parisian can again enjoy his favourite place of recreation.

Boulogne-sur-Mer, a fortified seaport in the French department of Pas-de-Calais, situated at the mouth of the Liane, in the English Channel, 27 miles SW. of Calais, and 158 N. by W. of Paris by rail. The town consists of two parts—Upper and Lower Boulogne. The upper town was in former times strongly fortified; but its ramparts have been converted into beautiful promenades, from which, in clear weather, Dover Castle can be seen. The upper town contains the hôtel-de-ville, on the site of the castle where Godfrey de Bouillon was born in 1061, and the former cathedral, rebuilt (1827-66) in the Italian style, with a dome 300 feet high, and with a miraculous image of the Virgin. The lower town, the seaport proper, is newer, more populous, and more lively, inhabited chiefly by merchants, mariners, and fishermen. It contains the barracks, the great hospital, the theatre, the museum and gallery of art, and many elegant residences. Boulogne has a college, several schools, English as well as French, and a public library of 55,000 volumes; there are extensive and excellent salt-water baths; and, on account of its fine sands, it is a favourite, though somewhat expensive resort for sea-bathing. The English residents have recently become much less numerous. Pop. (1872) 39,700; (1886) 49,916, actively engaged in the manufacture of linen, cordage, iron, steel pens and buttons, oil, soap, and chemical products. Boulogne is the chief station in France of the North Sea fisheries. It has an active coasting trade, and ranks with Calais as one of the nearest and most frequented places of passage between France and England, steamers plying daily to London, which they reach in from 9 to 10 hours, and twice a day to Folkestone, which they reach in about 2 hours. Paris is reached by railway in 4½ hours. About 5000 vessels, most of them English, of over 1,000,000 tons burden, enter or clear the port annually, their cargoes representing a value of some £20,000,000. The principal imports are woollen, cotton, and silk material; the exports are manufactured fabrics, leather, and wine. The harbour of Boulogne is too shallow for large ships of war, although it has been repeatedly enlarged and improved. A large wet-dock was completed in 1872; and a new and extensive deep-sea harbour was begun in 1879, which will probably cost, when finished, not less than £1,000,000. The blue clay cliffs have been cut away, and a solid sea-wall built of the stone and soil; and the works, which have been steadily pushed forward, include outer moles or breakwaters with a length of over 4400 yards, and an inner mole or traverse, 1200 yards long and 200 wide, alongside which steamships may lie at all states of the tide. The whole French navy could find a haven in this harbour, where the largest ships will be able to lie at anchor even at low-water, an advantage hitherto enjoyed by only the military ports of Brest and Cherbourg. Boulogne was known to the Romans as *Portus Gesoriacus*, but after the time of Constantine the Great, it was called *Bononia*, and after that of the Carolingians, *Polonia*. In 1435 it came into the possession of the Duke of Burgundy, and was

united with the crown of France by Louis XI. in 1477. The town was taken by the English in 1544, and restored to the French in 1550. From this point has been contemplated every invasion of England since the days of Caligula; and here Napoleon encamped 180,000 men and collected 2400 transports, ready at any favourable moment to swoop down on the shores of Britain: but after months' watching, the war with Austria created other employment for them. As a memorial of this great camp, a tall marble column was erected on the higher grounds, and in 1841 surmounted by a colossal statue of Napoleon. In 1840 Boulogne was the scene of one of the adventurous expeditions of Louis Napoleon, who was imprisoned in the citadel. The poets Churchill and Campbell, and Le Sage, the author of *Gil Blas*, died here. Of late years, from its accessibility to English tourists, and rapid railway transit to Paris, Boulogne has greatly superseded Calais as a place of debarkation. See Merriew's *Boulogne-sur-Mer* (Lond. 1882).

Boulton, MATTHEW, a celebrated English engineer, was born 3d September 1728, at Birmingham, where his father had made a considerable fortune as a silver stamper and piercer. On his death in 1759, Matthew carried on the business of the manufactory with great energy, and extended it by the purchase of a piece of land, then a barren heath, at Soho, near his native town, his works there being opened in 1762. Here he improved not only the workmanship, but the artistic merit of his work. One of his first inventions was a new mode of inlaying steel. He entered into partnership with James Watt (q.v.), who had obtained a patent for the great improvements in the steam-engine which have immortalised his name, and they established a manufactory of steam-engines in 1769. After eighteen years of anxious labour, this department of the business began to be remunerative. They jointly contributed also to the improvement of coining machinery, and so to the perfection of the coinage itself. It was only in 1882 that a Boulton press, at the Mint, Tower Hill, was finally discarded. Boulton obtained a patent in 1797 for his method of raising water by impulse. Boulton died at Soho, 18th August 1809. His long life was devoted to the promotion of the useful arts and of the commercial interests of his native country. He was a Fellow of the Royal Society, and member of the Lunar Society, and was on terms of friendship with the chief scientific and literary men of his time; he was a man of extremely pleasing conversation, and of a most generous disposition. See Smiles's *Lives of Boulton and Watt* (1865).

Bound, or **BOUNDARY**, the utmost limits of land by which the same is known and can be described. These are recognised in various ways—e.g. by a line of march stones, a hedge, a ditch; by reference to possession of tenants; by reference to a plan; by measurement. The plan is the safest, because least ambiguous, boundary. A boundary-fence generally belongs equally to the two neighbours. A boundary by the sea gives property in the foreshore (see **BOUNDING CHARTER**). The boundaries of towns depend in many cases on those of a grant of lands or jurisdiction anciently made to the town. The Reform Acts of 1832-33, 1867-68, and 1884-85, or commissions acting under them, defined political boundaries, but these are in many cases different from the municipal boundaries. In Scotland, statutes passed in 1857 and 1861 provide a simple mode of extending boundaries of burghs, provided the inhabitants in the outside districts substantially assent. Where a police-burgh in Scotland, or a local-board district in England is formed, the presiding authority defines a boundary, which

is publicly recorded. There is no survey of Scotland for administrative purposes, hence the boundaries of parishes and counties are nowhere laid down and recorded by public authority, except in the case of parishes erected under Graham's Act for church purposes. The boundaries of a parish are ascertained by the private boundaries of the estates lying within it. It is often doubtful, however, to which parish lands really belong. To avoid poor-law disputes on this point, it has been suggested that the Ordnance Survey (which was based on hearsay information) should be made conclusive evidence of parochial boundaries.

Bounding Charter, in the Scots law, is a charter which describes the lands by their boundaries. It gives right to everything within the bounds, but it prevents the acquisition by possession of any piece of property outside the bounds, even although the charter contains a clause of parts and pertinents. This rule, however, does not apply to servitudes, which can be acquired beyond the limits of a bounding charter, nor to such an incorporeal right as salmon-fishing. If the boundary be the sea or the seashore, the right is extended or limited as the sea permanently recedes or advances. If, again, it be a stream, the property may be subject to alteration, either extended by Alluvion (q.v.), or the gradual and imperceptible variation of the channel; or the stream may cease to be the boundary, in consequence of some violent change. But if the property described in the charter is bounded by walls, the walls, as a general rule, will not be held as included in the grant; and where it is intended that a wall is to be mutual, this must be expressed. When the grant is described both by boundaries and by measurement, the boundaries determine its extent, although containing a larger quantity of ground than the measurement. See CHARTER, CONVEYANCE, GRANT, and TITLE.

Bounds, BEATING OF THE, or *Perambulation*, the popular expression in England for those periodical surveys or perambulations by which the ancient boundaries of parishes used to be preserved, and which in many respects resembled the old Roman *terminatio*, celebrated every year on February 23, the last month of the year. On Holy Thursday or Ascension-day, the clergyman of the parish, with the parochial officers and other parishioners, followed by the boys of the parish school, headed by their masters, used to go in procession to the different parish boundaries, which boundaries the boys struck with peeled willow-wands that they carried in their hands. Sometimes the boys were whipped at important points 'to make them remember.' At Shrewsbury the bounds-beating was called *Banner-ing*, and was kept up annually till the middle of the 19th century. At Ludlow it still retained its religious character in 1822. For an account of the ceremonies, see Brand's *Popular Antiquities*, under 'Rogation Week and Ascension Day.' The custom is not confined to England. See Mackenzie Wallace's *Russia*.

Bounty, a term applied to any sum granted by the legislature towards creating or encouraging some kind of undertaking believed to be of national importance. At one time the system of granting such bounties was very prevalent, and it still continues in some countries. There were bounties on the tonnage of vessels employed in the herring and whale fisheries; on the importation of materials of manufactures; on the importation of indigo from the colonies; on the exportation of Irish and Scotch linen. That this system was a costly and factitious process for fostering commerce, manufactures, and agriculture was ably contended by Adam Smith in his *Wealth of Nations* (1776). With regard to the herring-fishery in particular, the drift of his

remarks is to show that in consequence of the bounty the herrings cost more to the government than the price they fetched in the market. The bounty on linen, which was not abolished till 1836, had before that time averaged £150,000 a year. The bounty on the exportation of grain from England, abolished in 1805, had for some years averaged £160,000. The French still give bounties to encourage their cod-fishery on the Banks of Newfoundland, and to stimulate the building and running of ships, both of iron and wood. In 1881 the French bounties on shipping amounted to £400,000. In 1888 the Argentine Republic granted a bounty on the export of live cattle and preserved meat. The most important form of the existing bounty system, however, is that on sugar, which prevails in Germany, France, Austria, Holland, and Belgium. The bounty on sugar is not a direct one, but is paid on the principle of returning on exportation the sum charged as inland duty. In consequence of mechanical improvements, the quantity of sugar actually extracted from the beetroot is greater than the estimated yield on which duty is paid. Thus the government paid as drawback a sum greater than what it received as revenue, and, accordingly, spends a considerable amount in artificially encouraging the production of sugar. The annual average of sugar bounties in 1887 was in France about £600,000, in Belgium £170,000, in Holland £150,000. This state of things having been found unsatisfactory, a conference of European powers on the bounty system was held in London in 1887-88; and the governments represented accepted the view that the bounty system ought to be abolished by levying duty on sugar as it goes into consumption. The bounty designed to stimulate exportation must be distinguished from the Drawback (q.v.), meant to put in a fair position for exportation those commodities more heavily taxed at home than abroad. See FREE TRADE.

An annual grant of £2000 to the Church of Scotland for mission purposes is called the Royal Bounty. Another annual grant called the Royal Bounty has long been given in Britain for improving the breed of horses. It has been generally expended in prizes at race meetings; but a Royal Commission in 1887 recommended that it should be given in prizes for thoroughbred stallions at horse-shows. The name Queen's Bounty is popularly given to a charitable donation bestowed on the mother of triplets. For Queen Anne's Bounty, see that article.

Bounty is also the familiar name for the sum of money given to induce men to enter the army or navy. In time of peace, when there is little or no need to augment the forces, the bounty sinks to a minimum; but in cases of exigency, it is raised according to the difficulty and urgency of the circumstances. In the British army, no bounty was paid to recruits until the nineteenth century; the temptations offered to them, if any, were of some other character. The highest bounty ever paid during the great wars against Napoleon was in 1812, when it amounted to £18, 12s. 6d. for limited service, and £23, 17s. 6d. for life; but these sums were subject to many unfair and absurd deductions; and even so late as 1849, when the bounty to an infantry recruit was nominally £4, he received little more than one-eighth of that amount. In 1855 the bounty was £7 per head (for line infantry); in 1856, only £2; in 1858, £3; and it afterwards underwent further changes. It was always higher in the cavalry and artillery than in the infantry, and higher in Highland than other line regiments, on account of matters connected with dress and personal ornaments. It was supposed that recruits were tempted more by immediate bounty than by prospective pay and

pensions; so that while the rate of bounty varied frequently, that of pay and pensions underwent little change. For some time it was customary to offer a bounty to men belonging to a regiment ordered home from abroad in order to induce them to continue there; and in 1887 a bounty of £2 was offered to men who prolonged their service with the colours. The name is now in use in the militia for the £2 a year given to each efficient man who enters what is called the 'Militia Reserve,' and thereby renders himself liable to service in the ranks of the regular army if required. The term bounty is also used in the navy to signify the distribution of money made to the officers and crews on particular occasions of active service. See **BOOTY, PRIZE, SALVAGE**.

Bounty, in the United States, is a term for grants of land to soldiers and sailors, their widows and children, for services in the army and navy. It is also applied to sums of money paid by government to owners of fishing-vessels, by Act of Congress of July 29, 1813, for the encouragement of that industry, and to sums of money appropriated by different state legislatures for the destruction of wild beasts and destructive birds, when the country was comparatively new and sparsely settled. The amounts now paid to companies and corporations which carry the mails by land and water have been called bounties, but are more properly termed appropriations for carrying the mails. See **PENSIONS**.

Bounty, MUTINY OF THE. See **PITCAIRN'S ISLAND**.

Bouquetin. See **IBEX**.

Bourbaki, CHARLES DENIS SAUTER, French general, born at Pau, 22d April 1816, entered the army in 1836, and fought in the Crimea and Italy. In 1870 he commanded the Imperial Guard at Metz, from whence he was sent to England, on a secret mission to the empress. Under Gambetta he organised the Army of the North, and commanded the Army of the Loire. His attempt to break the Prussian line at Belfort, though ably conceived, ended in disastrous failure: in a series of desultory attacks on a much inferior force, January 15-17, 1871, he lost 10,000 men. In the wretched retreat to Switzerland that followed on the 27th, reduced to despair by the ill-success of his plans, he attempted to commit suicide. From 1873 to 1879 he commanded the 14th Army Corps at Lyons, and in 1881 he retired from active service.

Bourbon, a French family which for several generations occupied the thrones of France and Naples, and still rules in Spain. It derived its name from the castle and seignior of Bourbon, in the former province of Bourbons, in the centre of France. The first member of the family recorded in history was Adhemar, sire or lord of Bourbon, at the beginning of the 10th century, who traced his descent from the illustrious Charles Martel. After several changes the seignior of Bourbon devolved upon an heiress, who in 1272 married Robert, the sixth son of Louis IX. of France, and the name and possessions of the house thus passed to a branch of the royal family of the Capets, under whom it was converted into a duchy. From this Robert sprang two lines, an elder and a younger. The elder line had many eminent representatives among the nobles of France, but ended with the famous Constable of Bourbon, who in 1523 was deprived of his possessions and dignities for allying himself with Charles V. against his own country.

A representative of the younger line inherited the possessions of the Constable, and was raised to the dukedom of Vendôme. His son, Antoine, obtained by marriage the throne of Navarre, and Antoine's son was the famous Henry of Navarre, who in 1589, on the extinction of the male line of

the House of Valois, fell heir to the crown of France. Among the many collateral and less eminent branches of the Bourbon house among the French nobility may be mentioned those of Montpensier, Condé, Conti, and Soissons. Only a few members of the collateral lines, however, have actually borne the name of Bourbon; for example, the Cardinal Charles de Bourbon, Duke of Vendôme, who, under the name of Charles X., was set up by the Catholic League as a rival king to Henry IV. The ducal dignity was revived by Louis XIV. in the House of Condé, so that the eldest son of that house should bear the title of Duke of Bourbon.

Main Line of the House of Bourbon.—As we have seen, the male line of the Valois branch of the French royal family died out in 1589, and Henry of Navarre of the Bourbon line became king of France as Henry IV. On his assassination in 1610 he left, by his second wife, Mary de' Medici, five legitimate children: (1) Louis XIII. (q.v.), his successor on the throne; (2) J. B. Gaston, Duke of Orleans (q.v.), who died in 1660, and left no male heirs; (3) Elizabeth, married to Philip IV. of Spain; (4) Christina, married to Victor Amadeus, afterwards Duke of Savoy; (5) Henrietta, married to Charles I. of England.—Louis XIII., on his death in 1643, left two sons by his queen, Anne of Austria: (1) Louis XIV. (q.v.), his successor; and (2) Philip, who received from his elder brother the title of Duke of Orleans, and was the founder of the family which has become the younger Bourbon dynasty.—The Dauphin Louis, styled Monsieur, the son of Louis XIV. by his marriage with Maria Theresa of Austria, died in 1711, and left three sons by his marriage with Maria Anna of Bavaria: (1) Louis, Duke of Burgundy; (2) Philip, Duke of Anjou, who afterwards became king of Spain, as Philip V.; (3) Charles, Duke of Berri, who died in 1714.—Louis, Duke of Burgundy, died in 1712. By his wife, Maria Adelaide of Savoy, he had three sons, of whom two died in early youth, the only one who survived being Louis XV., who succeeded his great-grandfather, Louis XIV., in 1715.—Louis XV. having married Maria Leszcynska, daughter of the dethroned king Stanislaus of Poland, had by her a son, the Dauphin Louis, who married Maria Josepha of Saxony, and died in 1765, leaving three sons: (1) Louis XVI. (q.v.), who succeeded his grandfather, Louis XV., in 1774; (2) Louis Stanislaus Xavier, Count of Provence, afterwards Louis XVIII.; (3) Charles Philippe, Count of Artois, afterwards Charles X.—Louis XVI. had three children by his queen, Marie Antoinette of Austria: (1) The Dauphin Louis, who died in 1789; (2) Louis, called Louis XVII. (q.v.), who died in 1795; (3) Maria Therese Charlotte, styled Madame Royale, afterwards Duchesse d'Angoulême (q.v.).—Louis XVIII. had no children; but Charles X. had two sons: (1) Louis Antoine de Bourbon, Duke of Angoulême (q.v.), who was dauphin prior to the Revolution of 1830, and died without issue in 1844; (2) Charles Ferdinand, Duke of Berri (q.v.), who was assassinated in 1820. The Duke of Berri left two children: (1) Marie Louise Therese, styled Mademoiselle d'Artois, married to the Duke of Parma; (2) Henry Charles Ferdinand Marie Dieudonné, Duke of Bordeaux, styled Count de Chambord (q.v.); he died childless in 1883, when the Legitimists of France accepted in his room the Orleanist Comte de Paris as head of the House of Bourbon.

Orleans Branch.—As already stated, the founder of the Orleans or younger branch of the Bourbon royal family of France, was Philip, Duke of Orleans (q.v.), the only brother of Louis XIV. He died in 1701, leaving, by his second marriage with Elizabeth Charlotte of the Palatinate, a son of his

own name as his heir, who was Regent of France during the minority of Louis XV. His son, Louis-Philippe, Duke of Orleans (born 1703), married a princess of Baden, and died in 1752, leaving an only son of his own name, whose son and heir was that Louis Joseph Philippe, Duke of Orleans (q.v.), so notable in the French Revolution, who in 1792 renounced his rank, taking the name of Citizen Egalité, and died by the guillotine in 1793. He left four children: (1) Louis-Philippe, who, before the Revolution, was styled Duke of Chartres—that being the ordinary title of the eldest son of the Orleans family—became afterwards Duke of Orleans, was king of the French from 1830 to 1848, and died in England, 1850; (2) the Duke de Montpensier, who died in England in 1807; (3) the Count de Beaujolais, who died at Malta in 1808; (4) Adelaide, styled Mademoiselle d'Orleans, born 1777, died 1847.—Louis-Philippe left a numerous family by his queen, Amelia of Naples; but his eldest son, Ferdinand, Duke of Orleans, lost his life by an accident in 1842, leaving by his wife, the Princess Helen of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, two sons, the eldest of whom, Louis-Philippe Albert, now styled Count of Paris, is the representative of the younger or Orleans family, and the acknowledged head of the French House of Bourbon. As this line still continued to urge its claims to the throne of France, its chiefs were expelled from the country in 1886 by a vote of both chambers. See the article LOUIS-PHILIPPE, the articles on the kings of this family, the works quoted at FRANCE, and the family history by Coillier de Moret (2 vols. 1824).

Spanish Branch.—The Spanish branch of the House of Bourbon was founded by Philip, Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. He ascended the Spanish throne in 1700 as Philip V. Philip V. was succeeded on the Spanish throne by his son, Ferdinand VI., who died without issue in 1759, and the crown fell to his brother, Charles III., whose son and successor, Charles IV., was compelled to resign it in 1808 in favour of a successor nominated by Napoleon, and died at Naples in 1819. The two eldest sons of Charles IV. by his marriage with Maria Louisa of Parma were (1)

Don Fernando, Prince of Asturias, who, after the overthrow of Napoleon, reigned as Ferdinand VII. (q.v.), whose eldest daughter was Isabella II., the mother of Alfonso XII.; (2) Don Carlos, who, on the death of his elder brother in 1833, became pretender to the Spanish throne (see CARLOS). Isabella II., who succeeded in 1833, was expelled in 1868; but the Bourbon line was in 1874 restored to the throne of Spain in the person of Alfonso XII. On his death in 1885 his daughter Maria reigned till the birth of a posthumous son, Alfonso XIII., in 1886. See SPAIN.

Neapolitan Branch.—On the elevation of Philip of Anjou to the throne of Spain, Naples and Sicily, which till that time had been Spanish possessions, were transferred to Austria. By the Peace of Vienna in 1738, however, a younger son of Philip V. became king of Naples and Sicily, under the name of Charles III. Upon his accession to the throne of Spain in 1759, he gave up that of Sicily to his third son, Don Fernando, called Ferdinand IV., with the express stipulation that it should never again be occupied by a king of Spain. Ferdinand IV. was compelled to yield to the French arms in 1806; but after the overthrow of Napoleon he became king of the Two Sicilies as Ferdinand I. (q.v.). His son, Francis I., left the throne in 1830 to his son, Ferdinand II. (q.v.), whose son, Francis II., was expelled in 1860, when Naples was incorporated with the new kingdom of Italy. See NAPLES.

Parma Branch.—By the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, Austria made over the duchies of Parma and Piacenza to Don Philip, the youngest son of Philip V. of Spain. Except during the interval 1814-47, when the duchies were assigned to Marie Louise of Austria, second wife of the first Napoleon, Parma and Piacenza were under Bourbon rulers till 1859. In that year they were incorporated with the new kingdom of Italy. See ITALY and PARMA; and see Coillier de Moret, *Histoire du Bourbonnais* (1828); Achaintré, *Histoire Chronologique et Généalogique de la Maison Royale de Bourbon* (1825); also histories by Mure (Paris, 1860-68) and Dussieux (1869).

THE HOUSE OF BOURBON.

Henry IV., died 1610.

Louis XIII., died 1643.

Louis XIV., died 1715.

Louis, Grand-dauphin, died 1711.

Louis, Duke of Burgundy, died 1712.

Louis XV., died 1774.

Louis, Dauphin, died 1765.

Louis XVI., Louis XVIII., died 1793.

Charles X. (Comte d'Artois), died 1836.

Charles Louis (Louis XVII.), died 1795.

Louis Antoine, Duc d'Angoulême, died 1844.

Charles Ferdinand, Duc de Berry, died 1820.

Henri, Comte de Chambord (Henry V.), died s. p. 1883.

Philip, Duke of Anjou, died 1746.

Charles III. of Spain, died 1788.

Charles IV., Ferdinand I., died 1819.

Charles IV., Ferdinand I., died 1825.

Infante Gabriel, died 1788.

Branch of the Two Sicilies.

Junior Spanish Branch.

Ferdinand, died 1842.

Louis-Philippe, Comte de Paris.

Robert, Duc de Chartres.

Philip, Duke of Orleans, died 1701.

Philip, regent, died 1723.

Louis, died 1752.

Louis-Philippe, died 1785.

Louis-Philippe (Egalité), executed 1793.

Louis-Philippe, king 1830-48; died 1850.

Louis, Duc de Nemours.

François, Prince de Joinville, d'Anjou.

Henri, Duc de Montpensier.

Antoine, Duc de Montpensier.

Bourbon, CHARLES, DUC DU BOURBONNAIS, styled CONSTABLE DE BOURBON, born 1490, was the son of the Count of Montpensier. Through the death of his elder brother, and his marriage with the only daughter of the Duke of Bourbon, he united in his own hands the vast estates of both

these branches of the Bourbon family. His great ability, bravery, and large possessions soon made him the first subject of France. For his exploits at the battle of Marignano in 1515 he was raised to the rank of Constable of France and governor of Milan. But at the French court there was a strong

party that sought to undermine him in the favour of the king, Francis I. It is said that they were assisted in their intrigues by the widowed mother of Francis, because Bourbon, himself then a widower, had refused her hand. In this way Bourbon was threatened with the loss of the lands brought him by his wife, and of many of his other dignities. Deeply injured, he renounced the service of France, and concluded a private alliance with the Emperor Charles V., and with Henry VIII. of England. The former agreed to give him in marriage his sister, Eleonora, who had Portugal as her jointure, and to make an independent kingdom for him of Provence and Dauphiné, with his own possessions of the Bourbonnais and Auvergne. The king, who was engaged in an expedition to Italy, received intelligence of this conspiracy, and proceeding in person to the Constable, offered him restoration to favour and also of his estates. The Constable, however, did not trust him, but fled in disguise from France in 1523. In order not to appear as a fugitive to the Spanish army, which awaited him in Lombardy, he drew around him a force of German mercenaries, and soon contrived to gain their entire attachment. He took the field in 1524 against his own country, and invaded France, but failed at the siege of Marseilles. In the following year, however, he contributed to the great victory of Pavia, in which Francis I. was taken prisoner by the Spaniards. But the victory did nothing to restore Bourbon to his old position. Charles V. distrusted him, and his interests were not considered in the treaty of peace between France and Spain in 1526. He was, however, made Duke of Milan by Charles, and appointed Spanish commander in Northern Italy. Along with George of Frundsberg he led the mixed army of Spanish and German mercenaries that stormed and plundered Rome in 1527. Bourbon fell in the fierce struggle by which the fortifications were carried. Resolved to conquer or die, he led his troops in the most impetuous manner, and with his own hands eagerly seized a scaling-ladder, in order to make his way over a weak place of the walls, when he was mortally wounded by a bullet, which Benvenuto Cellini afterwards asserted that he had shot. For a time his death was kept secret from the storming army under his command. When the army departed from Rome two months after, his corpse, which the soldiers would not part with, was taken with them, and buried at Gaeta, under a magnificent monument, which, however, was afterwards destroyed.

Bourbon, ISLE DE. See RÉUNION.

Bourbonnais, a gently undulating, terrace-formed district in the centre of France, northward of the high lands of Auvergne, abounding in grain, fruits, wine, iron, marble, and mineral springs. From 1327 to 1523 it formed the duchy of Bourbon, and afterwards, becoming a domain of the crown, it formed a separate province of France. It now constitutes the department of Allier and part of the department of Cher. The capital was Moulins.

Bourbonne-les-Bains, a town in the French department of Haute-Marne, 29 miles ENE. of Langres. From June to October it is much visited for its saline springs, which reach a temperature of over 130° F., and are efficacious for rheumatism, wounds, and scrofulous affections. Pop. (1886) 3982.

Bourboule, a bathing resort in the French department of Puy de Dôme, on the Dordogne, with springs of 88°-129° F., recommended in scrofulous, nervous, and rheumatic affections. Pop. 1127.

Bourdaloue, LOUIS, one of the greatest pulpit orators of France, was born at Bourges, 20th August 1632. At sixteen he entered the

order of the Jesuits, and afterwards filled in succession the chairs of Rhetoric, Philosophy, and Moral Theology in the Jesuit College of his native place. But his remarkable powers of eloquence determined his superiors to employ him as a preacher. Disdaining the inflated and theatrical style prevalent among the pulpit orators of his time, he assailed with fearless vigour and simple earnestness the passions, weaknesses, and errors of men. The dignity of his manner and the fire of his eloquence made him famous even when the public mind was occupied with the festivities of Versailles, the victories of Turenne, and the literary masterpieces of Corneille and Racine. At the court of Louis XIV. he was remarkably well received. The year after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, he was sent to Montpellier to bring back the Protestants to the Roman Catholic Church. The orator understood how to accommodate his eloquence to the minds of those whom he addressed. Simple among the simple, a dialectician among ecclesiastics, he was equally a favourite with the common people and with the learned and the great. He was also much esteemed and beloved as a man, and bore throughout his life a high reputation for candour and honesty. In the later years of his life he relinquished the pulpit, and devoted his time to hospitals, prisons, and pious institutions. He died at Paris, 13th May 1704. The best edition of his sermons was edited by Bretonneau (16 vols. 1704-37). A recent edition is that published in 6 vols. at Lille in 1882. See his *Life* by Lauras (Paris, 1881).

Bourdon de l'Oise, FRANÇOIS LOUIS, was born in the middle of last century at Saint Remy, near Compiègne. He was a fanatical revolutionist, took an active part in the storming of the Tuileries on 10th August 1792, and under a false name obtained a seat in the Convention. Bourdon contributed to bring about the execution of Louis XVI. and the destruction of the Girondists. In *la Vendée*, however, he objected to the cruelties of the extreme party, and thus became suspected by the followers of Robespierre, whom he helped to overthrow in 1794. From that time he inclined more and more to the moderate or even royalist party, till in 1797 the Directory had him proscribed and transported to Cayenne, where he died soon afterwards.

Bourgas. See BURGAS.

Bourgelat, CLAUDE, veterinary surgeon, was born in Lyons in 1712, and died there in 1799. An ex-cavalry officer, he in 1761 founded (at Lyons) the first veterinary school, and students flocked to it from all parts of Europe. Its success induced the government to establish similar institutions, and Bourgelat was chosen to superintend that at Alfort, near Paris, which became the most celebrated school in France. Bourgelat wrote with authority on farriery.

Bourg-en-Bresse, the chief town of the French department of Ain, on the Reyssouze, at the junction of five railways, 23 miles SE. of Mâcon, and 37 miles NE. of Lyons. The church of Notre dame de Bron here was built by Margaret of Austria in 1505-36, and contains a superb monument to Philibert of Savoy. Bourg manufactures artificial mineral waters and pottery, and has a brisk trade in corn, wine, poultry, and horned cattle. Here were born Lalande and Edgar Quinet, and in the Place de Grenette stands a statue to Bichat. Pop. (1872) 12,912; (1886) 16,272.

Bourgeoisie, a French term, originally denoting the citizens of towns as a rank or class of society as opposed to the nobility and the working-classes proper. The French communists and socialists (especially since Saint-Simon) have

widened its signification to express the more or less comfortable middle-class as opposed to the working-class and the proletariat; and, moreover, invariably read into the name a one-sided, narrow-hearted, and selfish devotion to the interest of capital as against labour.

Bourges, the capital of the French department of Cher, situated in a fertile plain at the confluence of the Auron and the Yèvre, 144 miles S. of Paris, and 69 SSE. of Orleans. Bourges is divided into an old and new town, the latter being built round the former. Its houses are of antique architecture, and its streets crooked and dirty. It was formerly surrounded by ramparts flanked with high towers, some of which still remain; but the ramparts have been converted into promenades. The cathedral (1220-1538) is a splendid Gothic edifice, the interior one of the noblest in France, being 405 feet long and 117 high. The sculptures of the west façade are admirable, and there is some very good stained glass. A university (1465) was suppressed at the Revolution. The hôtel-de-ville, begun by Jacques Cœur in 1443, is in the florid style of that century. Bourges has prospered since the era of railway communication, and has some trade in hemp, grain, cloth, leather, wool, and cattle. Brewing is carried on, and there are nurseries in the suburbs. Chosen in 1861 to be one of the military arsenals of France, Bourges has a cannon foundry, and has greatly increased in strategical importance since the loss of Metz. Pop. (1872) 27,377; (1886) 37,341. Bourges is of great antiquity, being the *Aravicum* of the Gauls, in the country of the *Bituriges Cubi*. Taken by Cæsar in 52 B.C., it became the capital of the Roman province of *Aquitania Prima*, and in the middle ages, of the province of Berri. Charles VII. had his residence at Bourges, when almost all France had been taken from him by the English. Louis XI. was a native, as was also the great preacher Bonaldouze. Several important ecclesiastical synods were held at Bourges.

Bourget, LE, a village 6½ miles NE. of Paris by rail, during the siege of the capital in 1870 the scene of a series of bloody struggles disastrous to the French, of which the most important were those of 30th October and 21st December.—The Lac du Bourget, the largest wholly French lake, in the department of Savoie and the basin of the Rhone, lies 780 feet above sea-level, and measuring 7½ by 3 miles, has an area of 16 sq. m.

Bourget, PAUL, an eminent French novelist, was born at Amiens, September 2, 1852. After a brilliant course at the Lyceum of Clermont-Ferrand, where his father was professor of Mathematics, and the college of Sainte Barbe, he graduated with the highest honours in 1872. His early distinctions pointed to an academical career, but the spell of literature proved too strong. He began to write in 1873, but it was ten years ere he found his true work, though he contributed the while numerous articles to the magazines, and published as many as three volumes of striking verse: *La Vie Inquiète* (1875), *Édel* (1878), and *Les Aveux* (1881). His *Essais* (1883) was the first indication of his strength. The second series, *Nouveaux Essais de Psychologie contemporaine* (1886), was a singularly subtle and searching inquiry into the causes of pessimism in contemporary France. Bourget's first novel, *L'Irréparable* (1884), was followed by *Cruelle Enigme* (1885), *Un Crime d'Amour* (1886), *André Cornelis* (1887), and *Mensonges* (1887). The keen insight into the hidden springs of human motive, and the marvellous subtlety of psychological analysis in these stories, together with their clearness and refinement of style, have lifted Bourget into the front rank of contemporary French novelists. His intimate knowledge of English and

Italian life, and his travels in Spain and Morocco, gave him the materials for a great romance of cosmopolitan life.

Bourignon, ANTOINETTE, a celebrated religious visionary, born at Lille, 13th January 1616, is said to have been so ugly an infant that there was some thought of killing her as a monstrous birth. Her intellect, however, was very acute, and its powers were early developed, along with a tendency to religious mysticism. She began to fancy that she saw visions, conversed with God, received special revelations, and was called to restore the pure spirit of the gospel. At the age of twenty she fled from home in male disguise, fell into the hands of a soldier from whom she was rescued, and by the good offices of the Archbishop of Cambrai obtained admission into a convent, where she won over some of the nuns to her opinions. She afterwards had charge of a hospital at Lille, but from this position she was driven to Ghent (1662) in consequence of her extravagant fancies. She now travelled to gain proselytes, and for a time was head of a hospital in East Friesland. She died at Franeker, 30th October 1680. According to Madame Bourignon, religion consists in internal emotion, and not in either knowledge or practice. Her own character exhibited a strange combination of pride and avarice, with a sort of mystic piety. Among the chief expounders of Bourignonism, as this form of mysticism was called, was Peter Poirêt, a Calvinistic minister. It spread to a remarkable extent, and about the beginning of the 18th century prevailed so much in Scotland that a solemn renunciation of it was demanded from every entrant on the ministry at his ordination. The works of Madame Bourignon were edited by Poirêt (25 vols. Amsterdam, 1676-84; 2d ed. 1717). There are English translations of her *Light of the World* (1786), *Treatise of Solid Virtue* (1699), and *Restoration of the Gospel Spirit* (1707). They exhibit not a little fiery eloquence.

Bourmont, LOUIS DE CHAISNES, COMTE DE, a French marshal, the conqueror of Algiers, was born in 1773 at his paternal castle of Bourmont, in Anjou. He went into exile at the Revolution, and from 1793 to 1799 was actively engaged in the anti-revolutionary struggle in La Vendée. Subsequently, he obtained the favour of Napoleon, and for his brilliant services in the campaigns of 1813-14 was promoted to the rank of general. In March 1814 he declared for the Bourbons; yet, on Napoleon's return from Elba, he went over to him, only once more to desert on the eve of the battle of Ligny, and to betake himself to Louis XVIII. at Ghent. His evidence went far to bring about Ney's execution. He was appointed minister of war in 1829, and in 1830 received the command of the expedition against Algiers, whose rapid success was ascribed to his prudence and energy. For this he received the marshal's baton, but on the July revolution he was superseded, and went to England to share the exile of Charles X. Refusing to take the legal oath, he was struck off the lists of the French army and peerage in 1832. In 1833 Dom Miguel of Portugal placed him at the head of his troops, but the campaign was brief and unsuccessful. Bourmont finally settled on his estate in Anjou, and died there 27th October 1846.

Bourne, HUGH, the founder of the sect of Primitive Methodists (q.v.), was born 3d April 1772, at Fordhays, parish of Stoke-upon-Trent, Staffordshire, and died at Bemersley, 11th October 1852. At first an assistant to his father, who was a farmer and wheelwright, and to an uncle, he became a preacher among the Wesleyan Methodists. His zeal for large open-air meetings, carried on on

one occasion from six in the morning till eight at night, received no countenance from the leaders of the denomination to which he belonged; and in 1808 Bourne was cut off from the Wesleyan connection for continuing to hold camp meetings in defiance of the repeatedly and strongly expressed disapproval of the Wesleyan Conference. But his preaching was wonderfully acceptable, and he quickly gathered round him many devoted adherents. In March 1810 a committee of ten members was formed at Standley, near Bemersley. This may be regarded as the first official organisation of the body which adopted the name Primitive Methodist in 1812; by the people they were sometimes called Ranters. Bourne and his brother founded the first chapel of the body at Tunstall in 1811. For the greater part of his life he worked as a carpenter and builder, but found time to visit Scotland, Ireland, and the United States. Amongst his writings was a *History of the Primitive Methodists* (1823).

Bourne, VINCENT, Latin poet, was born in 1695, from Westminster passed in 1714 to Trinity College, Cambridge, and after obtaining a fellowship in 1720, became a master in his old school. Such he remained till his death on 2d December 1747. Cowper, one of his pupils, expressed his 'love for the memory of Vinny Bourne,' and actually thought him 'a better Latin poet than Tibullus, Propertius, Ansonius, or any of the writers in his way except Ovid, and not at all inferior to him.' And Lamb, more happily, remarks: 'What a sweet, unpretending, pretty-mannered, matterful creature! Sucking from every flower, making a flower of everything. His diction all Latin, and his thoughts all English!' The best edition of his *Poemata* (1734) is that with a memoir by Mitford (1840).

Bournemouth, a town in Hampshire, a favourite health resort, on Poole Bay, 37 miles SW. of Southampton, and 116 of London. It is included within the parliamentary borough of Christchurch, from which it is 4 miles distant. Its rise has been rapid; until 1838 it consisted of but a few fishermen's huts and a coastguard station. It is situated for the most part in the pine-clad valley of the Bourne Brook, the banks of which are laid out as public gardens. The sands extend for about 3 miles from east to west. The climate is fine, the air soft without being relaxing, and the country around is beautiful. Two piers, one 800, the other 840 feet long, were erected in 1861 and 1879. Of several churches the finest is St Peter's (1864), by Street, with memorial windows to Keble, who died at Bournemouth, and the graves, in its churchyard, of Godwin, Mary Wollstonecraft, and Mary Shelley. Other buildings are a town-hall, a national sanatorium (1866), the Herbert Home for consumptives (1867), besides a home for incurables, a hip hospital, an aquarium, and winter-garden, &c. Pop. (1861) 1940; (1871) 5006; (1881) 16,858. See Dr H. Dobell's *Medical Aspects of Bournemouth* (2d ed. 1886).

Bouroudjird, a town in the province of Irak-Ajemi, Persia, situated in a fertile valley 190 miles NW. of Ispahan. Pop. 12,000.

Bourrienne, LOUIS ANTOINE FAUVELET DE, the secretary and early friend of Napoleon I., was born at Sens in 1769, and received his education in the military school at Brienne, where he formed the closest intimacy with the future emperor. In 1792 he became secretary to the embassy at Stuttgart. Deprived of this office through the breaking out of the revolutionary wars, he lived a retired life for some time, until in 1797 his former schoolfellow appointed him his secretary. He accompanied him to Italy and to Egypt, and in 1801 was nominated a councillor of state. In 1802

he was dismissed from his office for being implicated in the dishonourable bankruptcy of the house of Coulon, army contractors; but in 1804 he was appointed to a post at Hamburg. He was recalled on a charge of peculation, and had to refund 1,000,000 francs into the public treasury. He now decidedly joined the party which sought the overthrow of the emperor and the restoration of the Bourbons. After the return of the Bourbons in 1815, he sat for several years in the Chamber of Representatives, where he figured as an opponent of Liberalism. He was also for a short time minister of state. The revolution of 1830 and the loss of his fortune (occasioned by extravagance) caused his reason to give way, and he died in a lunatic asylum at Caen in 1834. His memoirs concerning Napoleon, the Directory, the Consulate, the Empire, and the Restoration (*Mémoires sur Napoleon*, &c., 10 vols. Paris, 1829), are very instructive and interesting, but not quite trustworthy.

Bourse. See EXCHANGE.

Boussa, or BUSSA, a town of the kingdom of Gando, Soudan, Central Africa, is situated on an island in the Niger, in 10° 20' N. lat. It is hemmed in by rocks, and is surrounded by walls. Pop. 10,000. Mungo Park (q.v.) perished here.

Boussingault, JEAN BAPTISTE, a French agricultural chemist, was born at Paris in 1802, and after a visit to South America, where he served as a colonel under Bolivar, became professor of Chemistry at Lyons, in 1839 was admitted into the Institute, and in 1857 was made commander of the Legion of Honour. His *Économie Rurale* (1844; Eng. trans. 1845) embodies the result of experiments and investigations which won for him a European reputation. Of four or five other works the most important is *Agronomie, Chimie agricole, et Physiologie* (7 vols. 1860-84).

Boustrophe'don. See ALPHABET, vol. i. p. 189.

Bouterwek, FRIEDRICH, born in 1765 at Oker, near Goslar, was educated at Brunswick and Göttingen, where he held a chair of Philosophy from 1797, and died 9th August 1828. A poet first and romancist, he attached himself in philosophy to the system of Kant, but exchanged it presently for Jacobi's. But the work on which his reputation really depends is his *Geschichte der neuen Poesie und Beredsamkeit* (12 vols. 1801-19). The part relating to Spanish literature was translated into Spanish (1828) and English (1823).

Bouts-rimés (Fr., 'rhymed endings') are a kind of verse, the making of which forms a social amusement. Some one of the party gives out the rhymes or endings of a stanza, and the others have to fill up the lines as they best may. Suppose the rhymes prescribed are *ware, lie; brace, die*; the following are two of the ways in which the lines might be completed:

Dark are the secrets of the gulfin'g	wave,
Where, wrapped in death, so many heroes	lie;
Yet glorious death's the guerdon of the	brave;
And those who bravely live can bravely	die.
Whenever I sail on the	wave,
O'ercome with sea-sickness I	lie;
I can sing of the sea, and look	brave;
When I feel it, I feel like to	die.

These were once very popular, especially in France, and endless ingenuity was wasted on 'this foolish kind of wit.' See No. 60 of the *Spectator*.

Boutwell, GEORGE SEWALL, an American statesman, born at Brookline, Massachusetts, 28th January 1818, was a member of the state legislature (1842-51), and governor of Massachusetts (1851 and 1852). Having joined the Republican party, in 1862 he organised the new department of internal revenue, and sat in congress from 1862 to 1869,

taking a leading part in the impeachment of President Johnson (1868). He was secretary of the treasury, 1860-73, and for two years after represented Massachusetts in the senate. Besides speeches, he has published *Educational Topics and Institutions* (1858), and works on United States Taxes (1863 and 1865).

Bouvardia, a Mexican genus of Rubiaceæ, sub-order Cinchonaceæ. *Bouvardia triphylla*, with oblong ternate leaves and beautiful corymbs of scarlet flowers produced from June to November, has obtained a place among the favourite ornaments of flower-borders in Britain, but requires careful protection from frost. To preserve it, the roots are generally taken up.

Bouvines, a village in the French department of Nord, 8 miles S.E. of Lille, the scene of the victory of Philip Augustus of France over the Emperor Otto IV. in 1214—commemorated by a monument (1863)—and of a series of struggles in 1794 between the Austrians under Kinsky and the victorious French army of the north.

Bovate (Lat. *bos*, 'ox') or OXGANG, an old English land-measure; as much as an ox can plough in a season—an area varying according to circumstances from 8 to 18, or sometimes even 24 acres. It was the eighth of a *carucate*.

Bovey Coal is a form of wood-coal or lignite, which derives its name from being found at Bovey, in Devonshire.

Bovideæ, a family of even-toed, hollow-horned, ruminant, hoofed mammals (*Artiodactyla ruminantia*, *Cavicornia*). The sheep and antelope types form the other division of the same series. The Bovideæ include the various varieties of ox (*Bos*), the buffalo (*Bubalus*), the Tibet ox (*Poephagus*), the bison, and perhaps also the more widely separated musk-ox (*Ovibos*). The limits or relative value of the different genera are somewhat doubtful, but there is no doubt that the distinctions between *Bos* and *Ovibos* are greater than those between *Bos* and any of the other genera or sub-genera. The term is sometimes used as equivalent to hollow-horned ruminants, but is here used (as equivalent to Bovinae) to include those that remain after subtracting the sheep and antelope types (*Orina* and *Antelopina*). The large compact hairy body, the short strong legs, the usually smooth and round curved horns, the broad snout and naked nostrils, the undivided upper lip, the absence of tear-pits and hoof-glands, the frequent dewlap, the four teats, and the more general characters of the replacement of upper front teeth by a fibrous elastic pad, of characteristic canon-bones (fused metacarpals and metatarsals), of complex stomach and cud-chewing ruminant habit, are familiar to most. In their wild state they are gregarious nomadic animals, swift of foot, eating hurriedly, masticating and digesting at leisure. They feed on grass and herbage, which seem to be collected by the tongue, held by the lower teeth, upper lip, and fibrous pad, and half bitten, half torn away by a quick movement. The hollow horns, occurring on both sexes, are formed from the skin, and simply based on a process of the forehead (frontal) bone; they obviously serve as weapons both against foes and rival fellows. The ancient and ancestral *Bos primigenius*, the numerous wild species such as Banteng and Gaur, the abundant varieties of domesticated cattle, the Asiatic Buffalo (*Bubalus bubalis*), the giant Arni (*Bubalus arni*), the wild and also domesticated Tibetan Yak (*Poephagus grunniens*), the ancient and still extant European Bison (*B. europæus*), the American Buffalo or Bison (*B. americanus*), are important forms in no way widely separated from the *Bos* type. But in

the Musk Ox (*Ovibos moschatus*) the very small naked portion of the snout and the short hair-covered tail are marked, though hardly important, differences. It is often included among the sheep and goats (*Orina*). Altogether there are about thirteen modern species, widely distributed in Europe, Asia, Africa, and North America. Numerous fossil forms are known from the Pliocene upwards. The utility of these forms to man, both in their wild and in their domesticated states, is too well known to require statement. The flesh, the fat, the milk, the hair, the skin, the viscera, bones, horns, dung, &c. are in common use, and the animals themselves have in many cases become beasts of burden. See CATTLE, and other separate articles.

Bovino, a cathedral city of South Italy, 20 miles SSW. of Foggia. Pop. (1880) 7388. The Imperialists defeated the Spaniards here in 1734.

Bow of a ship is the general name for the stem and fore-part, or that which cuts the water. The word is often used in the plural, the ship being considered to have starboard and port bows, meeting at the stem. Starboard is applied to the right-hand side, and port to the left-hand side, looking forward. A fine or lean bow, and a full or broad bow, are seamen's phrases for different types; and the 'V form,' or 'U form,' is a nomenclature adopted by the naval architect to denote the character of a section of the bow.

Bow and Arrow. See ARCHERY.

Bowditch, THOMAS EDWARD, African traveller, was born at Bristol 20th June 1791, for a year was a hatter in his native city, but in 1814 received a writership in the service of the African Company. Selected in 1816 to conduct a mission to the king of Ashanti, he succeeded in his difficult negotiation, and thus paved the way for commerce and the exploration of the interior. On his return to Europe (1818) he resided for some time in Paris, where he studied mathematics and other subjects to such purpose as to gain a valuable Cambridge prize. Aggrieved at his treatment by the African Company, he exposed their management in a volume which led the government to take over their possessions. In 1822 he sailed for Africa, and began a trigonometrical survey of the Gambia, where he died of fever, 16th January 1824. See his *Mission from Cape Coast Castle to Ashanti* (1819), and the narrative of his last voyage, edited by his wife (1825).

Bowditch, NATHANIEL, an American mathematician and astronomer, born 26th March 1773, at Salem, Massachusetts. He showed at a very early age a great inclination for mathematics, in which he afterwards made great proficiency without ever attending a university. He was at first bred to his father's trade of a cooper, and afterwards apprenticed to a ship-chandler. He acquired Latin that he might study Newton's *Principia*, and at a later period studied French, Spanish, Italian, and German. He particularly devoted himself to the study of the practical applications of science. Between 1795 and 1803 he acted in turn as clerk, supercargo, and master of a merchant-ship in five long voyages, and added a thorough practical acquaintance with navigation to a theoretical knowledge of it. His *New American Practical Navigator* (1802) was received with great favour. He published also an admirable translation of Laplace's *Mécanique Céleste* (1829-38), to which he added valuable annotations, and upon this achievement his fame chiefly rests. These works obtained for him marks of honour from scientific societies in Europe, and led to offers, which he declined, of the professorship of Mathematics and Astronomy in Harvard College (1808), the university of Virginia (1818), and

West Point (1820). In 1823 he became actuary of the Massachusetts Life Insurance Company, and was afterwards president of the Academy of Arts and Sciences in Boston, and a member of the corporation of Harvard College, from which he received the degree of LL.D. He died at Boston, 16th March 1838. See *Memoir* by his son (1839).

Bowdler, THOMAS, who has immortalised himself unhappily as the editor of the 'Family Shakespeare,' was born of wealthy parents at Ashley, near Bath, July 11, 1754. At sixteen, he went to St Andrews to study medicine, but graduated M.D. of Edinburgh in 1776, and after some years of travel, settled in London, devoting himself mainly to charitable work. He lived for ten years at St Boniface, Isle of Wight, and for the last fifteen years of his life at Rhyddings, near Swansea, where he died February 24, 1825. In 1818 Bowdler published 'The Family Shakespeare, in 10 vols.; in which nothing is added to the original text; but those words and expressions are omitted which cannot with propriety be read aloud in a family.' The work had a large sale, and was long popular, spite of the ridicule it brought down upon the head of its over-prudish editor, who has had the happiness or unhappiness to add permanently to the English tongue the word *bowdlerism* as a synonym for senseless expurgation. The last years of Bowdler's life were given to the task of preparing a purified edition of Gibbon's History, which was published in 6 vols. the year after his death, edited by his nephew, under the title: 'Gibbon's History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, for the use of Families and Young Persons, reprinted from the original text, with the careful omissions of all passages of an irreligious or immoral tendency.' In a note, the editor says that 'it was the peculiar happiness of the writer to have so purged Shakespeare and Gibbon, that they could no longer 'raise a blush on the cheek of modest innocence, nor plant a pang in the heart of the devout Christian.'

Bowdoin, JAMES, an American statesman, of Huguenot descent, born in Boston in 1727, graduated at Harvard in 1745, was elected to the Continental Congress in 1774, but was unable to attend, and in 1785-86 was governor of Massachusetts. He published scientific papers, poems, &c.; referred, in a letter to Benjamin Franklin, the phosphorescence of the sea to animalcules; was a Fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh, and LL.D. of Edinburgh; and in his honour Bowdoin College was named. He died in 1790.

Bowdoin College. See BRUNSWICK, U.S.

Bowels. See ABDOMEN, INTESTINES, COLIC, DIARRHŒA, INFLAMMATION.

Bower, or BOWMAKER, WALTER, frequently spoken of as 'the continuator of Fordun,' completed the history of Scotland which is known as the *Scotichronicon*, and which was begun by Fordun. Not much is known of Bower's personal history. We know from his own statement that he was born in 1385; and in the British Museum MS. of the *Scotichronicon*—which MS. is known as *The Black Book of Paisley*—he is spoken of as 'the venerable father in Christ, Walter Bower, Abbot of the Monastery of St Columba.' This monastery was situated on the island of Inchcolm in the Firth of Forth. He died in 1449. Bower has been too much overlooked as one of the authors of the *Scotichronicon*, which is frequently quoted as if Fordun wrote the whole of it, whereas his share of the work, with the exception of certain further materials which he had collected, ends at the close of Book V. with the death of David I. (1153). Bower continued the history to the death of James I. (1437),

and as he was contemporary with the later events which he describes, he is for this period entitled to be regarded as an independent historian. Like Fordun, he wrote in Latin. The only edition of his history is that printed by Walter Goodall, Edinburgh, in 1759, and no complete translation of it has yet appeared.

Bowerbankia, a common genus in the class of Bryozoa or Polyzoa. These are colonies of minute but highly organised animals, which used to be included among the hydroids or zoophytes, but are now unanimously placed at a much higher level. *B. imbricata* is one of the commonest British coast forms. It grows on seaweeds, corallines, stones, &c., between high and low water mark, or in no great depth of water, and forms branching tufts sometimes 1½ inch in height. The branches are smooth and transparent, and bear numerous individual animals of microscopic size. The genus is named after James Scott Bowerbank (1797-1877), who wrote a famous monograph on the British Spongiadia (1864). See POLYZOA.

Bower-bird, a name given to certain Australian birds, probably in the great family of Timeline, or babbling thrushes, remarkable for their habit of making bower-like erections, called *rums* by the colonists of New South Wales, and for adorning them with gay feathers, rags, bones,



The Spotted Bower-bird (from Brehm).

shells, and such other white or brightly coloured objects as they can pick up. These bowers are not used as nests, but they appear to be places of much resort at the breeding-season in particular. Their structure has been carefully examined, and fine specimens of them, transported with no little difficulty, were deposited in the British Museum by Mr Gould, in whose magnificent work on the *Birds of Australia* (1848) a full account of them was first given to the world. The bowers of the Satin Bower-bird (*Ptilonorhynchus holosericeus*) are built among the low branches of some tree, and appear to be repaired and frequented from year to year. The base consists of an extensive and rather convex platform of sticks, firmly interwoven, on the centre of which the bower itself is built of more flexible twigs. It is chiefly at and near the entrance that the shells, feathers, &c. employed for decoration are placed. The bowers of the Spotted Bower-bird (*Chlamydo-dera maculata*) are longer and more avenue-like than those of the satin bower-bird; they are placed upon the ground, are outwardly built of twigs, and beautifully lined with tall grasses so disposed that their heads nearly meet. The decorative propensity appears in the highest degree in this species. 'In some of the larger

bowers, which had evidently been resorted to for many years,' Mr Gould says, 'I have seen nearly half a bushel of bones, shells, &c. at each of the entrances.' These are arranged in much the same way at both entrances. Small pebbles are often transported by the birds from considerable distances.

The satin bower-bird is particularly abundant in the mountainous districts of the west of New South Wales, and is found in all the 'brushes' from the mountains to the coast. The adult male has the whole plumage of a deep, shining black. The colours of the female are grayish green and brown, curiously mingled.—The Spotted Bower-bird, which is rather smaller than the satin bower-bird, or about the size of a starling, has a general colour of rich brown, beautifully marked with black and buff; a band of elongated feathers of light rose-pink crosses the back of the neck, and forms a broad, fan-like, occipital crest. It is restricted exclusively to the interior of Australia.—The Regent-bird (*Sericulus melinus*) has also been shown to form bowers. Mr Coxen, an Australian ornithologist, to whom many interesting observations on bower-birds are due, has described the love-tent of the regent-bird. It is less dome-shaped and smaller than that of the satin bower-bird, and appears to be wholly adorned with snail-shells. The use of such elaborate contrivances in the process of courtship, and the possession of such obvious æsthetic tastes, are circumstances of great interest in estimating the height of development reached by birds.

Bowie-knife, an American hunting dagger, named after its inventor, Colonel Jim Bowie, who, born about 1790, fell at Fort Alamo in the Texan war (1836). In a great mêlée near Natchez (1827), in which six men were killed and fifteen wounded, the colonel despatched an opponent with a knife made out of a blacksmith's rasp or big file; and this knife he afterwards had fashioned at Philadelphia into the weapon with which his name is associated. Its curved, double-edged blade is 10 to 15 inches long, and above an inch wide.

Bowles, CAROLINE. See SOUTHEY.

Bowles, WILLIAM LISLE, D.D., poet, was born 24th September 1762, at King's Sutton, in Northamptonshire, where his father was vicar. Educated at Winchester School and at Trinity College, Oxford, in 1804 he became a prebendary of Salisbury Cathedral and rector of Brenhill, in Wiltshire. Here he spent in easy circumstances the rest of his long life, dying at Salisbury, 7th April 1850. His earliest publication, *Fourteen Sonnets, written chiefly on Picturesque Spots during a Journey* (1789), was received with extraordinary favour; the contents of the little volume were fresh and natural, all the more charming because of the contrast they offered to the style of poetry which had long been in vogue. Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Southey were among their enthusiastic admirers; and through his influence over them, Bowles may be looked on as the founder of a school of English poetry in which his own name was soon eclipsed by theirs. Of his subsequent poetical works (14 vols. 1789-1837) the longest is *The Spirit of Discovery*, and the best, perhaps, *The Missionary*. As a poet Bowles shows a fine appreciation of the beauties of nature, and pleases by the expression of pure and generous sentiment, as well as by the playfulness of fancy and perfect scholarly correctness; but he is deficient in vigour and depth. In 1807 he published an edition of Pope, and an opinion which he expressed on Pope's poetical merits led to a rather memorable controversy (1809-25) in which Campbell and Byron were his antagonists, and which turned chiefly upon the comparative

value in poetry of images derived from nature and those derived from art. Bowles was generally admitted to have discomfited his opponents. Of his prose writings may be mentioned a rather dry *Life of Bishop Ken* (2 vols. 1830). See the Memoir by Gillfillan prefixed to his collected poems (Edin. 1855).

Bowling Green, a town of Kentucky, capital of Warren county, on the Barren River, 114 miles S. by W. of Louisville by rail. It has a woollen factory and several mills, and some river traffic. Pop. (1880) 5114.

Bowls, or BOWLING, is an English pastime of undoubted antiquity. Strutt in his *Sports and Pastimes* reproduces a picture of two men playing a game with bowls from a MS. of the 13th century (Royal Library), and another from a MS. of the 14th century, representing three men bowling at a 'jack,' very much as the game is now practised, except that the players have only one bowl apiece.

It seems to be a doubtful point whether the ancient game was played in the open air or in closed alleys, or both; or whether, perhaps, there may not have always been two varieties of the game, one the outdoor game as we now know it, and an undercover game of bowling at pins. There is no doubt that, in the 15th and 16th centuries, *bowling-alleys* were not only very numerous, especially in the city and suburbs of London, but also became public nuisances on account of the gambling and dissipation carried on in connection with them. In the reign of Edward IV. a stringent act was passed forbidding any one to play at, among other games, *half-bowl*, either in 'house, tenement, garden, or other place,' on account of players being induced to play 'till they be utterly undone and impoverished of their goods.' This game of half-bowl is described by Strutt as still being played in Hertfordshire in his day (1801); fifteen small pins were bowled at with half of a sphere of wood, hence the name.

The name *bowls* first occurs in several acts passed by Henry VIII., who prohibited any person or persons, 'for his or their gain, lucre, or living, to keep, have, hold, occupy, exercise, or maintain any common house, alley, or place of bowling.' In spite of these acts, however, the game continued to exist, as it was not till the reign of George II. that the gambling *alley* game, against which the denunciations of the law seem to have been directed, became, more or less, actually suppressed. From about the same time, however, the outdoor game spread with such rapidity, that before the close of the century it was almost universal all over England and Scotland.

Bowling as now played is a delightful summer-evening game, and affords pleasant recreation to thousands who are past the age at which the more violent exertions of cricket or football have charms. Every village has its club and 'green,' and larger towns have them in every district. Its great drawback as a popular game is the expense of preparing the necessary smooth, fine turf-green, this being, according to circumstances, from £100 to £300, or even more. So much, however, is it acknowledged to be a healthful and innocent recreation, that the civic authorities of many towns have prepared public greens, where, for a small charge, players may enjoy the game who are not able to indulge in the luxury of private ground.

The game itself is a very simple one. The requirements are a piece of fine *level* turf 40 to 60 yards square, surrounded by a shallow ditch, a pair of bowls for each player, and a small white ball or 'jack.' The green is usually sunk below the level of the surrounding ground. The bowls are

made of lignum-vitæ, 6 to 7 inches in diameter, turned more or less oval, with one side a little rounder than the other. This gives a *bias* to the bowl, which rolls in a curved direction instead of straight.

The players are usually arranged into opposing sides of four each, although any number can play. The jack having been thrown by one of the players to a distance of not less than 20 yards from one end of the green, the object of the combatants is to roll their bowls so as to lie as near the jack as possible. The bias gives scope for considerable skill in playing the bowl, as it may be made to curve in, either from the right or from the left, as may seem best in order to dodge round other bowls which may be in the way. When all the sixteen bowls have been played, a point is counted for every bowl belonging to one side which is nearer the jack than the nearest bowl of the other side. The jack is then thrown by the winning side to the other end of the green, another 'end' played as before, and so on till one side or the other becomes game; which may be any number mutually agreed on—usually 21 or 31. The game may also consist of so many ends to be played, the side counting most at the conclusion to be the winner. Each side appoints one of their number 'skip,' who has full authority to direct the play of the others of his side. The game is identical in principle with 'Curling' (q.v.), with the difference, that the distance is always fixed in the latter, while in bowling it is uncertain. There are regularly appointed rules for playing the game, providing for such points as the jack being moved by a bowl, or being thrown into the ditch, and many other details which are beyond our province.

Bowling is also the name applied to a game of ten pins introduced from the United States. It is evidently either an improved variety of the English Skittles (q.v.), or a revival of a game called *long-bowling* or Dutch rubbers, which was played in England about the middle of the 18th century, and was exactly like the American game, except that nine pins were used. This game of long-bowls again was obviously either a development of the ancient half-bowl or similar game of bowls and pins, or a bodily introduction of the Dutch game of ninepins as played by 'Rip Van Winkle.' The game is becoming common in this country, where, in the suburbs of almost every large town, the 'American Bowling Alley' is a popular resort of the youth of the district. It is played in a covered alley on a prepared board 60 feet long by 4 feet wide. In America the board is slightly convex in the centre, and bevelled to the sides.

The ten pins, usually of ash, and about 1 foot high, are arranged as in the figure. Each player in turn rolls three bowls from the other end of the board, trying to knock over as many pins as possible.

If he knocks all the ten down before he exhausts his three throws, he is entitled to get them set up again to complete his turn. He may even knock all the pins down with each of his three bowls, in which case he scores the maximum for his turn, 30, being one for each bowl down. The other players then have their turn. A game consists of three or more such turns of three bowls for each player; he who knocks over most pins being the winner. The bowls are usually made of lignum-vitæ, are round, and of unlimited size, generally varying from $\frac{1}{2}$ a lb. to 5 or 6 lb. in weight. Such is the principle of the game, but in practice a complicated method of scoring exists. When a player knocks all the pins down with one or two bowls, he has what

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is called a 'spare' or a 'double spare'—i.e. he has one shot or two shots, as the case may be, to spare. To save time he does not get the pins put up again immediately, but waits for his next turn, when, in the case of a 'spare,' his first shot, and of a 'double,' his first two shots are counted double—viz. once for the spares of the turn before, and once for the current turn. He may even have another double or single spare, when the scoring is carried over into the third turn, and so on. In the last turn of the game, however, the spares must be played off at once. This game is undoubtedly good exercise, but it has the drawback of not being played in the open air, and it is also too often associated with the public-house to be an altogether desirable game for young men. For bowling in cricket, see CRICKET.

Bowman, SIR WILLIAM, oculist, was born in Nantwich, 20th July 1816, studied chiefly in London, where he commenced practice as a surgeon, and became curator of the Anatomical Museum. In conjunction with Todd he published the valuable *Physiological Anatomy and Physiology of Man* (5 vols. 1845-56), and gained a high reputation as an oculist by his *Lectures on Operations on the Eye* (1849), followed by his *Observations on the Artificial Pupil*. He was professor of Physiology at King's College (1845-55); has received honorary degrees from Dublin, Cambridge, and Edinburgh; is a Fellow of the Royal Society, became consulting surgeon and vice-president of King's College, London (1877), and a baronet (1884).

Bowring, SIR JOHN, born in Exeter in 1792, on leaving school entered a merchant's office, and there pursued that course of polyglot study whereby, as he afterwards boasted, he knew two hundred, and could speak a hundred, languages. The national poetry of different peoples had special attractions for him, and he rendered great service to literature by translating both the more ancient and the more modern popular poems of almost all the countries of Europe. In 1821 he formed a close friendship with Jeremy Bentham, and in 1824 became the first editor of his radical *Westminster Review*, to which, as descended the descendant of an old Puritan stock, he contributed many articles on freedom in religion and politics, as well as on literary subjects. In 1828 he visited Holland; and his *Sketch of the Language and Literature of Holland* (1829) procured for him the degree of Doctor of Laws from the university of Groningen. Subsequent travels were undertaken by him, on a commission from the British government, to inquire into the commercial relations of certain states. He visited Switzerland, Italy, Egypt, Syria, and finally the countries of the German Zollverein, and everywhere found materials for valuable reports. He sat in parliament for Kilmarnock from 1835 to 1837, for Bolton from 1841 to 1849, and actively promoted the adoption of free trade. In 1849 he was appointed British consul at Hong-Kong, and superintendent of trade in China. He returned in 1853, and in the following year was knighted and made governor of Hong-Kong. In 1856, an insult having been offered to a Chinese pirate bearing the British flag (the 'affair of the *lorcha Arrow*'), Bowring, without consulting the home government, ordered the bombardment of Canton, a proceeding which excited grave dissatisfaction at home, and nearly upset the Palmerston ministry. In 1855 he concluded a commercial treaty with Siam, in 1858 made a tour through the Philippine Islands; and his accounts of those two visits are about the most readable of his thirty-six works. He retired with a pension in 1859, and died at Claremont, Exeter, 23d November 1872. See his *Autobiographical Reminiscences* (1877).

Bowspirit is a strong boom or spar projecting over the stemhead or bows of a sailing-ship, and also of a steamship when the stem of the latter is of the curved or cut-water description. Its use is to support the jib-boom, a longer and lighter spar, forming a continuation of the bowspirit, which receives the lower ends of the foremast stay-ropes, on which sails are carried.

Bowstring, the string of a bow, is a name specifically used for an old Turkish mode of execution, the offender being strangled by means of a bowstring.

Bowstring Hemp, or *MOORVA*, is the fibre of a species of *Sansevieria* (especially *S. Zeylanica*), a plant of the natural order Liliaceæ (q.v.), tribe Hemerocallæ, used for making bowstrings in the East Indies. The fibre is hair-like and silky, elastic, and in strength apparently about equal to hemp. It does not rot in water so soon as hemp. — A very similar species (*S. guineensis*) is found in abundance on the west coast of Africa, and its fibre has been imported as African Bowstring Hemp.

Bow-window. See BAY-WINDOW.

Bowyer, SIR GEORGE, born in 1811 at Radley, near Oxford, in 1839 was called to the bar. Converted to Catholicism in 1850, he represented Dundalk 1852-68, and the county of Wexford 1874-80, when his Home Rule principles estranged him from the Liberal party, and in 1876 led to his expulsion from the Reform Club. He succeeded his father as seventh baronet in 1860, and died suddenly in London, 7th June 1883. He was author of several able works on constitutional law and Catholic subjects.

Bowyer, WILLIAM, an eminent English printer and classical scholar, born in London, 19th December 1699, was educated at Cambridge, and in 1722 joined his father, William Bowyer (1663-1737), in trade. Appointed in 1729 printer of the votes of the House of Commons, he subsequently became printer to the Society of Antiquaries and to the Royal Society. In 1767 he was nominated printer of the Rolls of the House of Lords and the Journals of the House of Commons. He died 18th November 1777. Bowyer published several philological tracts, edited several volumes of Swift's works, and the first translation of Rousseau's *Paradoical Orations* (1751), and wrote two essays on the *Origin of Printing* (1774); but his chief production was an edition of the New Testament in Greek with critical and emendatory notes.

Box (*Buxus*), a genus usually reckoned to belong to the Euphorbiaceæ; evergreen shrubs or small trees, with greenish inconspicuous monocious flowers in little axillary spikes or fascicles. The Common Box (*B. sempervirens*) grows wild through South Europe, North Africa, North Asia to Japan, West Asia to West Himalaya. It is generally regarded as a true native of Surrey and the south of England, where it grows on dry chalky hills. In Britain, it seldom attains a height of more than 12 or 14 feet, though in warmer countries it is often twice that height, and though the three classic box-trees in Queen Mary's 'child-garden' at Inchmahone, in the Lake of Menteith, are 20½ feet high. The box is remarkable for its compact habit of growth and densely crowded branches and leaves, presenting a very solid mass of foliage, hence it bears clipping remarkably well; and in the old 'topiary' style of ornamental gardening it occupied an important place, being cut into architectural and fantastic figures. A dwarf variety is used for edging garden-plots, and different kinds are grown in our shrubberies. The bitter and purgative leaves are no longer officinal. The wood of the box is heavier than that of any other European

tree, and is the only European wood that sinks in water. It is of a beautiful pale-yellow colour, remarkably hard and strong, of a fine regular and compact texture, capable of a beautiful polish,



Branch of the Common Box (*Buxus sempervirens*).

and not liable to be worm-eaten. It is much valued for the purposes of the turner and the wood-carver; is preferred to every other kind of wood for the manufacture of flutes, flageolets, and other wind-instruments, as well as of mathematical instruments; and is unrivalled for wood-engraving, admitting of a finish as sharp and fine as metal, whilst it takes the ink much better (see ENGRAVING). The box of commerce comes mainly from Caucasia, parts of Turkey in Asia, and Persia; but the reckless destruction of the box-trees has rendered the supplies scarce and dear. In 1815 as many box-trees were cut down at Box Hill, in Surrey, as brought upwards of £10,000; but the tree is of so very slow growth that it is seldom planted in Britain except for ornament. — The Minorea Box, or Balearic Box (*B. balearica*), a native of the Mediterranean countries, &c., is a larger tree than the common box. The wood is of a bright yellow, and inferior to the true box-wood, but is brought in large quantities from Constantinople under that name.

Box-days. These are days appointed by the Court of Session in Scotland, in the vacations and Christmas recess, on which pleadings or other law-papers may be lodged or filed, the object being to expedite the procedure, notwithstanding the vacation or recess. The name is derived from the fact that all printed papers in the Court of Session must be placed in boxes, one for each judge, for each legal society, and for the reporters. These boxes were introduced in 1690 to avoid the evil of private solicitation of judges.

Box-hauling is a mode of turning a ship, when the swell of the sea renders tacking impossible, or when the ship is too near the shore to allow room for veering. The operation is effected by hauling the head-sheets to windward, bracing the head-yards aback, and squaring the after-yards, the helm at the same time being put alee. *Boxing-off* is a very similar operation. See TACK, VEER.

Boxing. See PUGILISM.

Boxing-day, the day after Christmas, and so called in England from being the day on which *Christmas-boxes*, or presents, are given to servants and others. See CHRISTMAS.

Boxtel, a town in the Dutch province of North Brabant, 38 miles S. by E. of Utrecht. An Anglo-Dutch army, under the Duke of York, was here defeated with great loss by the French in 1794. Pop. (1883) 5703.

Box-thorn (*Lycium*), a genus of Solanaceæ, having funnel-shaped or tubular flowers, and

2-celled berries. Several species are natives of the south of Europe, thorny shrubs, with long slender shoots and simple lanceolate leaves. *L. europæum* may be trained to a height of 30 or 40 feet, and is often planted—as are also other species—to cover walls, &c. *L. vulgare* has been sparingly naturalised in the United States. *L. fuchsoides*, although destitute of spines, is used as a hedge-plant in the Andes of Quito.

Boyacá, a department of Colombia, touching Venezuela. In the west it is mountainous; in the east it has vast prairies, and is watered by the Meta and its tributaries. The Muzo emerald mine is the richest in the world, and the department is rich in salt springs, coal, iron, plumbago, and copper ore. Area, 33,351 sq. m.; pop. (1886) 483,874. Capital, Tunja, 6000 inhabitants.

Boyar, an order in old Russia, next to the knjazes or knjeses (ruling princes). They had their own partisans, and gave their services to a prince of their own choice, whom they left again at their pleasure. They held the highest military and civil offices, and were so universally looked up to by the mass of the people, that the most powerful rulers considered it prudent to use this form in their ukases: 'The emperor has ordered it; the Boyars have approved it.' Their rank was always proportioned to length of state-service. In their housekeeping the Boyars were excessively fond of splendour, and their contempt for the serfs or 'lower orders' was immeasurable. Their power acted as a wholesome check upon the authority of the princes, in consequence of which the latter became their bitter enemies. Peter the Great finally abolished the order by giving them a place among the Russian nobility, but at the same time stripping them of their peculiar privileges.—The higher nobility of Roumania are also called Boyars.

Boyaux (Fr., 'bowels') are the zigzag approaches used in siege operations to connect the parallels. See SIEGE.

Boy-bishop. The custom of electing a boy-bishop on St Nicholas's Day dates from a very early period. It spread over most Catholic countries, and in England seems to have prevailed in almost every parish. Although the election took place on St Nicholas's Day (6th December), the authority lasted to Holy Innocents' Day (28th December). The boy-bishop was chosen from the children of the church or cathedral choir, or from the pupils at the grammar-school. He was arrayed in episcopal vestments, and, attended by a crowd of subordinates in priestly dress, went about with songs and dances from house to house, blessing the people, who, as Bishop Hall says, 'stood grinning in the way to expect that ridiculous benediction.' The mock prelate exacted implicit obedience from his fellows, who, along with their superior, took possession of the church, and performed all the ceremonies and offices except mass. The custom found countenance not among the populace only. In 1299 Edward I., on his way to Scotland, permitted a boy-bishop to say vespers before him at Heaton, near Newcastle-on-Tyne. At Salisbury the boy-bishop, it is said, had the power of disposing of such prebends as happened to fall vacant during the days of his episcopacy; and if he died during his office, the funeral honours of a bishop, with a monument, were granted him. The genuineness of the effigy in Salisbury Cathedral known as 'the boy-bishop's monument' has, however, been seriously questioned. In England, the custom was abolished by a proclamation of Henry VIII., dated July 22, 1542; restored by Queen Mary in 1554; and again abolished during the reign of Elizabeth, though it seems to have lingered

here and there in villages till about the close of her reign. On the Continent it was the subject of a formal interdict at the Council of Basel (1431); and at Zug, in Switzerland, a similar usage was suppressed so recently as 1797.

Boyce, WILLIAM, composer, born in London, 1710, was a chorister at St Paul's, and was appointed composer to the Chapel-royal in 1736, and organist in 1758. He received the degree of Doctor of Music from Cambridge in 1749, and was master of the king's band from 1755. He died at Kensington, 7th February 1779. Boyce holds a high rank as a composer of church music, his two services and several of his anthems being still frequently performed. His songs include 'Hearts of Oak,' written for one of Garrick's pantomimes; and a miscellaneous collection of his songs and cantatas extended to 6 volumes. His best work is the serenata of *Solomon* (1743); his most valuable publication is a collection of the *Cathedral Music* of the two preceding centuries (3 vols. 1760).

Boycotting, the system of combining to hold no relations, social or commercial, with a neighbour, in order to punish him for differences in political opinion—a kind of social excommunication. It was first formulated by Mr Parnell, the Irish leader, at Ennis on 19th September 1880, and derived its name from one of the first victims, Captain Boycott, a Mayo factor and farmer, who has had for his sufferings the consolation of giving a new word to most European languages. The term 'exclusive dealing' has been applied by its apologists to boycotting, which was brought within the law by the Crimes Act of 1887.

Boyd, REV. ANDREW KENNEDY HUTCHISON, D.D., son of the parish minister of Anchinleck, Ayrshire, where he was born November 1825, was educated at King's College, London, and Glasgow University, where he took the highest honours in philosophy and theology. He was in succession minister in three Scottish parishes before his settlement at St Andrews. He first became known in literature by his familiar essays contributed to *Fraser's Magazine* under the now well-known initials A. K. H. B., most of which have been reprinted. He is author of *Recreations of a Country Parson* (three series, 1859-61) and of many volumes of sermons. His works have been exceedingly popular in America.

Boyd, ZACHARY, a Scottish divine, born of an Ayrshire family about 1585, was educated at Kilmarnock and at the universities of Glasgow and St Andrews, afterwards becoming a regent or professor of the Protestant college of Saumur in France. The persecution of the Huguenots having caused him to return to Scotland in 1621, he was two years later appointed minister of the Barony parish, Glasgow, and was thrice elected rector of the university. His principal prose work, *The Last Battell of the Soule in Death* (1629), was reprinted, with a life of the author, by Gabriel Neil, in 1831; of the quaint *Zion's Flowers* (1644)—mostly metrical versions of Scripture history, and commonly called 'Boyd's Bible'—a selection was reprinted in 1855; and the *Four Letters of Comfort* (1640) were reprinted in 1878. He died in 1653 or 1654, leaving numerous MSS. and his library, with a considerable legacy, to Glasgow University.

Boydell, JOHN, engraver and publisher of prints, was born at Dorrington, Shropshire, in 1719, and in 1741 trudged up to London, where he learned engraving, and presently started a print-shop. English engraving was then at a low ebb, but under Boydell's liberal patronage of native artists, the importation of foreign prints not only almost ceased, but English prints were exported to the Continent. Boydell now determined to do for

English painting what he had done for engraving. He accordingly selected Shakespeare's works for illustration, and secured the most eminent painters in the kingdom, including Opie, Reynolds, Northcote, and West. The result was the 'Shakespeare Gallery,' from which was engraved a superb volume of plates (1803) to accompany a splendid edition of Shakespeare's works in 9 vols. fol. (1792-1801). The immense sums of money he spent on these illustrations, and the commercial depression consequent on the French Revolution, brought him into difficulties, from which he was not wholly extricated at his death, 12th December 1804. In 1790 he had been Lord Mayor.

Boyer, ALEXIS, BARON DE, a great French surgeon, was born in 1757 at Uzerehes in Limousin. A tailor's son, he in 1805 was appointed first surgeon to the Emperor Napoleon, who raised him to the rank of baron, and whom he accompanied on his campaigns and journeys. After the Restoration he became professor of Practical Surgery in the university of Paris, and first surgeon at the Hôpital de la Charité. In 1825 he was admitted a member of the Institute. He died 25th November 1833. His greatest works are his *Traité Complet d'Anatomie* (4 vols. 1797-99), and *Traité des Maladies Chirurgicales* (11 vols. 1814-26; 5th ed. 1853).

Boyer, JEAN PIERRE, president of the republic of Hayti, was born of a mulatto family, 28th February 1776, at Port-au-Prince. Sent to France at a very early age, he received a European education, and in 1792 entered the military service. He soon distinguished himself by his conduct against the British on their invasion of his native isle, and afterwards joined the party which aimed at the complete emancipation of the colony. He aided Pétion in overthrowing the bloody tyrant Dessalines in 1806, and establishing an independent republic in the western part of the island. His wisdom and courage saved the struggling state, and his loyal support of Pétion caused the latter on his deathbed to recommend him to the people as his successor in the president's chair. After the death of Christophe, he united the negro district with the mulatto in 1820, next year added also the eastern district, hitherto Spanish, and in 1825, upon payment of 150 millions of francs, obtained recognition of independence from France. He governed the republic of Hayti well for fifteen years, but at length his partiality to the mulattoes made him so unpopular with the pure negroes that they rose in insurrection in 1843. Boyer fled to Jamaica, and subsequently went to Paris, where he died 9th July 1850.

Boyle, a town in County Roscommon, Ireland, on the river Boyle, above its expansion into Lough Key, 108 miles NW. of Dublin by rail. It has a thriving trade in corn, flax, butter, and provisions. An abbey, built here in the 12th century, was reduced to its present ruined state in 1595 by the Earl of Tyrone. Pop. (1881) 2994.

Boyle, CHARLES, fourth Earl of Orrery, was born in 1676, succeeded to the title in 1703, in 1721 was imprisoned in the Tower as a Jacobite, and died in 1731. In the *Battle of the Books* (1695-98), the great controversy on the *Letters of Phalaris*, he was Atterbury's stalking-horse against Bentley (q.v.); and in his honour the name 'Orrery' was given to the scientific apparatus of that name by its inventor, Graham, to whom he had been kind. Of his poems, even Sir Richard Blackmore said:

After his foolish rhymes, both friends and foes
Conclude they know who did not write his prose.

Boyle, JOHN, born in 1707, succeeded as fifth Earl of Orrery in 1731, and of Cork in 1753. In spite of his father's statement in his will that his

son had no taste for letters as a reason for bequeathing his library to Christ-Church, he made for himself a place in literature by *Remarks on Swift* (1751), a book marred by grudging praise and manifest malice, as well as an incapacity to comprehend the genius of his subject; as also by a translation of the *Letters of Pliny* (1751), which is still considered excellent. He died in 1762. He was long the intimate friend of Pope and Swift; the latter, indeed, writes to Pope that next himself he loves 'no man so well.' It is now impossible to determine why this much-loved friend tried to stab Swift when laid in the quiet safety of the grave. Berkeley said of Boyle that he 'would have been a man of genius had he known how to set about it,' and Johnson says he 'would have been a liberal patron if he had been rich.'

Boyle, RICHARD, the founder of the house of Cork and Orrery, and fitly styled the Great Earl of Cork, was born 13th October 1566, at Canterbury, of a good but not wealthy family, originally from Herefordshire. After having studied at Cambridge and the Middle Temple, he went over to Ireland with a few pounds in his pocket to hew his way to fortune. His energy, prudence, and signal capacity for government received their reward. He married at Limerick, Joan, daughter and co-heiress of William Ansley, at whose premature death he became possessed of £500 a year in lands. He purchased estates and improved them, for £1000 buying 12,000 acres of fertile land in Cork, Waterford, and Tipperary; he promoted the immigration of English Protestants, and triumphed over the envy of his enemies, making good his cause with Queen Elizabeth, and winning her favour. Cromwell is said to have remarked regarding his improved estates, that had there been one like him in every province rebellion would have been impossible. He profited by the introduction of manufactures and mechanical arts, reaping, it is said, from his ironworks £100,000. He built bridges, founded harbours and towns, and thirteen strong castles for their defence. About 4000 persons found employment on his vast plantations. For his services in connection with English rule in the south of Ireland honours flowed in upon him; he was knighted in 1603; and in 1620 he became Viscount Dungarvan and Earl of Cork. In 1631 he was made lord high-treasurer, an office which remained hereditary in his family. On the appointment of Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, as lord-deputy, he suffered to the extent of £40,000 by charges preferred against him by the latter. In his old age the Munster rebels compelled him to gird on armour, and turn his castle into a fortress. He soon raised a little army of his servants and tenants, and with an auxiliary force commanded by his four sons (and paid, when his money was spent, out of his plate-chest), the noble old earl took castles, smote the rebels, and quenched rebellion in his borders. He died 15th September 1643, and was buried at Youghal.

Boyle, THE HON. ROBERT, the most celebrated natural philosopher of his time, seventh son and fourteenth child of Richard Boyle, first Earl of Cork, was born at Lismore Castle, province of Munster, Ireland, January 25, 1627. As a child, he was distinguished by precocity of intellect, a rare love of truth, and a serious disposition. After studying at Eton, and under the rector of Stalbridge, Dorset, he went to the Continent, where he stayed for six years. On his return in 1644, he found himself in possession, by his father's death, of the manor of Stalbridge, where he took up his abode, and resided till 1650. He took no part in political strife, but devoted himself to the cultivation of science, and particularly of chemistry

and natural philosophy. He was one of the first members of that association of scientific men which about that time (1645) held private meetings at Oxford and London, and some years after became better known as the Royal Society. After several visits to his Irish estates, in 1654 he settled at Oxford. Here he experimented extensively in pneumatics, and improved the air-pump. At the same time, he devoted earnest attention to the study of theology. After the Restoration, he was urgently advised by Lord Clarendon to enter the church, but he thought that he could do better service to religion as a layman. Among the proofs which he gave of this, besides his own theological writings and eminent example, were his exertions as a director of the East India Company (for which he had procured the Charter) for the propagation of Christianity in the East, as well as procuring and circulating at his own expense translations of the Scriptures, and his bequest for the foundation of the 'Boyle Lectures' (q.v.) in defence of Christianity. In 1668 he took up his residence permanently in London with his sister, Lady Ranelagh, in Pall Mall, and was thenceforth able to devote much of his time to the business of the Royal Society. In 1680 he was chosen president, but declined the honour. A peerage had repeatedly been offered to him, and declined. In 1688, finding his health decline, he shut himself up against all interruption, in order to husband his remaining time for the labour of repairing the loss caused by the accidental destruction of his MSS. In 1691 his health finally gave way, and on the 30th of December 1691 he died, seven days after his beloved sister, Lady Ranelagh. Boyle, who was never married, was tall and emaciated in person, and extremely temperate in his habits, often subject to low spirits, but naturally lively and of rare conversational powers. He was on terms of intercourse with royalty. He believed in the possibility of some of the alchemistic transmutations; but by the number of facts and observations which he patiently collected, and erroneous notions which he cleared away, he has been termed the true precursor of the modern chemist. He invented a compressed-air pump, and the first English hermetically sealed thermometer was made under his directions. He seems to have discovered the law commonly called 'Mariotte's law' seven years before Mariotte (q.v.), and to have established it independently. His piety, benevolence, and charity would have made him remarkable, apart from his scientific attainments and reputation. His complete works (including his very interesting correspondence), with a Life by Dr Birch, and an index, were published in 5 vols. fol. (Lond. 1744).

Boyle, ROGER, soldier and statesman, was born in 1621. The third son of the Earl of Cork, he was made for his father's services Baron Broghill in 1627. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and on the outbreak of the Civil War naturally took the royalist side; but after the death of the king, came under the personal influence of Cromwell, and distinguished himself by his conduct in the Irish campaign, especially under the eye of his chief in the desperate struggle at Clonmel. In Cromwell's (1654) parliament he sat for Cork, and in 1656 was named for both that city and Edinburgh, where he had been lord president of the council for a year, and 'gained more,' says Robert Baillie, 'on the affections of the people than all the English that ever were among us.' He became one of Cromwell's special council, and a member of his House of Lords. It was chiefly at his instance that the parliament urged the Protector to assume the title of king, and it was he who proposed a marriage between Cromwell's daughter Frances and Charles II. After Cromwell's death, he tried to support

Richard, but foreseeing that his cause was hopeless, crossed to Ireland, and secured it for the king. Indeed, his letter inviting Charles to land at Cork actually reached the prince before the first message from Monk. Four months after the Restoration, Broghill was made Earl of Orrery. He continued to enjoy the favour of the king, who put a stop to an attempt at his impeachment by the House of Commons in 1668. He died in 1679. He wrote poems, six tragedies, two comedies, a romance entitled *Parthenissa* (1654), and a *Treatise of the Art of War* (1677); and enjoyed the friendship of Davenant, Dryden, and Cowley.

Boyle Lectures, so called from the founder, the Hon. Robert Boyle (q.v.), who, by his will dated July 28, 1691, settled £50 a year for 'some preaching minister,' who shall preach eight sermons in the year for proving the Christian religion against Atheists, Theists (i.e. Deists), Pagans, Jews, and Mohammedans, not descending to any controversies among Christians themselves. The office is tenable for three years. They are now preached in the Chapel-royal, Whitehall, in the afternoon of some of the Sundays following Easter-day. The first series of eight lectures, *A Confutation of Atheism*, was preached in 1692 by Richard Bentley. In 1704 Dr Samuel Clarke preached on the *Being and Attributes of God*, in answer to the arguments of Hobbes, Spinoza, and their followers. All the lectures preached up to 1732 were collected into a fine folio edition, in 3 vols. (1739); from that period down to 1802 few of the lectures were published. In 1846 the course by the Rev. F. D. Maurice was published under the title, *The Religions of the World*. The most eminent lecturers of recent years whose courses have been published are Merivale, the historian (1864-65), on *The Conversion of the Roman Empire and Northern Nations*; Professor Plumptre (1866); Professor Stanley Leathes (1868-70); Dr Hessey (1871-73); Henry Wace (1874-75); Alfred Barry (1876-78); Dr Maclear (1879-80); and G. H. Curtis (1881).

Boyle's Fuming Liquor is the term applied to a solution of sulphide of ammonium obtained by distilling a mixture of slaked lime, sal-ammoniac, and sulphur. The same substance is produced by passing sulphuretted hydrogen into a solution of ammonia. It is a straw-coloured liquid, possessing the odour of rotten eggs, and liberating sulphuretted hydrogen on addition of an acid or exposure to the air.

Boyne, a river in the east of Ireland, rises in the Bog of Allen, and flows through Kildare, King's county, Meath, and Louth. It passes Trim, Navan, and Slane, and enters the Irish Sea 4 miles below Drogheda, after a course of about 80 miles in a carboniferous limestone basin, its total descent being 336 feet. On its estuary near Drogheda there is a lighthouse with fixed light, there are three at the entrance to the harbour, and a viaduct 95 feet in height conducts the Great Northern Railway across the river. Its chief tributaries are the Mattock and Blackwater. It is navigable for vessels of 250 tons to Drogheda, and for barges of 70 tons to Navan, 19 miles up. Its banks are studded with many ruins of monasteries and castles. In 838 Turgesius the Dane sailed up the Boyne and plundered Meath. But this river is chiefly famous for the battle of the Boyne, which was fought on its banks, 3 miles W. of Drogheda, on 1st July 1690, and in which William III. defeated James II. William's loss was 500, James's three times that number. An obelisk, 150 feet high, marks the scene of the battle.

Bozen. See BOTZEN.

Bozrah (modern *el-Basrah*), a strong town of Edom, in the mountain district, to the south-east

of the Dead Sea, about 300 B.C. capital of the Nabateans, but now an unimportant village.

Bozzaris, MARCOS, Greek patriot, was born about 1788 at Suli, in the mountains of Epirus. His youth was spent amid the din of arms. In 1803 he was forced to retreat to the Ionian Isles by Ali Pasha (q.v.), who had nearly exterminated the Suliotes. In 1820 Ypsilanti summoned the Greeks to insurrection, and war broke out between Ali Pasha and the sultan. On learning the news, Bozzaris put himself at the head of some 800 expatriated Suliotes, and passed over into Epirus. Ali found means to secure their services against the common enemy, and Bozzaris gained several victories, and on Ali's death continued the war successfully. Shortly after, Prince Mavrocordato landed at Missolonghi with a body of disciplined troops, and being joined by Bozzaris, he engaged the Turks at Petta, 16th July 1822, but was compelled to retire to Missolonghi, which place Bozzaris skilfully defended. In 1823 a Turco-Albanian army of 13,000 men descended from the north of Epirus. Bozzaris advanced swiftly at the head of 1200 men, and on 20th August reached Karpenisi, where the van of the Turkish army, 4000 strong, was encamped. At night, 350 Suliotes burst in upon their startled foes, who were routed with great slaughter; but Bozzaris fell while leading on his men to the final attack.

Bozzolo, a town of North Italy, 14 miles WSW. of Mantua. Pop. (1881) 4154.

Bra, a town of North Italy, 31 miles SSE. of Turin by rail. Pop. (1881) 9856.

Brabançonne, the patriotic song of the Belgians, originally sung by the insurgents during the revolution of September 1830. The words were written by Jenneval, a young French actor, then at Brussels, the music by Campenhout.

Brabant was the name formerly given to an important province of the Low Countries, extending from the left bank of the Waal to the sources of the Dyle, and from the Maas and the plain of Limburg to the Lower Scheldt. In the time of Caesar, Brabant was inhabited by a mixed race of Germans and Celts; it afterwards came into possession of the Franks; and in the middle ages it formed a duchy by itself, dependent upon Lower Lorraine, with which in 1107 the county of Antwerp was incorporated, and in 1347, for a time, the lordship of Mechlin or Malines, formerly connected with Liège. After many changes, Brabant was made a part of the kingdom of Holland, at the Congress of Vienna; but since the revolution of 1830, the three provinces of Brabant have been divided as follows: (1) North or Dutch Brabant, containing 1960 sq. m. and (1885) 495,277 inhabitants; (2) the Belgian province of Antwerp, which contains 1094 sq. m. and (1885) 639,339 inhabitants; and (3) South Brabant, also Belgian, containing 1260 sq. m. and an extremely dense population of (1885) 1,060,053. The country consists of a plain gently sloping to the north-west, and rising in the south into low hills, which are offsets of those of the Ardennes. In the level northern part are many heathy and fenny tracts; one of them, a morass called the Peel, is over 20 miles in length, and from 2 to 6 broad. In the hilly district of the south is the Forest of Soignies. The Maas and the Scheldt are the principal rivers; but some of their tributaries are also very useful for internal commerce, which is further promoted by canals and railways. The soil is fertile, and grain, vegetables, and hay are extensively grown; also hops, tobacco, and elicory. Farm stock is large. The making of salt, beet-sugar, cigars, thread, woollen cloths, leather, earthenware, and soap, with printing, distilling, and turkey-red dyeing, are the chief industries.

Brabant lace has a certain celebrity. The principal towns are Brussels, the former capital of Brabant, Bois-le-Duc (Hertogenbosch), Tilburg, Breda, and Bergen-op-Zoom. Most of the inhabitants are Catholics; those in the north are Dutch; in the middle district, Flemish; and in the south, of Walloon race. The main boundary between the languages is a few leagues to the south of Brussels, the Walloon French being spoken to the south, and Flemish and Dutch to the north of this line.

Braccio, FORTEBRACCI, COUNT OF MONTONE, a celebrated Italian free-lance, born at Perugia, of an old patrician family, in 1368. From his early youth he was engaged in warfare, and had already given his sword to very various causes, when in 1416 he obtained the sovereignty of his native city. The year after he held Rome for a time. Next he accepted from Queen Joanna of Naples the command of her land-forces, and soon for his services was created Count of Foggia and Prince of Capua. In 1423, by the queen's command, he was crowned at Perugia, as Prince of Aquila and Capua. His ambition now soared to the throne of Naples itself. He overran Campania and Apulia, and advanced into Calabria, but in a battle before Aquila, was wounded and taken prisoner. Three days later he died, June 5, 1424.

Brace, in Carpentry, an oblique piece of wood used to bind together the principal timbers of a roof or other woollen structure. The name is also used of the curved iron tool (holding a *bit*) used by carpenters for boring. See ROOF, BORING.

Brace, CHARLES LORING, an American author and philanthropist, born at Litchfield, Connecticut, 19th June 1826, studied theology in New York, where he took up the question of the education and housing of the poor. He founded the Children's Aid Society in 1853, and subsequently acted as its secretary; its annual income is about a quarter of a million dollars, and it has provided homes for over 60,000 children. He published notes of visits to Hungary (1852), Germany (1853), Norway (1857), and California (1869), besides *The Races of the Old World* (1863), *Geste Christi* (1882), and other works.

Bracelet (through Fr. from Lat. *brachium*, 'the arm'), a personal ornament, of different materials, worn on the arm, generally at the wrist. Bracelets and armlets (Lat. *armilla*) have been used by almost every nation, both savage and civilised, from the earliest periods to our own. In the text of the Old Testament there are three different words rendered by 'bracelet' in our authorised version. One of these probably means an armlet worn by men (Num. xxi. 50, 2 Sam. i. 10); the second was a bracelet worn by women, and sometimes by men (Gen. xxiv. 22, Ezek. xvi. 11); the third a peculiar bracelet of chain-work, worn only by women (Isa. iii. 19). That referred to in 2 Sam. i. 10 was an ornament that belonged to the king, like those famous armlets with their splendid diamonds which now form part of the regalia of the kings of Persia, and which are said once to have belonged to the Mogul emperors of India. The ancient Medes and Persians were remarkable, even amongst Asiatics, for their love of ornaments of this kind; and they were worn in Europe by the Gauls and Sabines. They do not seem to have been worn by men among the ancient Greeks, but Greek ladies wore both armlets and bracelets of the most various materials and forms. Some of these went round the arm twice or thrice, and a favourite form was that of a serpent. Many examples of this kind occur on painted vases. Amongst the Romans, armlets were not usually worn by men, but were frequently conferred upon soldiers for deeds of

valour (Livy, x. 44). Roman ladies wore bracelets, not only for ornament, but also for the purpose of containing amulets, as it is said that Nero wore on his right arm the skin of a serpent, inclosed in a golden armilla. Some of the early armlets of Scandinavia and Germany were evidently worn more for defence than ornament.

Braces, on shipboard, are ropes attached to the yard-arms, and employed to turn or swing the yards round.

Brach, or **BRACHE**, is an old name (originally French) for a scenting hound or other hunting dog.

Brachial Artery is the great arterial trunk supplying the upper extremity between the armpit and the elbow; in other words, it is the direct continuation of the axillary artery. It runs down the front and inner side of the upper arm, giving off several named branches as it proceeds, and at a point about an inch below the bend of the elbow it terminates by dividing into radial and ulnar arteries. In cases of arterial bleeding from wounds of the hand or forearm, the brachial artery may be compressed against the middle of the shaft of the humerus, just behind the inner margin of the biceps muscle. See **ARM**, **ARTERY**, **CIRCULATION**.

Brachiopoda, a class of shelled animals having certain affinities with worms and with Polyzoa, but less with molluscs, though often included within the limits of the last-named group. The presence of two shells gives them a superficial resemblance to true bivalves (Lamellibranchs), but the shells lie dorsally and ventrally instead of right and left, and the anatomy of the inclosed organism is quite different.

History.—Naturalists were for long content with placing Brachiopods beside *Anomia* or among Lamellibranchs. Forbes and others have shown that this is impossible, and the growing tendency, due to better acquaintance with their structure and to the researches of Morse, Kovalevsky, and others on their embryology, has been to regard them as specialised and passive Annelid types. Other suggestions have not been wanting, but there is now a general consensus of opinion in defining them as one of the many offshoots from the 'worm' branch of the genealogical tree. The Tunicata have been removed from any close alliance with Brachiopods, while the Polyzoa have come to be regarded as very closely allied.

Structure.—The external form of the animal certainly suggests that of an ordinary bivalve, but, as above noted, the position of the two valves is quite different. The size varies from considerably

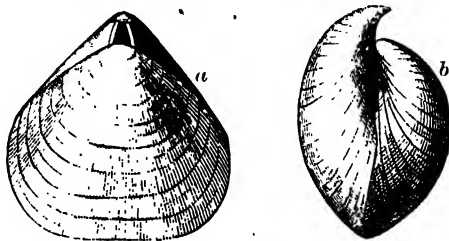


Fig. 1.—*Rhynchonella psittacea* seen from the dorsal aspect (a) and from the side (b).

under half an inch to an inch, or rarely two inches in length. The shell consists of two distinct valves, the ventral usually larger than the dorsal, and each divisible into symmetrical halves. Where the valves unite, a perforated beak is often present. Through the hole of the beak a muscular bundle passes, serving in some cases for moving the animal. The shell may be horny (among Discinidae and Lin-

gulidae), glassy, or massively limy. Its structure is very much simpler than that of ordinary bivalves, and often consists of a single layer, which, in the majority, is penetrated by skin processes, which possibly have a respiratory significance. These are absent in Rhynchonellidae and a few others, where the shell is therefore described as non-porous. The outer surface may be sculptured and coloured. The dorsal valve bears internally a limy ribbon of very varied shape, which forms the supporting organ of the respiratory apparatus. The ventral valve is in many cases provided with hinge teeth, which fit into depressions in the upper valve and lock the two halves firmly together.

The shell is secreted and lined by a delicate double membrane or *mantle*. Between the two layers there is a rich distribution of blood-vessels (the arterial system according to Huxley) which are connected with the body proper by two or four contractile heart-like organs. They communicate with the mantle-cavity, and with a chamber which occupies most of the body-cavity proper. The outer layer of the mantle next the shell often sends blind processes into canals which traverse the valves. The mantle is often strengthened by microscopic limy plates, and the margin very generally bears stiff bristles. The internal surface of the inner layer is ciliated. The body proper lies towards the hinge, and the large space between the two mantles is occupied by two large and exceedingly characteristic organs, which are probably respiratory, and certainly serve to waft little food-particles to the mouth. They consist of long tubes, bearing on one side movable cirri, and varying greatly in their degree of freedom and manner of twisting. In some cases these can be protruded through the open valves, in other cases they return upon themselves and are supported throughout by the limy ribbon above mentioned. They are tentacular, or labial organs, and arise from the outpulled margins of the mouth; in a few cases they are absent. The three or more pairs of muscles working the valves of Brachiopods are more complex than those of Lamellibranchs, and vary considerably in the two main divisions. The nervous system consists of a ring round the gullet, with superior and larger inferior pairs of ganglia, and of nerves regularly distributed to the various organs. Sense organs seem to degenerate in the very passive adults, but the young may possess eyespots, and sometimes also ear-sacs. The alimentary system consists of the inconspicuous mouth at the base of the long tentacles, of an ascending gullet widening into the stomach, of an associated digestive gland, and of an intestine which bends downwards, and either ends blindly or in an anus on the right side anteriorly. The respiratory system, as already noticed, probably consists of the processes from the mantle and of the tentacular arms, but further researches are necessary to make this certain. The vascular system between the mantle-layers has been already noted. The heart is usually described as a pear-shaped organ above the stomach, supplied by a main vein, and giving off

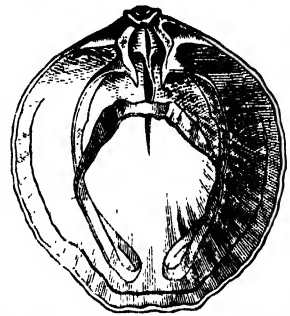


Fig. 2.—Interior of the smaller (dorsal) valve of a Brachiopod shell (*Walthheimia*), showing the limy framework which supports the arms.

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two arteries. The excretory system consists of a pair of tubes (compare segmental organs of other Invertebrates) to the right and left of the gut, opening internally into the body-cavity, and externally into the space between the two mantle-flaps. In *Rhynchonella psittacea* a second pair is present. These tubes serve also for genital ducts. The reproductive system is usually represented in one division by two pairs of glands, situated in sacs from the body-cavity into the mantle-cavity, and in the other division by glands near the coils of the gut. In the former the sexes are separate, in the latter the glands are hermaphrodite.

Mode of Life.—The adult Brachiopods are excessively passive organisms. Some are fixed by whole or part of their ventral valves, others seem to have been anchored in the mud by long spines, while a few are stalked either for life or in their earlier stages. The lamp-shell *Lingula*, with the longest stalk, is at the same time, as one would expect, one of the least limy, and has in fact a horny shell. *L. pyramidata* has been shown by Morse to have the power of moving along the sand, and *Terebratulina caput serpentis* has also considerable power of moving on its stalk. The nadir of passivity as expressed in enormously thick limy shells is well illustrated by the very large and massive fossil *Productide*. The food seems largely to consist of diatoms, but the *Lingulidae* are also known to sweep in small crustaceans and abundance of mud. They are all marine, and attach themselves to rocks, corals, molluscs, &c.

Development.—The eggs may be laid externally, or develop within the ducts, or in *Thecidium* in a special brood-chamber. The segmented larvae, which in some cases show marked affinities with Chaetopod worms, are free-swimming and very unlike the adults. They fix themselves by their posterior portion, lose their anterior sensory region, and form the body out of the rest.

Distribution in Space.—The Brachiopods are widely distributed, but are at the same time much localised. In favourite haunts they occur in great numbers. *Lingula* abounds at above half-tide mark, while the more abundant limy forms go down to very great depths—as far as 2600 fathoms. The horny forms are fonder of warm and tropical, the limy of cold and temperate waters.

Distribution in Time.—The Brachiopods furnish a striking illustration of a moribund class. In former periods they were vastly more numerous. The hingeless forms appear first, soon accompanied by hinged types, in the Cambrian strata; in Silurian times they were exceedingly numerous; in the Devonian was their golden age. In the Carboniferous strata they are much rarer, and still more so in the Dyas. They increase again in the Jurassic, and reach another climax, sinking again in the Chalk, and gradually dwindling to the presently existing residue. Of the 125 genera and 2000 species, 17 genera and 110 species are still extant—a striking instance of decadence, which may in part be due to their extreme passivity, and also to the number of relatively trivial characters so often connected with this state. *Lingula* and some others have persisted from the earliest times.

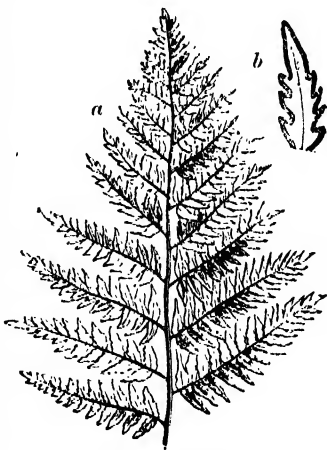
Classification.—The Brachiopods are often divided into two orders of Testicardines and Ecardines, respectively with and without hinges. In the former it may be further noted that the shell is always limy, the mantle-flaps are united posteriorly, the gut ends blindly. In the latter the shell may be horny, there is no arm skeleton, the mantle-flaps are always separate, the gut has an anal aperture. *Terebratula*, *Thecidium*, *Stringocephalus*, *Rhynchonella*, *Spirifer*, *Strophomena*, and *Productus* are examples of the various families of the

former; *Crania*, *Discina*, *Obolus*, and *Lingula* of the latter. The absence or presence of an anus, in regard to which there is a good deal of reasoning from analogy in default of observation, is expressed in another couple of names—*Clisterata* for the former sub-class, *Tretenterata* for the second. The terms *Articulata* and *Inarticulata* refer to the same twofold division, and emphasise the presence or absence of the locking hinge. The two terms *Testicardines* and *Ecardines* are, however, generally adopted. It has been proposed to erect a third division—*Abbrachia*—for a few armless forms, in which these characteristic organs are replaced by a tentacular sheath formed from the mantle. In other respects they resemble *Testicardines*. For further information, see T. Davidson, *Fossil Brachiopoda* (1859), *Challenger Reports*, Huxley's *Invertebrates*, and other text-books.

Brachyptera (i.e. 'short-winged'), an ornithological term sometimes applied to such peculiarly aquatic birds as auks, puffins, penguins, grebes, guillemots, and divers proper (*Columbus*). The term Divers (q.v.) is often used with the same meaning.

Brachyura, a technical name applied to the short-tailed decapod crustaceans or crabs, in contrast to the long-tailed forms like the lobsters, where the abdomen is not tucked in on the under surface in the characteristic crab fashion. The term is also applied to a family of bats, including *Mystacina* and *Noctilio*, in which the tail is very short.

Bracken, or **BRAKE**, a large genus of Ferns of the division Polypodeae, distinguished by spore-cases in marginal lines covered by the reflexed margin of the frond. It is very widely distributed from arctic and temperate to tropical countries. The Common Brake or Bracken (*Pteris aquilina*) is the largest, commonest, and handsomest of European ferns, often covering considerable tracts in woods and parks, or on heaths and hills. It has a long, creeping, black rhizome, or root-stock, behind the apex of which a new frond arises annually. The fronds are bipinnate, but the first two pinnae are as large as the remainder of the frond, which is moreover bent into the same horizontal plane, so producing a three-branched appearance, which is very characteristic. The fibro-vascular bundles of the stalk of the frond, when cut across, exhibit an appearance slightly resembling a spread eagle, whence the specific name *aquilina* (Lat. *aquila*, 'an eagle'); while the two dark strands of sclerenchyma in the root-stock suggest the letters J C, whence the medieval name of Christ-root, and a character of sanctity confirmed by the crozier-like unrolling of the fronds in spring. The root-stock is bitter, and has been used as a substitute for hops; it has also been ground, mixed with barley,

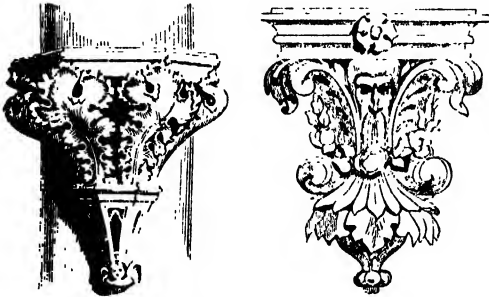


Common Brake :

a, end of a branch, much reduced; b, end of a pinna, lower side, showing fructification.

and made into a wretched bread in times of distress. It was of importance as a food-supply in Tenerife, furnishing the so-called Helecho-bread. The plant is astringent and antihelmintic; and as such, it had at one time a high reputation in medicine, and was also employed in dressing kid and chamois leather. The ashes were formerly used in the manufacture of soap and glass. Bracken is also employed for thatching, for littering cattle, for manure, &c., and has been chopped up with straw or hay for feeding cattle. It is a favourite covert of deer and of other game. The abundance of this plant is sometimes regarded as a sign of poor land, although, probably, its absence from the richer soils is very much a result of cultivation. To extirpate it, nothing more is necessary than a few successive mowings of the young shoots as they appear. The annual growth of brake is killed by the first frosts of autumn, but remains rigid and brown, still affording shelter to game, and almost as characteristic a feature in the landscape of winter as in that of summer.—*Pteris caudata*, a large species of brake very similar to that of Europe, is one of the worst pests which the farmer has to contend with in the south of Brazil.—*Pteris esculenta*, a native of New Zealand, Tasmania, &c., has a more nutritious rhizome than the common brake (see TARA FERN).—*Pteris serrulata* of India, China, and Japan is largely used as a table decoration on account of its grace and hardness.

Bracket, an ornamental projection from a wall, used for the purpose of supporting a statue, bust, or the like (see CORBEL). Brackets are either of stone, wood, or metal, and they are sometimes



Ornamental Brackets.

elaborately designed and carved. The term bracket is also employed in joinery, &c., to designate supports, in the form of a bent knee, of shelves, galleries, &c. Bracket is also generally applied to such gaslights as project from the wall.

Bracklesham Beds, a group of highly fossiliferous strata in the middle Eocene formation, included in the Bagshot series (q.v.).

Bract is a term applied to any leaf from the axil of which a flower or a floral axis is produced, instead of an ordinary leaf-bud or branch. In some cases the bracts present no marked differences from other leaves (e.g. *Belladonna*), and such flowers are then often termed axillary, meaning in the axils of unmodified leaves. In the great majority of cases, however, the familiar antithesis between vegetation and reproduction is strongly marked, the size and vegetative development of the leaf being greatly checked; thus the bract is usually small and entire, even though the vegetative leaves may be large and divided. They often exhibit an interesting gradation between leaves and petals, for the coloration of the flowers, which is so often evident for some distance down the flowering axis, may extend more or less completely to the bract; and this may

go so far as to completely replace floral magnificence altogether, as in the *Poinsettia* and *Bougainvillea* (q.v.) of our greenhouses. The subordination of vegetative life may go so far as to suppress the parenchyma altogether at a very early age, leaving only a dead membranaceous structure, brown and wizened in the bract or spathe of the daffodil, or glossy and bright coloured in the immortelle and other so-called everlasting flowers. Finally, in Cruciferae the bracts have disappeared in the great majority of species; yet in exceptional cases (particularly in double or otherwise highly vegetative specimens), their entire or partial reappearance shows that the apparent anomaly of their absence in this family is only the extreme ease of a physiological contrast which is perfectly normal. It will be noticed that the term is applied (1) to bracts proper, each subtending a single flower; (2) as in Compositae, to the crowded leaves of the axis below the similarly crowded inflorescence (in which, however, true bracts subtending the florets also often occur—e.g. *Zinnia*, &c., also in *Dipsacaceae*); (3) to the leaf subtending an entire inflorescence, which may be either free-growing, with minor bractlets (palm), or compressed, as in the spadix of *Araceae*. Such a bract is termed a *spathe*.

Bracton, HENRY DE, English ecclesiastic and jurist, of whom but little certain is known save that he was a 'justice itinerant,' in 1264 became archdeacon of Barnstaple and chancellor of Exeter Cathedral, and died in 1268. He is memorable as one of the earliest writers on English law, his *De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Anglie* being indeed the first attempt at a systematic treatment of the body of English law. Coke and Selden valued the work highly, and Milton quotes from it in his *Defence of the People of England*. The first printed edition of the entire work appeared in folio in 1569. A revised text and translation was edited by Sir Travers Twiss in the 'Rolls Series' (6 vols. 1878–83). In 1887 Mr F. W. Maitland published a *Collection of Cases* (3 vols.), accompanied by a series of strong and almost conclusive arguments that this was the actual collection of cases on which Bracton's great treatise was founded.

Braddock, EDWARD, a British general, born in Perthshire, Scotland, about 1695, entered the Coldstream Guards in 1710, and was appointed major-general in 1754. Nine months later he sailed as commander against the French in America, and with a force of nearly 2000 British and provincial troops, reached the Monongahela, a branch of the Ohio, on July 8, 1755. Leaving the baggage behind, on the 9th he pushed forward with a chosen force to invest Fort Duquesne, on the present site of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. In spite of his obstinacy, he appears to have so far regarded the warnings of his American officers that he threw out flank and advance parties to guard against a surprise. He twice forded the Monongahela in order to avoid a dangerous defile; and it was on the right bank of the river that his advance guard was attacked by a party of about 900 French and Indians from the fort. Properly speaking, Braddock fell into no ambushade; but the dense cover of the forest, of which the Indians immediately took advantage to surround his force, and his dogged insistence on his men fighting in line, instead of imitating the tactics of the foe, exposed the British as a helpless living target to a withering fire, to which they could make none but a desultory and uncertain return. After two hours' fighting, in which Braddock, whose bravery was never called in question, had four horses shot under him, and was mortally wounded while vainly trying to rally his men, the survivors made a hasty retreat under Washington, Braddock's aide-de-

camp, the only one of his staff who escaped unhurt. No less than 63 out of 86 officers, and 914 out of 1373 men engaged, were either killed or wounded. The French loss was trifling. Braddock was carried from the field, and died July 13, 1755, at Great Meadows, about 60 miles from the scene of his fatal surprise. See Winthrop Sargent's monograph (Philadelphia, 1855), and Parkman's *Montcalm and Wolfe* (1884).

Braddon, MARY ELIZABETH (Mrs John Maxwell), novelist, was born in Soho Square, London, in 1837, the daughter of a solicitor. She very early showed a turn for literature, which she indulged in the usual manner, by sending verses and other trifles to the magazines and newspapers. Neither a comeliessa brought out at the Strand in 1860, a volume of verse, nor one or two novels, had had much success, when, in 1862, *Lady Audley's Secret*, the story of a golden-haired murderess, attained an enormous popularity, in three months reaching its eighth three-volume edition. *Aurora Floyd* (1863) was little less popular. Of all her fifty novels, perhaps the best is *Ishmael* (1884), a tale of the Second Empire, which depends not so much on sensation as character. Several of them appeared in *Temple Bar*, *St James's Magazine*, and *Belgravia*, a magazine of which she was for some years editor. Mainly her works depend for their interest on incident, and the art of their appeal to 'that low vice, curiosity,' in the conduct of a story carefully leading up to some suspended and unforeseen *dénouement*. In their particular way, they display undoubted talent: in style, they are fresh and vigorous, and their narrative power strongly excites the reader's interest.

Bradford, an important manufacturing town and parliamentary and municipal borough in the West Riding of Yorkshire, on a tributary of the Aire, at the meeting of three vales, 9 miles W. of Leeds, 34 SW. of York, and 191 NNW. of London by rail. Besides very convenient railway communication, there is a branch canal in connection with the Liverpool and Leeds Canal. It is said to derive its name from a ford over the river here called Broad Aire, or from *bræc*, 'a hill,' and *ford*. The area of the ancient parish is 34,146 acres, and includes 13 townships. Bradford in 1832 was created a parliamentary borough, returning two members. It became a municipal borough in 1847, and is governed by a mayor, 15 aldermen, and 45 councillors. The municipal borough was extended in 1873 and again in 1882, and the parliamentary borough made contemporaneous with it in 1885. For parliamentary purposes it is now divided into 3 districts, each returning one member. The corporation has been noted for its activity and spirit of improvement shown in beneficial local acts; in the execution of main drainage-works, the remodelling of portions of the town, its splendid water-works, and the acquirement of the gas-works (1871). Bradford is the chief seat in England of the spinning and weaving of worsted yarn, and the great mart for the long wools used in worsted fabrics. It has developed of late worsted coating, velvet, and plush industries. The first mill was built in 1798; there are now more than 300 mills, employing a large population. The Saltaire Alpaca and Mohair Mills, on the Aire, 3 miles from Bradford, cover more than 6 acres, and give employment to over 3000 people. The mills erected by Sir Titus Salt (q.v.), and the village or workmen's cottages, are equally remarkable. In Heaton Road, Manningham Mills, erected by Lister & Co., for silk and velvet, at a cost of £500,000, are among the most extensive in the kingdom. Coal and iron mines occur near Bradford, and the ironworks at Bowling and Lowmoor are very large and important; the making of machinery is a considerable

industry; and stone is exported from quarries in the neighbourhood. There are 30 churches belonging to the establishment in the borough, and more than 80 Dissenting churches. The parish church of St Peter is a fine building in the Perpendicular style, with a tower of later date, and contains a number of interesting monuments. It has a town-hall (1873) of medieval design, which cost over £100,000, with campanile tower, and carillon chimies; mechanics' institute (1870); St George's Hall (1853); exchange (1867); extensive wholesale and retail markets, which have cost £150,000, exclusive of an annual rental of £5000 a year for market rights; grammar-school; technical college (1882); free library (1872); new post-office, a fine building in the Italian style (1887); and two court-houses. The gross rateable value of the borough was in 1887 £965,231. It has five public parks, Peel Park, with an area of 56 acres; Lister or Manningham Park (56 acres), Horton Park (39 acres), Bowling Park (53 acres), and Bradford Moor Park (15 acres), and also many excellent charities. The early history of Bradford is connected with the De Lacies, in whose hands the manor remained until the beginning of the 14th century, when it passed by marriage to the Lancaster family. On the death of John of Gaunt, in 1399, it was afterwards held by the crown till the reign of Charles I., who sold it to the corporation of London. After being held by the Marsdens and the Rawsons, the manorial rights were leased by the corporation. In the civil wars, the people of Bradford took the parliament side, and twice defeated the royalists, but were afterwards themselves defeated by the Earl of Newcastle. The worsted trade, introduced to Bradford at the end of the 17th century, has made rapid progress since the era of the steam-engine. In a riot at Bradford, against the introduction of worsted power-looms, in 1826, two of the rioters were shot dead by the defenders of the mill which contained the obnoxious machinery, and many more were wounded. In 1825 a strike for increased wages, in which 20,000 persons were concerned, lasted six months. The Baptists had a college here, which has been removed to Rawdon, 6 miles distant, and the Independents have Airedale College. This town is the seat of the first English temperance society. The National Association for Promoting Social Science met here in 1859, and the British Association in 1873. The merchants of Bradford are distinguished by their liberality and enterprise, the names of the Listers and the Salts being conspicuous. Statues of such great benefactors as Sir Robert Peel, Richard Oastler, Sir Titus Salt, and S. C. Lister adorn the town. The population of the municipal borough in 1881 was 183,032, the population of the same area in 1871 being 145,830. The population of the area now composing the municipal and parliamentary borough, in 1881 was 194,495; in 1887 estimated at 224,507. The local-government measure of 1888 constituted Bradford a county by itself.

Bradford, a town of M'Kean county, Pennsylvania, 65 miles S. of Buffalo, with which it is connected by rail. It has a number of oil-wells, and several sawmills. Pop. (1880) 9197.

Bradford Clay, a subdivision of the Great Oolite (Lower Oolite), is a blue unctuous clay, occurring at Bradford, near Bath, and extending for a few miles around: it is about 10 feet thick at Bradford, but may be thicker at Parleigh. It is remarkable for the occurrence in it of large numbers of a Crinoid (q.v.), *Apocrinites Parkinsoni*. The upper surface of the calcareous rock on which the clay rests is completely incrustated over with a continuous pavement formed of the stony bases of this crinoid. It had once formed the bottom of a sea,

in which these animals lived, their stems bending with every motion of the water, and their star-like crown of arms outstretched in search of food. At length, however, the clear water was invaded by a current largely charged with mud, which threw them down, and broke most of their stems off near the base. The stem, body, and arms have been dismembered, and are confusedly scattered through the clay. Although Bradford Clay is considered a local deposit, yet deposits containing the same fossils occur in Dorsetshire.

Bradford-on-Avon (Sax. *Bradanford*, 'broad ford'), a town of Wiltshire, on both sides of the Avon, and on the Kennet and Avon Canal, 9 miles SE. of Bath. It is an ancient town, and still shows some, gable-fronted houses, built and roofed with stone. Formerly it was the seat of important woollen manufactures, and kerseymeres were first made here. The tiny church of St Lawrence, built by St Aldhelm (q.v.) between 675 and 709, is the only perfect building of pre-Norman times now remaining in England. Only 38 feet long, it consists of a nave, chancel, and north porch; the most striking feature of the interior being the narrowness of the chancel-arch, which is not more than 3 feet across. It had been used for two centuries as a school and dwelling-house, when in 1856 it was rescued from profanation; and it has since been put in a state of thorough repair. Hard by, on the site of Aldhelm's monastery, is the parish church of the Holy Trinity, of various dates from the 12th to the 16th century, and restored in 1865-66. On the summit of Torr Hill are the ruins of a 14th-century chapel of the Virgin; and the town bridge retains its desecrated chapel. In the neighbourhood is the pleasant valley of Avon, with many picturesque spots. At Bradford, Cenwall, king of the West Saxons, gained a great victory over the Welsh in 652. Pop. (1881) 4922. See an article in the *Saturday Review* for 11th September 1886.

Brading, a small but ancient town, once a parliamentary borough, in the Isle of Wight, 4 miles S. of Ryde by rail. The place can still show its stocks and bull-ring; and in 1880 the remains of a Roman villa, with a tessellated floor, were unearthed near the town. In the ruins, assumed to be those of the villa of the Roman governor, were found numerous coins and tiles; there are also traces of a whole row of buildings.

Bradlaugh, CHARLES, a prominent social reformer, but vigorous anti-socialist, was born in London in 1833. He had early to shift for himself, and was in turn errand-boy, small coal-merchant, and trooper at Dublin. Procuring his discharge, he returned to London in 1853, became clerk to a solicitor, and ere long a busy secularist lecturer, and pamphleteer under the name of 'Iconoclast.' His voice was heard in all popular causes, alike on platforms throughout the country and in the pages of his organ, *The National Reformer*; but in 1880 his name assumed a new importance on his being elected M.P. for Northampton. He refused at first to take the parliamentary oath, next offered to take it; but as he had been loud in his avowal of atheism, the House refused even to allow him to affirm. He continued his struggle with the House, was thrice re-elected by Northampton, and at length, in 1886, having taken the oath, he was allowed to take his seat. In parliament he gained respect by his strong sense and debating power, and he earned wide popularity by his agitation against perpetual pensions. Of Bradlaugh's writings the best known is his *Impachment of the House of Brunswick*. His republication, in conjunction with Mrs Annie Besant, of an old pamphlet, *The Fruits of Philo-*

sophy—a proposed solution for the over-population question—led in 1876 to a sentence of six months' imprisonment and a £200 fine, but the conviction was quashed on appeal. For his Oaths Bill (1888), see OATH; and see his *Life* by C. R. Mackay (1888).

Bradley, REV. EDWARD, much better known by the pseudonym of 'Cuthbert Bede,' was born at Kidderminster in 1827, and educated at Durham University. He was successively rector of Denton, Huntingdonshire, of Shelton, near Oakham (1871-83), and of Lenton, near Grantham. His facetious description of Oxford life in *Adventures of Verdant Green* (1853-57) has been exceedingly popular, and was followed by the *Book of Beauty* (1856), *Fairy Fables* (1858), *Glenruggan* (1861), *Tales of College Life* (1862), *Little Mr Bouncer and his friend Verdant Green* (1873), *Fotheringhary* (1885), &c., none of which have equalled his first book in popularity.

Bradley, JAMES, astronomer, was born at Sherborne, Gloucestershire, in 1693; from North-leach grammar-school passed in 1711 to Balliol College, Oxford. The scientific bent of his mind was moulded and directed by his uncle, the Rev. James Pound, of Wanstead, Essex, and in conjunction with him his first discoveries were made. Devoting himself to mathematics and astronomy, he soon exhibited such a genius for these pursuits as won him the friendship of all the leading mathematicians of his time, including Halley and Sir Isaac Newton, and secured his election to the Royal Society in 1718. In 1719 he obtained the vicarage of Bridstow, and in 1720 a sinecure rectory in Pembrokeshire; but he resigned both in 1721 on his election to the Savilian professorship of Astronomy at Oxford. In 1729 he published his theory of the aberration of the fixed stars, containing the important discovery of the aberration of light—suggested by the observation that the vane of a boat in which he was sailing on the Thames in 1728 never lay in the line of the wind, but was always inclined to it at an angle depending on the line and amount of the boat's motion. See ABERRATION, and ASTRONOMY. Three years after this publication Bradley became lecturer on Astronomy and Physics at the Oxford Museum. His next discovery, published in 1748, after twenty years' research, was that the inclination of the earth's axis to the ecliptic is not constant, a fact including the explanation of the precession of the equinoxes and the nutation of the earth's axis. In 1742 Bradley succeeded Halley as regius professor of Astronomy at Greenwich, where, by his observations, he still further enriched the science. His refusal of the vicarage of Greenwich was compensated in 1752 by a crown pension of £250 a year. He died at Chalford, Gloucestershire, 13th July 1762. Bradley is described as having been gentle, modest, compassionate, and liberal; little given to speaking or writing, from diffidence and the fear of hurting his reputation. He has been called the founder of observational astronomy, and no man ever better merited the title of a great astronomer. His astronomical observations, which numbered about 60,000, fill two folio vols. (1798-1805). Bessel was able in 1818, from Bradley's labours, to deduce a catalogue of 3222 stars for the epoch of 1755. See Rigaud's *Miscellaneous Works and Correspondence of Bradley, with Memoir* (1832).

Bradshaw, JOHN, regicide, was born near Stockport, of a good Cheshire family, in 1602, and in 1627 was called to the bar at Gray's Inn. 'He practised,' says his friend Milton, 'with singular success and reputation;' still, he was little known when, on 13th January 1649, he was, in default of a more able lawyer, appointed president of the high

court of justice for the trial of Charles I. On that solemn occasion his manners were as short as his speeches were lengthy. For reward he was made permanent president of the Council of State, and Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, with a grant of estates worth £2000 per annum. His 'stiff republicanism' embroiled him with Cromwell, who twice attempted to deprive him of his office of chief-justice of Chester; but there is no direct proof that he ever engaged in the Fifth Monarchy and other plots. After Oliver's death he was appointed a commissioner of the Great Seal; and his last public act was to protest against the violent seizure of Speaker Lenthall by the army. He died 22d November 1659; and his body was buried with pomp in Westminster Abbey, but after his posthumous attainder, it was disinterred and hung on a gibbet, with those of Cromwell and Ireton.

Bradshaw's Railway Guide, the pioneer of its class, derives its name from George Bradshaw (1801-53), originally a map-engraver in Manchester, who on 19th October 1839 commenced the issue of an occasional work, called *Bradshaw's Railway Time-tables* (a name changed in 1840 to *Railway Companion*), which was corrected by a monthly time-sheet. This sheet was frequently delayed to the 5th or 6th of the month, and was subject to changes made by the Companies, perhaps in the middle, or even the latter end of the month. By great efforts, the railway companies were induced to consent to adjust their tables, once for all, for the beginning of each month; and the first number of the monthly *Railway Guide* was brought out in December 1841, though the *Companion* survived till 1845. The second number of the *Guide*, published '1st month (January) 1842,' runs to 32 pages, and contains 42 or 43 lines of railway, in England only, without any advertisements (T. Madan in *Athenæum*, 24th December 1887). The *Guide* now extends to upwards of 450 pages, and gives copious information regarding all lines in the three kingdoms, besides much about steamboats and coaches, with advertisements. Its plan has been imitated at home and abroad. In 1847 the first number of *Bradshaw's Continental Railway Guide* was issued, which, in addition to the tables, contains a large quantity of topographical information. A series of *handbooks* was also issued by Mr Bradshaw. See an article in the *Cornhill* for April 1888.

Bradwardine, THOMAS, was born in England not later than 1290. His birthplace is uncertain; in his chief work he mentions that his father lived at Chichester. He studied theology, philosophy, and mathematics with distinguished success at Merton College, Oxford, and in 1325 was one of the proctors of the university. His fame as a theologian was founded on the theological lectures he delivered for a series of years at Oxford, and now rests on his *De Causa Dei contra Pelagium, et de virtute causarum, libri tres* (edited by Henry Savile, Lond. 1618), an able defence of the Augustinian doctrines of grace, fully proving his right to the scholastic title of 'Doctor profundus.' Called to the court of Edward III. by Stratford, Archbishop of Canterbury, he became confessor to the king, canon of Lincoln, and chancellor of the cathedral church of St Paul in London. From 1339 he accompanied Edward III. on his campaigns in France. On the death of Stratford in 1348, Bradwardine was elected his successor by the chapter of Canterbury. The king and the pope preferred John Ufford; but Ufford dying in May 1349, before he had been consecrated, Bradwardine was appointed archbishop, and was consecrated in July by Cardinal Bertrand at Avignon. Returning to England, he died on the 26th August in that

year. Bradwardine wrote also *Arithmetica Speculativa* (Paris, 1502); *Geometria Speculativa* (ib. 1512); and a *Tractatus Proportionum* (Venice, 1505).

Brady, NICHOLAS, with Nahum Tate, versifier of the Psalms, was born at Bandon, County Cork, in 1659. He was educated at Westminster, Christ-Church (Oxford), and Dublin, and held from 1696 to his death in 1726 the living of Richmond, Surrey, along with the rectories of Stratford-on-Avon and Clapham in succession. He also kept a school at Richmond, honoured by the approval of Richard Steele. Tate and Brady's metrical version of the Psalms was authorised in 1696, but with the strong opposition of many among the Tory clergy. His tragedy, *The Rape, or the Innocent Imposters*, his blank verse *Æneid*, and his sermons have long since sunk into the oblivion they deserved.

Bradydys. See SLOTH.

Braemar, a Highland district, occupying the south-west corner of Aberdeenshire (q.v.), in the heart of the Grampian Mountains, and traversed by the upper waters of the Dee. In the east part is Balmoral (q.v.); and near its centre, 61 miles W. by S. from Aberdeen, is the small village of Castleton of Braemar, a favourite resort for travellers, sportsmen, and lovers of grand scenery. Here in 1715 the Earl of Mar raised the Pretender's standard. See Crombie's *Braemar* (2d ed. 1875).

Brag, a game at cards, so called because each player endeavours to impose upon the others, and to make them believe that his hand is better than it really is. A sum of money is usually staked, and the cards being compared, the best hand wins.

Braga, a city of Portugal, capital of the province of Minho, is situated on an eminence between the rivers Cavado and D'Este, 34 miles N.E. of Oporto by rail. It is the residence of the primate of Portugal, who has a palace here. It has also a fine Gothic cathedral (12th century), partly modernised, the church of Santa Cruz (1642), and manufactures of linen, hats, cutlery, firearms, jewelry, &c. The *Bracara Augusta* of the Romans, it retains ruins of a temple, an amphitheatre, and an aqueduct. Near it is the celebrated *Sanctuario do bom Jesus do Monte*, which is still a place of pilgrimage. In the 6th century Braga was the chief city of the Suevi, and it fell successively into the hands of the Goths and Moors, from the latter of whom it was taken by Alphonso of Castile. Pop. (1878) 19,755.

Bragança, the name of two considerable towns in Brazil.—(1) Bragança, a seaport, 100 miles N.E. of Para, at the mouth of the Caete, which is here navigable to the town. Pop. of town and district, 6000.—(2) Bragança, an inland city of about 10,000 inhabitants, 50 miles to the N.E. of São Paulo.

Braganza, or BRAGANÇA, a city of Portugal, capital of the province Traz-os-Montes, on the Ferreira, 26 miles N.W. of Miranda. It has an upper and lower town, the former being surrounded with walls; has a citadel, a college, a hospital, is the see of a bishop; and has manufactures of silk and velvet. This city gives its name to the House of Braganza, the present ruling dynasty in Portugal, John, 8th Duke of Braganza, having ascended the throne as John IV. in 1640, when the Portuguese liberated themselves from the Spanish yoke. His daughter, Catherine of Braganza, was the queen of our Charles II. See PORTUGAL. Pop. 5495.

Bragg, BRAXTON, Confederate general, born in North Carolina, 22d March 1817, graduated at the United States military academy in 1837, served in

the artillery through the Seminole and Mexican wars, rising by successive brevets for gallantry in action to the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and retired in 1856. He commanded in several great battles of the civil war, and was for a time military adviser to the Confederate president. He died in Galveston, Texas, 27th September 1876. — His brother, THOMAS, born in 1810, was governor of North Carolina, 1854-58, United States senator, 1859-61, and attorney-general in Jefferson Davis' cabinet, 1861-63. He died in Raleigh, 21st January 1872.

Bragi, in Northern Mythology, son of Odin and Frigga, god of poetry and eloquence. Upon his tongue were engraved the runes of speech, so that he could not utter a sentence that did not contain wisdom. According to the elder or poetic Edda, he is the most perfect of all scalds or poets, and the inventor of poetry, which is designated by a kindred word, *bragr*. Unlike Apollo, who in the Greek mythology enjoys eternal youth, Bragi is represented as an old man with a long flowing beard; but his brow is always mild and unwrinkled. His wife's name is Idunna. Together with Hermothir or Hermode, he receives and welcomes all those heroes who have fallen in battle, on their arrival in Valhalla. On festive occasions, as well as on the burial of a king, a goblet, called Bragafull (Bragi's goblet), was presented, before which each man rose up, made a solemn vow, and emptied it.

Braham (i.e. ABRAHAM), JOHN, tenor singer, born in London of German-Jewish parents, about 1774, and left an orphan at an early age, is said to have for a time sold pencils in the streets. Leoni, a chorister of Duke's Place synagogue, adopting him, gave him instruction in music and singing; he appeared at Covent Garden in 1787, but his first great success was at Drury Lane (1796). He had an unusually long professional career, and continued to make occasional appearances at concerts until within a few years of his death. To study singing he visited France, Italy, and Austria (1797-1801), in company with one Nancy Stornee, singing at Paris, Florence, Milan, Venice, and Vienna; his triumph on his return was transcendent, and thenceforward, for half a century, he held the reputation of one of the greatest tenor singers in Europe. In 1809 he had an engagement at the Royal Theatre, Dublin, for fifteen nights, at 2000 guineas. He acquired a large fortune during his professional career, much of which was squandered by his purchase of the Colosseum, in Regent's Park, for £40,000; and the building of St James's Theatre, at a cost of £30,000. He died at Brompton, 17th February 1856. In Sir Walter Scott's words, Braham 'was a beast of an actor, but an angel of a singer;' and it was as a concert-singer that he most excelled, his great declamatory power and florid execution giving a wonderful effect to his rendering of the national songs, especially his 'Death of Nelson' (1811). Most of his operas were produced at Drury Lane; but his own compositions were of the feeblest description, rendered only tolerable by the embellishments introduced in singing them. One of his daughters, Frances, in 1840 married the Earl of Waldegrave. She was for many years a leader of society, and died 5th July 1879.

Brahé, TYCHO, one of the most distinguished names of which astronomical science can boast, was born at Knudstrup, near Lüh, in the south of Sweden, 14th December 1546. He was descended from a noble family, and was sent at the age of thirteen to the university of Copenhagen, where he had not been more than a year, when an eclipse of the sun turned his attention to astronomy. His uncle, who destined him

for the law, furnished him with a tutor, and sent him to Leipzig in 1562; but Brahé, who cared nothing for that study, devoted just so much time to it as would save appearances, and while his tutor slept, busied himself nightly with the stars. By these surreptitious observations of the heavens, and with no other mechanical contrivances than a globe about the size of an orange, and a pair of rude compasses, he succeeded, as early as 1563, in detecting grave errors in the Alphonsine tables and the so-called Prutenic (i.e. Prussian) tables, and set about their correction. The death of an uncle, who left him an estate, recalled him to his native place in 1565; but he very soon became disgusted with the ignorance and arrogance of those moving in the same sphere with himself, and went back to Germany. At Wittenberg, where he resided for a short time, he lost part of his nose in a duel with a Danish gentleman; but for the lost organ he ingeniously contrived one of gold, silver, and wax, which fitted admirably. After two years spent in Augsburg, he returned home, where in 1572 he discovered a new and brilliant star in the constellation Cassiopeia. In 1573 he married a peasant girl, and this his fellow-noblemen thought even more undignified than being addicted to astronomy; that too they considered very degrading in a gentleman, and the king was obliged to interpose in order to reconcile them. After some time spent in travel, Brahé received from his sovereign, Frederic II., the offer of the island of Hven or Høene, in the Sound, as the site for an observatory, the king also offering to defray the cost of erection, and of the necessary astronomical instruments, as well as to provide him with a suitable salary. Brahé accepted the generous proposal, and in 1576 the foundation-stone of the castle of Uraniburg ('fortress of the heavens') was laid. Here James VI. of Scotland paid him a visit when on his way to Denmark to marry the Princess Anne, and wrote some verses in his honour, and here for a period of 20 years Brahé prosecuted his observations with the most unwearied industry—with a zeal, in fact, sufficient to create a new epoch—one of the three great epochs indeed—in astronomy as a science of observation. See ASTRONOMY, COMET. The scientific greatness of Brahé was no protection against the petty prejudices of the nobles. So long as his munificent patron, Frederic II., lived, Brahé's position was all that he could have desired, but on his death in 1588 it was greatly changed. For some years under Christian IV., Brahé was just tolerated; but in 1597 his persecution had grown so unbearable that he left the country altogether, having been the year before deprived of his observatory and emoluments. After residing a short time at Rostock and at Wandsbeck near Hamburg, he accepted an invitation of the Emperor Rudolf II.—who conferred on him a pension of 3000 ducats—to Benatek, a few miles from Prague, where a new Uraniburg was to have been erected for him; but he died at Prague on the 24th October 1601. At Benatek he had Kepler as his assistant, and to the advice of Brahé that celebrated astronomer owed much. The scientific publications of Brahé are numerous. His complete works appeared at Prague in 1611; his Letters have been edited by Frijs (Copenhagen, 1876); and there are Lives of him by Gassendi (Latin, 1655) and Frijs (Danish, 1871). See also Brewster's *Martyrs of Science* (1841).

Brahilov. See BRAILA.

Brahma. In the religion and philosophy of the Hindus, this word has two meanings. The crude form is *brahman*, the etymological signification of which seems to be *expansion*, with the

secondary meaning of religious devotion. *Brahmā* (neuter) designates the universal Spirit, the ground and cause of all existence; which is not, however, conceived as an individual personal deity to be worshipped, but only as an object of contemplation. It is spoken of as 'that which is invisible, unseizable, without origin, without either colour, eye, or ear, eternal, manifold (in creation), all-pervading, undecaying—the wise behold it as the cause of created beings.' The human soul is a portion of this universal Spirit, and a man can only be freed from transmigration, and be reunited to *Brahmā*, by getting a correct notion of it and of the soul.—*Brahmā* (masculine) signifies an *offerer of prayer*, a *priest*, as well as the Supreme Being regarded as a person. In the later mythology he became the chief god of the Hindu pantheon, and is specially associated with the function of creation (see *TRIMURTI*). Yet he himself is a creation of or emanation from *Brahmā*, the First Cause. The origin of *Brahmā*, and the way in which he created heaven and earth, is thus narrated by Manu:

'This universe was enveloped in darkness, unperceived, undistinguishable, undiscoverable, unknowable, as it were entirely sunk in sleep. Then the irresistible self-existent Lord, undiscerned, causing this universe with the five elements, and all other things, to become discernible, was manifested, dispelling the gloom. He who is beyond the cognisance of the senses, subtle, undiscernible, himself shone forth. He, desiring, seeking to produce various creatures from his own body, first created the waters, and deposited in them a seed. This [seed] became a golden egg, resplendent as the sun, in which he himself was born as *Brahma*, the progenitor of all the worlds. Being formed by that First Cause, undiscernible, eternal, which is both existent and non-existent, that Male (*purusha*) is known in the world as *Brahmā*. That lord having continued a year in the egg, divided it into two parts by his mere thought. With these two shells he formed the heavens and the earth; and in the middle he placed the sky, the eight regions, and the eternal abode of the waters.'—See Dr J. Muir's *Original Sanscrit Texts*, vol. iv.

In later times at least, *Brahma* has had few special worshippers; the only spot where he is periodically adored being at Pushkara in Rajputana. He sometimes receives a kind of secondary homage along with other deities. *Brahma* is represented with four heads. See *INDIA* (section on *Religion*), *TRIMURTI*, *VISHNU*, *SIVA*.

Brahman, or **BRAHMIN**, the name of the highest Caste (q.v.) in the system of Hinduism. For Brahminism, see *INDIA*.

Brahmanbaria, a town of India, Tipperah district, in the presidency of Bengal, on the Titas River. It has sea and railway communication with Calcutta and some trade in rice. Pop. (1872) 12,364; (1881) 17,438.

Brahmaputra ('son of *Brahma*'), one of the largest rivers of India, rises in Tibet, and, after partially mingling with the Ganges, flows into the Bay of Bengal. As a result of explorations (1878-82) by one of the Asiatics attached to the Indian Survey, the fact that the Sampo (q.v.) is the highest source of the *Brahmaputra* was reduced to almost a certainty. The Sampo has its rise in Lake Manasowar in Western Tibet, in an elevated tableland, from which also spring the Sutlej and the Indus; flows eastward for about 1000 miles on the plateau of Tibet; then, turning SE., it pierces the Himalayas to descend to the valleys of Assam, where it is known as Dihong. Uniting with the Dibong and the *Brahmakunda*, the three rivers form the *Brahmaputra*, which flows SW. and S. The entire length from the latter source

exceeds 900 miles; from the former 1800 miles. The term *Brahmaputra* has been derived from the Hindu name of the river in Assam; by the Assamese it is known as *Haranīya*; above its junction with the Ganges it is known as the *Jamuna*. The united stream bears along a vast body of water (700,000 cubic feet per second on the average; 1,270,000 at high-water), broken by many islands, and throwing off branches; it flows from NE. to SSW. for about 450 miles, leaves Assam near Dhoobri; flows S. round the Garo Hills; for 180 miles its course is through the plain of East Bengal, till it joins the *Padma*, or main stream of the Ganges, at Goulanda. Here the conjoint delta of these rivers begins; the great body of its waters (1,250,000 cubic feet per second on the average, and 2,435,000 at high-water) flowing SE. reaches the sea by the estuary known as the *Meghna*. The old bed of the stream lay farther to the east, and still brings down a portion of its waters past the civil station of Maimansinh district, to join the main stream by means of the *Meghna*. During the rains the *Brahmaputra* floods hundreds of sq. m. of country, reaching a height of 30 to 40 feet above its usual level. This supersedes artificial irrigation, and the plains so watered yield abundantly in rice, jute, and mustard. It is navigable for steamers to Dibrugarh, 800 miles from the sea. The knowledge of the river by Europeans dates from 1765. The down-river traffic is largely composed of tea, also timber, oil-seeds, jute, tobacco, and rice; the imports include European cotton goods, liquor, tea-seed, &c.

Brahmin Ox. See *ZEBU*.

Brahmo Somaj (*Brahma Samāj*—i.e. 'Church of the one God,' 'Theistic Church') is a religious and social association in India, originated by the celebrated Hindu rajah, Rammohun Roy (q.v.), in 1830, under the title *Society of God*. The accession of Debendranath Tagore, a wealthy Calcutta Brahman, in 1842, gave the movement a great impetus, which was also much aided by the spread of English education. Its main development took place under Balu Keshub Chunder Sen, born in 1838, who died in 1884. He joined the new church in 1858, and visited Europe in 1870. It was his aim to apply the principles of the church to practical life, and under his leadership the progressive party seceded from the original church, and assumed the title of 'Bramo Somaj of India.' Their fundamental principles are that there is but one Supreme God, the object of worship; that nature and intuition are the sources whence our knowledge of God is derived; they reject all special revelation, and hold that religion admits of progressive development. They ignore all distinctions of caste, and consider all men as God's children; they abjure all idolatrous rites, and acknowledge no sacred books or places, but value what is good and true in all religions, and recognise the necessity of public worship. They have reformed the marriage customs and promoted female education. It is believed that the spirits of the saints and prophets may be invoked, or at least spiritually drawn into the life and character of the devotees. They have more than a hundred branches throughout India, and maintain two periodicals and several schools. Sen's co-religionists who disapproved of some of the tenets of the 'New Dispensation,' and of his conduct in marrying his daughter to a Hindu maharajah, seceded and formed in 1878 the *Sadharan* (or Universal) *Brahmo Somaj*, which rapidly rose to the foremost rank among the Theistic churches of India. The *Arya-Somaj*, founded by Dayānanda Sarasvati, who died in 1882, differs from the *Brahmo Somaj* in that, like all the ancient theologians of India, he looked upon the *Vedas* as

divine revelation. The most recent inventions of science were held to be alluded to in the Vedas; whatever was not found in them was false and useless. Amongst authorities see *Brahmo Dharma, or Religion of the Brahmos* (1850); *The Brahmo Somaj Vindicated* (1863), by Keshub Chunder Sen; *Brahmo Year Books* (1876, and following years); *Last Days in England of the Rajah Rammohun Roy* (1866), edited by Mary Carpenter; and her *Six Months in India* (1868); *Hours of Work and Play*, by F. P. Cobbe (1867); the English works of Rammohun Roy (1888); *Mozoomdar's Life and Teachings of Keshub Chunder Sen* (1888); and the *Theistic Quarterly Review*, which began to appear in Bengal in 1880 as organ of the Brahmo Somaj.

Brahms, JOHANNES, composer, was born in Hamburg, where his father was a musician in the theatre, on 7th May 1833, and early begun the study of music. In 1853 his performance of some of his first sonatas so impressed Schumann that the latter, in an article in a musical publication, prophesied the coming greatness of the lad. Several years spent in study and retirement preceded the publication of a series of works that quickly established his reputation as a writer of chamber music. In 1863-64 he became conductor of the Singakademie in Vienna, where in 1869 he finally settled. The leading characteristics of his works (which exceed the 'opus' number 100) are an ascetic earnestness and a regard for pure musical form, causing him to pursue his main idea throughout a work, while steadfastly refraining from exalting expression at the expense of beauty. Of all the composers of the present day Brahms is held to approach most nearly to Beethoven, not only in individuality, vigour, and clearness, but in the ideal scope of his melodic inventions. These last vary greatly, some being slight and simple, but are always matured and full of expression. His subjects touch every department but the dramatic. Over fifty of his works are vocal; as a song-writer he has no living equal in Germany, and his *Deutsches Requiem* (1868) has so established his fame that the appearances of his compositions have since been reckoned as musical events. As a piano-player, his technical execution is remarkable; in the performance of his own works and of Bach's music he is unrivalled. See his *Life* by Deiters (Leip. 1881; Eng. trans. 1887).

Brahui. See BELUCHISTAN.

Braid, JAMES, born in 1795 in Fife, studied medicine at Edinburgh, and settled as a surgeon in Manchester, where he died, 25th March 1850. He is noted for his researches on Animal Magnetism (q.v.), which he called Hypnotism.

Braidwood, THOMAS, born in 1715, studied at Edinburgh University. He settled as a schoolmaster there, and after 1760 became famous as a teacher of the Deaf and Dumb (q.v.). His school, which was visited by Dr Johnson, was afterwards transferred to Hackney, London, where Braidwood died, 24th September 1798.

Braila, or BRAILOV, a river-port of Roumania, on the left bank of the Danube, 10 miles above Galatz, and 142 N.E. of Bucharest by rail. A free port till 1883, it exports large quantities of corn and other products. Of its twelve churches the chief is the Greek cathedral. The fortifications were dismantled in 1828. Pop. 28,272. Braila was burned by the Russians in 1711, and Gortschakoff crossed here in 1854.

Braille, LOUIS. See BLIND.

Brain is the term applied to that part of the central nervous system which in vertebrated animals is contained within the cranium or skull, and, in the invertebrata, to the nervous ganglia near

the head end of the body. The brain is enveloped by three membranes, named the *Dura-mater*, the

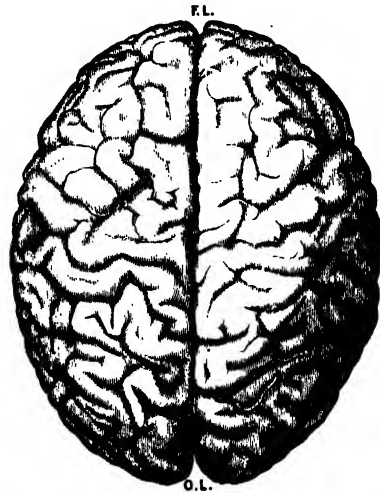


Fig. 1.—Cerebrum—upper surface (Quain):

To show, firstly, division into two nearly equal hemispheres by the great median fissure; secondly, general appearance and apparent irregularity of arrangement of the convolutions and fissures; F.L., frontal lobe; O.L., occipital lobe.

Arachnoid, and the *Pia-mater*. These support the blood-vessels which nourish the cranium and



Fig. 2.—Under Surface, or Base of Brain:

F.L., T.L., O.L., frontal, temporal, and occipital lobes of the cerebrum; *cb*, cerebellum, the medulla oblongata lying between its two lobes. *Cranial Nerves*.—1, olfactory lobe (the nerve of smell); 2, optic nerve (nerve of sight); 3, third or oculo-motor nerve, motor nerve to most of the muscles of the eye; 4, fourth or trochlear nerve, motor nerve to the superior oblique muscle of the eye; 5, fifth, trigeminus, or trifacial, sensory and motor, the large root sensory to the face and eyes, &c.; the small root, motor to muscles of mastication; 6, sixth or abducens nerve, to external rectus muscle of eye, turns eyeball outwards; 7, seventh or facial, motor to muscles of expression; 8, eighth or auditory nerve, sensory for hearing (cochlea) and for equilibration (semicircular canals); 9, glosso-pharyngeal, sensory nerve of taste, and motor to some of the muscles of deglutition; 10, pneumogastric, sensory and motor to larynx, lung, heart, and stomach; 11, spinal accessory, motor to muscles of heart (inhibitory) and sterno-mastoid and trapezius; 12, hypoglossal, motor to all the muscles of the tongue; *c1*, first cervical spinal nerve.

the brain, and also contain a clear fluid—the cerebro-spinal fluid—which removes the products of

brain waste, and at the same time serves, like a water-cushion, to diminish the effect of external shocks. Brain substance is composed of *gray* and *white matter* (with some connective tissue and blood-vessels). The gray matter consists of *nerve cells*, which are minute structures, variously shaped, communicating by numerous fine processes with *nerve fibres*. These cells discharge nerve impulses to, and receive impressions from nerve fibres. The white matter is composed nearly entirely of white medullated nerve fibres, whose function is to transmit nerve impulses from one point to another. The relations of the gray and white matter vary greatly in the different parts of the brain. The main divisions of the brain are the *cerebrum* (great brain or cerebral hemispheres), the *cerebellum* (with the *pons Varolii*), the *optic lobes* (*corpora quadrigemina*, and the *crura cerebri*), and the *medulla oblongata*. An examination of figs. 1, 2, 3, 5, from different aspects of the human brain, will convey an idea of the relative size and position of these parts. The cerebrum underlies the whole vault of the cranium, and covers all the rest of the brain when seen from above (fig. 1). Below its posterior extremity, and separated from it by a fold of dura-mater, is the cerebellum. Below the cerebellum, again, lies the medulla oblongata, which is continuous, through an opening in the base of the skull called the foramen magnum, with the

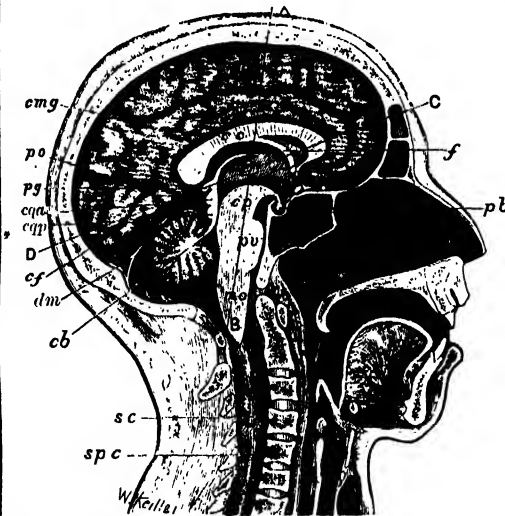


Fig. 3.—Median Longitudinal Section through Head and upper part of Neck, to show relation of Brain to Cranium and the Spinal Cord (Original drawing from preparation in Anatomy Rooms at Surgeons' Hall, Edinburgh):

c, cerebrium; sc, cerebellum; sc, spinal cord; spc, spinal column; mo, medulla oblongata passing through foramen magnum, into the spinal cord; pv, pons Varoli; cp, cerebral peduncles, or *crura cerebri*; co, anterior corpora quadrigeminata; cnp, posterior corpora quadrigeminata; pg, pineal gland; pb, pituitary body; cc, corpus callosum, divided transversely; fg, fornix; mg, marginal gyrus; gf, gyrus fornicatus; cmg, callosal-marginal sulcus; O, occipital lobe; jo, parieto-occipital fissure; cf, calcarine fissure; dm, duramater, separating cerebrum from cerebellum. The lines AB and CD show the position of the sections in figs. 6 and 7 respectively.

Spinal Cord (q.v.). The medulla passes directly upwards into the protuberance called the pons Varolii, which is connected by the crura cerebri or cerebral peduncles with the cerebrum. Behind the crura cerebri, in the angle between the cerebrum and cerebellum, lie the optic lobes (corpora quadrigemina). The cerebrum consists of two nearly equal hemispheres, divided by a deep median

fissure, at the bottom of which lies a great transverse commissure, the *corpus callosum*. The hemispheres are covered with a thin layer of gray matter (or nerve cells), and thrown into ridges and furrows (technically called convolutions or gyri, and fissures). These seem (fig. 1) to be arranged without any definite order, but Gratiolet, by comparing the simpler brains of monkeys and of the human embryo, discovered that certain fissures ('primary' fissures) were

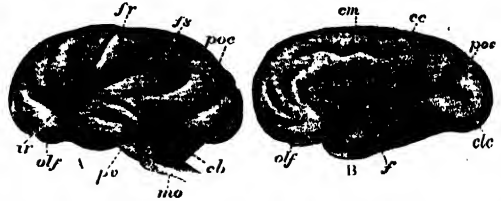


Fig. 4.—Lateral (A) and median (B) surface of the Brain of the Human Embryo, to show the simple Convolution and the primary Fissures (Mihalkovics):

fs, fissure of Sylvius; *fr*, fissure of Rolando; *po*, parieto-occipital fissure; *cl*, calcarine fissure; *cm*, callosal-marginal fissure; *ir*, island of Reil (not visible from the surface in the adult); *olf*, olfactory lobe; *f*, fornix; *pv*, pons Varolii; *mo*, medulla oblongata; *cb*, cerebellum.

always present. There are, on the outer surface, the fissure of *Sylvius* (*fs*), the fissure of *Rolando* (*fr*), and, on the inner surface, the *parieto-occipital* (*po*). These fissures form the boundaries of the various lobes of the cerebrum. (1) The *frontal lobe* (*FL*) is that part of the outer surface, and the corresponding part of the median surface, which lies anterior to the fissure of *Rolando*. (2) The *temporo-sphenoidal lobe* (*TL*) lies below the fissure of *Sylvius*. (3) The *occipital lobe* lies behind the *parieto-occipital fissure*, and includes the corresponding parts on the outer surface. (4) The *parietal lobe* is bounded by the fissures of *Rolando* and of *Sylvius*, and by the *occipital lobe*. (5) The *island of Reil* lies at the bottom of the fissure of *Sylvius* (*ir*, fig. 4), and is obscured in the adult by the adjacent lobes. Secondary fissures on these lobes divide them into *convolutions*. Thus (fig. 5), on the frontal lobe, we have the first (*F*₁), second (*F*₂), third (*F*₃), and ascending (*af*) frontal convolutions; on the temporo-sphenoidal, the first (*T*₁), second (*T*₂), and third (*T*₃) temporal convolutions; on the parietal, the ascending (*cp*), postero-parietal (*pp*), angular (*13'*), and supra-marginal (*13*) convolutions. On the median surface (fig. 3) we have the *marginal convolution*, the *gyrus fornicatus* (*gf*), immediately above the corpus callosum, and the *gyrus hippocampi*, &c. On the under surface of the cerebrum we see the two olfactory nerves (1) and the two optic nerves (2). The latter, crossing like the letter X, wind round the two cerebral peduncles (*cp*), to terminate in the optic thalami and optic lobes. These peduncles are seen passing from the under surface of the hemispheres, and approaching each other as they enter the pons Varolii. If we press apart the two cerebral hemispheres, we come upon the corpus callosum (*cc*, fig. 3). This is a band of white fibres that probably connects corresponding convolutions of both hemispheres. On dividing this and removing some white fibres (the fornix; fig. 3, *f*), and a layer of connective tissue (*velum interpositum*), with its vascular margin (the choroid plexus), we expose the *ventricles* of the cerebrum—viz. the two lateral and the third ventricles. The former occupy the hemispheres, the latter lies between them, and is continued backwards through a narrow channel (the *aqueduct of Sylvius*) into the fourth ventricle.

which lies behind the pons Varolii and medulla (figs. 6, 7, 8). Projecting into the third and lateral ventricles are rounded masses of gray matter, the *corpus striatum* and *optic thalamus*, often called the *basal ganglia* (figs. 6, 7). A better idea of the

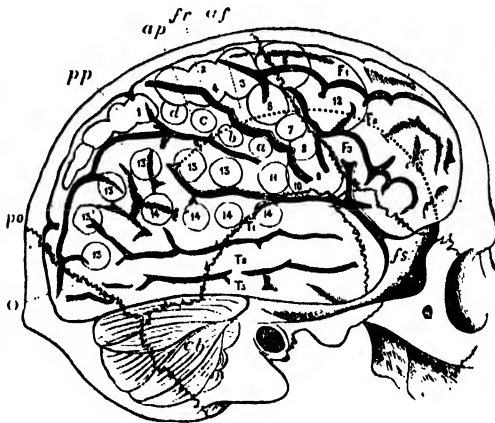


Fig. 5.—Outer aspect of brain, showing relation to the bones of the skull, and the position of Ferrier's areas (Landois):

fr, fissure of Rolando; *fs*, fissure of Sylvius; *po*, parieto-occipital fissure; *F₁* superior, *F₂* middle, *F₃* inferior frontal; *af*, ascending frontal convolution; *ap*, ascending parietal; *pp*, postero-parietal convolution; *T₁* superior, *T₂* middle, *T₃* inferior temporo-sphenoidal convolution; *O*, occipital lobe; *cb*, cerebellum; 1 (postero-parietal convolution), advance of the opposite leg, as in walking; 2, 3, 4 (round upper extremity of fissure of Rolando), complex movements of opposite leg, arm, and of the trunk, as in swimming; *a*, *b*, *c*, *d* (ascending parietal convolution), individual and combined movements of the fingers and wrist of the opposite hand, or prehensile movements; 5 (posterior end of superior frontal convolution), forward extension of opposite arm and hand; 6 (upper part of ascending frontal convolution), supination and flexion of opposite forearm; 7 (median part of ascending frontal convolution), retraction and elevation of opposite angle of the mouth; 8 (lower part of ascending frontal convolution), elevation of ala nasi, and upper lip, with depression of lower lip; 9 and 10, opening of mouth with protrusion and retraction of tongue—on the left side is aphasic region; 11, between 10 and lower end of ascending parietal convolution, retraction of opposite angle of the mouth, the head turns slightly to one side; 12, posterior part of the superior and middle frontal convolutions (eyes open widely, pupils dilate, head and eyes turn towards opposite side); 13, 13' (supra-marginal and angular gyrus), eyes move towards opposite side, or upwards and downwards (centre for vision); 14, superior temporo-sphenoidal convolution (centre for hearing).

relation of all these parts will be gained by studying the two transverse sections (figs. 6 and 7) made in the direction of the dotted lines AB and CD in fig. 3. Surrounding the whole cerebrum is the thin convoluted envelope of gray matter, about a quarter inch thick. Within this lies the *centrum ovale* composed of white fibres. Connecting the two hemispheres is the corpus callosum (*cc*) with, underneath it, the *septa lucida* and *fornix* (fig. 7). Projecting into the ventricles are the ovoid optic thalamus and the caudate nucleus (*cn*) of the *corpus striatum*. A wedge-shaped mass of gray matter (*ln*), the *lenticular nucleus* of the *corpus striatum*, is separated from the first two nuclei by a band of white fibres, the *internal capsule* (*ic*), which in fig. 6 we see to be composed of two parts, an anterior limb and a posterior limb, which meet each other at an obtuse angle (the knee). Immediately outside the lenticular nucleus is the white *external capsule* (*ec*), separated by a thin band of gray matter, the *claustrum*, from the island of Reil (*ir*). The *centrum ovale* consists of nerve fibres passing in various directions, very difficult to unravel from each other. Certain of

them pass between adjacent convolutions, others again connect parts at a distance, such as the frontal and occipital lobes, many cross by the corpus callosum to end probably in corresponding convolutions of the opposite hemisphere. Others connect the basal ganglia with the cortical gray matter. From the internal capsule an important group, known as the *corona radiata* (see fig. 7), passes to the whole of the cortex. That part of the corona radiata entering the occipital lobes is called the optic radiation of Gratiolet, who considered it to be the central expansion of the optic nerve (*or*, fig. 6).

The *optic lobes* consist of two (anterior and posterior) pairs of rounded eminences of gray matter (figs. 3 and 8) situated close to the optic thalami, and underlying the pineal gland. They are very intimately connected with the optic nerves, part of these ending in the anterior pair; and also to the third and fourth nerves, whose nuclei of origin lie just underneath them in front of the aqueduct of Sylvius (3', fig. 8). The *crura cerebri* are formed of fibres passing down from the cerebrum to the pons, medulla, and cord (see fig. 3), and of others passing up from the medulla and cord, and from the cerebellum (superior peduncles) to the cerebrum.

The *cerebellum* possesses a median and two lateral hemispheres which have been subdivided into lobes (figs. 2 and 3). Its parts are arranged in thin laminae or folia with deep intervening fissures.

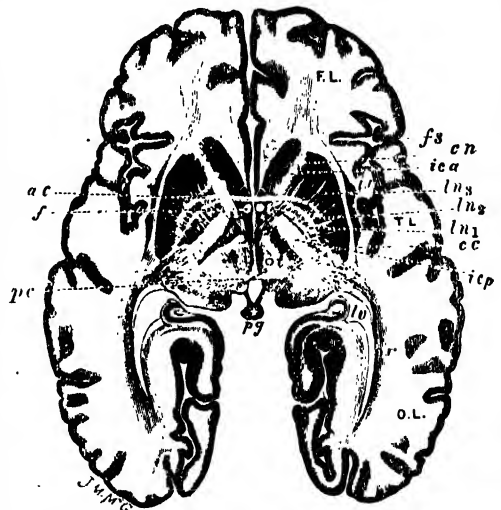


Fig. 6.—Transverse Section of Cerebrum in plane of line CD (fig. 3) (Original drawing):

F.L., frontal; T.L., temporal; O.L., occipital lobes; *fs*, fissure of Sylvius; *ir*, island of Reil; *cn*, caudate nucleus; *ln₁*, *ln₂*, *ln₃*, the three divisions of the lenticular nucleus; *ica*, anterior limb of internal capsule; *icp*, posterior limb of internal capsule (the anterior part conveys motor, the posterior sensory fibres), the part generally injured in cerebral hemorrhage; *ot*, optic thalamus; *or*, optic radiation, probably conveys sensory fibres to occipital and temporal lobes; *ac*, anterior commissure, connects both temporal lobes; *f*, fornix; *pc*, posterior commissure; *pg*, pineal gland; *lv*, lateral ventricle (posterior horn).

These laminae have a central core of white matter with a thin covering of gray matter. Sections through them recall the appearance of a tree and its branches (hence the term *arbor vitae*). The cerebellum has three pairs of *peduncles* (fig. 8)—(*a*) superior, which pass upwards and across the middle line towards the opposite cerebral hemisphere, but ending under the optic lobes; (*b*) middle, which form the main part of the pons Varolii, and which enter indirectly into connection with fibres from

the opposite cerebral hemisphere; (c) inferior (the *restiform body*), which is connected with the medulla and Spinal Cord (q.v.). There is also an intimate connection by the auditory nerve with the semicircular canals of the ear.

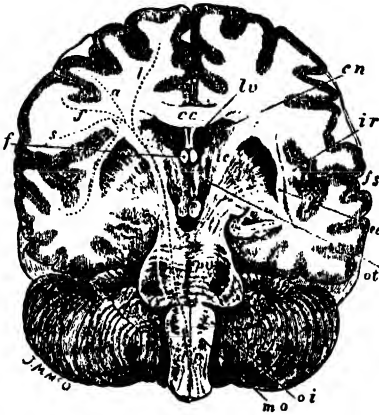


Fig. 7.—Vertical transverse Section of Brain in direction of line AB (fig. 3) (Original drawing):

The shaded outline of the cerebrum indicates the superficial gray matter.

fs, fissure of Sylvius; *ir*, island of Reil, a convolution at the bottom of the fissure of Sylvius concealed in the adult; *cc*, corpus callosum, the transverse interhemispherical commissure; *lv*, lateral ventricle; *f*, fornix, divided transversely. Between the fornix and the corpus callosum are seen the thin *septa lucida*; *cn*, caudate nucleus; *ln*, lenticular nucleus (with its three divisions); *ot*, optic thalamus; *ic*, internal capsule; *ec*, external capsule, and outside it a layer of gray matter, the claustrum; *pv*, pons Varolii; *mo*, medulla oblongata; *oi*, inferior olivary body; *cb*, cerebellum; *l*, *a*, *f*, *s*, mark the origin of the dotted lines representing motor fibres passing from the leg, arm, face, and speech 'centres,' through the internal capsule, cerebral peduncles, pons Varolii, medulla oblongata, and crossing at *dp*, the decussation of the pyramids to the opposite side of the spinal cord (to explain crossed paralysis). Another dotted line passes from *s* (speech centre) to hearing centre in first temporal convolution.

The *Medulla Oblongata* is the lowest division of the brain. It has a somewhat conical form, with the base towards the pons Varolii, the narrow end towards the spinal cord. On the under surface, on each side of the middle line, are the *anterior pyramids* decussating with (crossing) each other where the medulla passes into the spinal cord. External to them is an ovoid projection, the *olivary body* (fig. 2). On the dorsal aspect is the lozenge-shaped fourth ventricle, which is bounded below by the two inferior and above by the superior peduncles of the cerebellum. All the cranial nerves below the fourth originate from the floor of the medulla in the positions marked by the numbers on the right side of fig. 8. Their points of emergence on the under surface are indicated in fig. 2.

SIZE OF BRAIN.—The brain of the male has an average weight of 49½ ounces, that of the female is about 5 ounces lighter. Cuvier's brain weighed 1861 grammes (1 gramme is 15½ grains), Turge-
nieff's 2012 grammes. On the other hand, Virchow has found a brain weighing 1911 grammes in a man without any specially high mental development, and the brains of some very able men have been found below the average weight. Too much stress has been laid upon the connection of mental capacity with brain weight in individual instances. Still the general fact is that the most highly developed races have the heaviest brains.

FUNCTIONS OF THE CEREBRUM.—If we remove the cerebral lobes from an animal, we deprive it of

its volition and its intelligence. We may leave it capable of performing very complex movements, almost, if not quite, as perfectly as before; but we have destroyed its power to initiate these movements, we reduce it to the condition of a responsive machine. Thus a frog without its cerebrum will, if undisturbed, remain motionless for an indefinite time. If it be placed on a board, and the board tilted, it will change its position till its equilibrium is stable, and then it becomes motionless. If put into water, it will swim, and if a piece of wood be put before it, it will climb up on it, and there remain; if it be pinched, it will spring and will avoid any obstacle placed in its way, just as an entire frog would. A pigeon similarly treated becomes drowsy and stupid. If food be placed before it, it will not take it; it exhibits no sign of terror at what would otherwise cause it alarm, further than to start slightly at a loud sound, or a bright light. But if thrown into the air, it will fly to a convenient resting-place; if placed on its back, it will regain its feet, and thereafter become drowsy again.

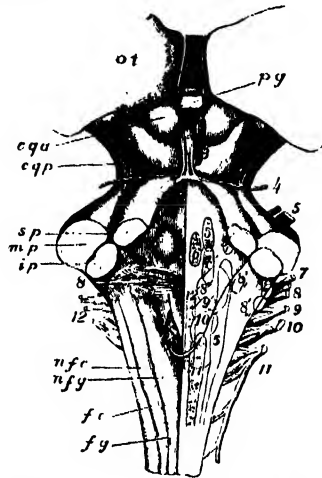


Fig. 8.—Medulla Oblongata with Corpora Quadrigemina seen from behind (Cerebellum cut away) (Landois):

oi, optic thalamus; *pg*, pineal gland; *cgu*, anterior corpora quadrigemina; *cyp*, posterior corpora quadrigemina; *sp*, superior cerebellar peduncle; *mp*, middle cerebellar peduncle, goes to pons Varolii; *ip*, inferior peduncle, or restiform body, goes to medulla oblongata and spinal cord; *fg*, funiculus gracilis, or column of Goll; *nfg*, nucleus of the funiculus gracilis; *fc*, funiculus cuneatus, or column of Burdach; *nfc*, nucleus of the funiculus cuneatus. The lozenge-shaped area in the centre of the figure is the fourth ventricle. The numbers 4-12 indicate the superficial roots of the corresponding cranial nerves. The numbers 3-12, their nuclei of origin.

Similar experiments on other animals show similar results. In man we find that imperfect development of the cerebrum is accompanied by imbecility and idiocy, and that the races that have the heaviest cerebra and the most fully developed convolutions are the most intelligent. Among animals, again, the degree of intelligence increases with the increase in size of the cerebrum relatively to the other parts of the brain.

Flourens, the great French physiologist, held that the *whole* of the cerebrum was employed in *every* mental process. He removed parts of the hemispheres of pigeons, and came to the conclusion that *all* the mental functions became enfeebled, and that to an *equal degree*, in *proportion* to the amount of brain matter removed, no matter from what part of the cerebrum it were; and that as long as any part of the gray matter remained, so

long could mental functions be carried on. This doctrine long held the field. It seemed to explain why large masses of brain substance could be removed by injury without apparent effect on the mind, and why there was no constant relation between symptoms and locality of brain lesions. But it did not explain all the facts. The condition of *Aphasia* (q. v.), or loss of articulate speech, was found to be almost constantly associated with a certain convulsion, and certain paralysis and limited convulsive phenomena were found by Hughlings Jackson to be apparently due to definitely localised lesions. In 1870 Fritsch and Hitzig, two German observers, discovered that when certain areas of the cerebral cortex were stimulated by the galvanic current, movements of the opposite side of the body were produced. This discovery put the question of cerebral localisation on a new footing. Ferrier repeated and extended their results, and soon succeeded in mapping on the brains of animals (rabbits, dogs, and monkeys), areas, stimulation of which by the faradic current produced movements which corresponded to the areas as accurately as the notes correspond to the keys of a pianoforte. A great controversy immediately arose as to the meaning and value of these discoveries, the result of which has been to substantiate their accuracy, and to lead to their extension. Ferrier's 'motor areas' (see fig. 5) lie on either side of the fissure of Rolando, and extend into the postero-parietal and part of the first, second, and third frontal convolutions. The lower part of the area corresponds to the movements of the face and tongue; the intermediate parts to those of the arm; the upper to those of the leg. Recently, a centre for the muscles of the trunk, arm, and leg has been found on the marginal convolution (on the median aspect of the parietal lobe); and Ferrier's areas have been further subdivided, so that centres for such fine movements as, e.g., the apposition of the forefinger to the thumb have been mapped out on the brain of the monkey by Horsley, Schäfer, and others. A knowledge of the correspondence between the convolutions of the simian and the human brain, and of the relation of the convolutions of the latter to the bones of the skull (see fig. 5), has already led to the successful removal of tumours whose seat was indicated by definite motor disturbances. When these areas are destroyed by disease, the power of the corresponding voluntary movement or movements is lost. When they are irritated, corresponding spasms of movement are set up (Jacksonian epilepsy).

Aphasia.—The left hemisphere controls the right side of the body, and as we are mostly *right-handed*, so we are *left-brained*. When the posterior end of the third frontal convolution on the left side is destroyed, *aphasia* results. An aphasic person understands what is said to him, but has lost the power of articulate speech—the words wanted are either forgotten or cannot be uttered, and this although the muscles of articulation are unimpaired. They cannot be co-ordinated. In *left-handed* individuals aphasia has been found associated with the corresponding lesion on the right side of the cerebrum. The third left frontal convolution is said to be well developed in the brains of remarkable men, and to be very simple in deaf-mutes, and quite rudimentary in idiots. The corresponding condition of *agraphia*, or inability to express one's self intelligently by writing, has been recently found associated with lesions of the posterior end of the second frontal convolution.

From these various areas white nerve fibres pass downwards through the centrum ovale, and converge toward the internal capsule, where they occupy the anterior two-thirds of the posterior limb,

the fibres from the face and tongue being farthest forward, then come those for the arm, and lastly those for the leg. The fibres that go to the nuclei of the facial and tongue muscles, cross the middle line a little below this, those for the limbs and arm at the decussation of the pyramids at the lower end of the medulla. When a cerebral hemorrhage injures them in the internal capsule (the most frequent seat), crossed paralysis will follow, with aphasia if the lesion has been on the left side (fig. 7, *l, f, a, s*).

Cortical Sensory Areas.—The determination of the existence of definite areas for the conscious perception of the different forms of sensory impressions is much more difficult than that of the motor areas, and physiologists are yet far from being agreed on this point.

Centre for Sight.—Munk places this centre in the occipital lobe; destruction of one lobe produces permanent blindness in one side of both eyes (what is called homonymous hemianopsia). Ferrier destroyed the occipital lobes in monkeys, and found no appreciable alteration of vision, but when in addition both angular gyri were destroyed, permanent blindness followed. Destruction of one angular gyrus caused only temporary loss of vision in the opposite eye, while destruction of both caused a similar temporary condition in both eyes. In man, disease of the left angular gyrus produces what is called *word-blindness*. In this condition one loses the power of reading words, although one sees the characters distinctly, and may even be able to spell the word. One may even retain the power of writing spontaneously or from dictation, and yet be unable to read what has been written. It may be compared to the condition where one has completely forgotten a foreign language; one can write or read the words, but has absolutely lost their meaning. Recent investigation seems to show that the occipital lobes alone are the centre for sight, each lobe being connected with the corresponding lateral halves of the two eyes.

Centre of Hearing.—This seems to lie in the first temporo-sphenoidal convolution in both sides. In man, partial destruction of this convolution on the left side causes the condition of *word-deafness* (where one hears the sounds, but has absolutely lost their meaning).

Centre for Taste and Smell.—Ferrier locates the former of these in the uncinate gyrus (on the inner surface of the temporo-sphenoidal lobe).

Centre for Touch (common sensibility).—Many physiologists place these in the motor area. Ferrier, Horsley, and Schäfer find that they are in the gyrus fornicatus and the gyrus hippocampi (on the median aspect of the brain, above and behind and below the corpus callosum, fig. 1).

Fibres from the various sense organs lead to the cortical areas, through the posterior third of the internal capsule. If this is injured, loss of all forms of sensibility—hearing, sight, taste, touch, &c.—of the opposite side follows.

Frontal Lobes.—No definite result follows from the experiments made on the anterior part of the frontal lobes; but it is probable that they are associated with the exercise of the higher mental faculties. They are well developed in highly intelligent individuals, and *vice versa*. It must be admitted, however, that cases have been recorded (as in the American case of a man injured in this region by a crowbar) where the frontal lobes have been greatly damaged without apparent effect on the mind. (It is usual to speak of the cerebrum as being the seat of the various mental faculties, and of the *will* as producing voluntary movement. All we know is this—that changes in consciousness are accompanied by molecular changes

in the brain; the one does not *produce* the other. So it is nervous activity that produces movement; not the mental action of the *will*.)

Basal Ganglia.—Stimulation of the corpus striatum causes general contraction of the muscles on the opposite side of the body, as if the whole motor area were being stimulated at once. Destruction of the optic thalamus seems to cause interference with the vision (the optic tract ends partly in its posterior part), and sometimes with other forms of sensation. Further investigation, however, is needed to establish definitely the functions of these ganglia.

Optic Lobes.—The optic lobes seem to be concerned in the co-ordination of those movements noted in the frog as persisting after removal of the cerebral hemispheres. A frog without these lobes loses the power of recovery from a disturbance of its equilibrium, or of properly performing any other set of combined movements. In man the anterior pair of the corpora quadrigemina seems to control the reflex contraction of the pupils, and of some of the movements of the eyes through the third nerve; while the posterior pair has some more general co-ordinating power. Unilateral lesions cause in animals what are called 'forced movements'—i.e. a tendency to run in a circle, like a horse in a circus, or to turn like the hand of a watch round the tip of the tail as a centre, or to rotate round the axis of the body.

Cerebellum.—Flourens considered that the function of the cerebellum was to co-ordinate voluntary movements. He found that removal of superficial layers in a pigeon caused slight weakness and disharmony of movement; that further removal caused general agitation, and finally loss of ability to stand or fly or walk. It could not rise when placed on its back. But it was not paralysed, it made continual ineffectual struggles to recover its position, and only ceased when completely exhausted. There was no loss of volition or intelligence. It could see and hear and feel quite well. Disease of the human cerebellum, however, when it causes symptoms, does not cause *general* inco-ordination, but merely a staggering gait like that of intoxication, and a feeling of giddiness. Ferrier holds that it is the centre for co-ordinating movements necessary for the equilibrium of the body, and that its different parts control different sets of these movements. For instance, destruction of the anterior part of the median lobe causes tendency to fall forwards, loss of its posterior part causes tendency to fall backwards, and of one lateral lobe a tendency to rotate towards the side injured. Stimulation of any one of these parts causes movements of the head, eyes, and limbs, such as would counteract the disturbance of equilibrium produced by the destruction of the part. The anatomical connections of the cerebellum, with the semicircular canals of the ear, seem to point to the same conclusion. Other observers have regarded the cerebellum as the seat of the muscular sense, or for the maintenance of muscular tone, but without sufficient warrant.

The *Medulla Oblongata* is the great seat of the centres for the functions of organic life, as may be understood from the fact that it gives origin to all the cranial nerves, except the first four pairs (see fig. 8). The various centres are: (1) The centre for respiratory movements, near the lower extremity of the fourth ventricle; (2) for the inhibition (or restraint), and for the acceleration of the movements of the heart; (3) for the control of the blood pressure (vaso-motor centre), including the 'diabetic' centre, which is simply the vaso-motor centre for the liver; (4) centre for swallowing; (5) centre for movements of the gullet and stomach, and the vomiting centre; (6) for movements of

articulate speech; (7) for the secretion of the saliva. The term 'centre' involves the following mechanism: (1) A sensitive end-organ or surface; (2) an afferent nerve going to (3) a nerve cell, or group of nerve cells, from which pass (4) an efferent nerve fibre to (5) a muscle. That the action of the 'centre' be possible all the links in the chain must be intact.

DISEASES OF THE BRAIN.—**Abscess.**—Abscess of the brain is a collection of pus in its substance. The most common causes are compound fractures of the skull, diseases of the middle ear and temporal bone, and pyæmia. Many cases develop quietly, others are preceded by headache, pain, vomiting, delirium. When pus has formed, the symptoms will depend on the site; usually there is more or less paralysis of motion. Finally the signs of compression precede the fatal termination. When an abscess in the brain has formed, if its situation can be made out, the pus should be evacuated by Trephining (q.v.). Many cases have recently been treated successfully in this way.

Anæmia of the brain is a deficiency in the quality or in the quantity of blood in the brain. It may result from direct loss of blood, exhausting diseases, weakness of the heart, or from the pressure of growths or fluids within the skull. Headache, drowsiness, hyperæsthesia, giddiness, muscular weakness are generally present, and most marked in the erect position. Syncope, or fainting, may result from the too rapid assumption of the erect position. In anæmia from acute loss of blood, and in syncope, the head must be kept low, and stimulants applied to the skin, and, if possible, administered internally. In chronic anæmia, the cause must be removed, stimulating nourishment given at frequent intervals, and iron administered.

Atrophy of the brain is a wasting of its substance, and is either congenital, or a condition accompanying old age, or resulting from exhausting disease, and very frequently from alcoholic excesses. The congenital form produces imbecility or idiocy. The acquired form leads to loss of memory and of mental power, and generally to diminution of muscular power.

Compression, concussion, and contusion of the brain are three terms often popularly confounded with each other. Compression means the squeezing of the brain by any fluid such as blood, serum, or inflammatory exudation or tumour. Concussion is the result of shock to the brain from an injury, but without visible effect on its substance. In contusion the brain substance is more or less lacerated. In compression there is paralysis, insensibility, coma gradually deepening, dilated pupils, and generally a slow pulse. In concussion there is first a period of collapse, with pallor of face, feebleness of pulse, and cold extremities. If this is recovered from, consciousness gradually returns with vomiting, fever, and a more or less sleepy condition. Perfect quiet, and the avoidance of all stimulation, must be observed till convalescence is complete.

Congestion of the brain causes headache, giddiness, mental excitement, and sleeplessness. If long continued, a period of depression follows with drowsiness, mental and physical weakness. Some attacks are so acute as to produce delirium, or convulsions, or even symptoms of apoplexy, which may be fatal. Among the causes of acute congestion may be noted excessive mental strain, the use of alcohol in excess, and some of the acute fevers. It is of frequent occurrence in certain diseases of the nervous system.

Inflammation of the brain substance is usually the result of injury or disease of the bones of the skull, and is accompanied with more or less meningitis.

Hæmorrhage into the brain leads to Apoplexy

(q.v.). It is probably always preceded by disease of the blood-vessels, more especially with chronic Bright's disease and alcoholism. The vessels which rupture are most commonly the small arteries which pass through the basal ganglia. The onset may be quite sudden, or there may be premonitory symptoms such as headache, giddiness, or numbness in the limbs, &c.

Meningitis, Hydrocephalus (or water in the head), *Epilepsy, Aphasia*, are all forms of brain disease, but are treated as separate articles.

Brain Fever is a popular term which includes congestion of the brain and its membranes, delirium tremens, and inflammation of the brain substance itself. It ought to be discontinued altogether.

Softening is a term popularly and very erroneously used to indicate failure of mental power and general feebleness, often accompanied with drowsiness, dullness, loss of memory, and with emotional excitability. There may be no actual softening in such a condition—merely atrophy of the brain.

True softening is the result either of clotting of blood in the vessels, disease of the walls of the arteries (atheroma), or Embolism (q.v.), or the presence of tumours. The brain substance becomes red, or yellow, or white, and the fibres break up as oil drops, and are gradually absorbed, a cyst containing fluid being left. The symptoms will depend on the part affected; if in the motor area, there will be paralysis of motion; or in the sensory area, loss of the corresponding power of conscious perception.

Tumours may grow from the membranes, the blood-vessels, or the connective tissue of the brain. They vary greatly in structure, many being allied to the sarcomata. The symptoms vary greatly according to their position, or may be absent entirely. The most common symptoms are intolerable headache, vomiting (without sickness), giddiness, convulsions, paralysis, and a condition of the optic nerve and retina recognisable by the ophthalmoscope, called optic neuritis. Some tumours can be removed by medical treatment, a few by surgical means. Generally all that can be done is to relieve pain and support the strength.

See also the articles ANIMAL MAGNETISM APOPLEXY, CEREBRO-SPINAL FLUID, CONCUSSION, CONSCIOUSNESS, EPILEPSY, HYSTERIA, INSANITY, MEMORY, NERVOUS DISEASES, NERVOUS SYSTEM, NEURASTHENIA, PARALYSIS, SHOCK, SOMNAMBULISM, in some of which the relation of mind to brain will be discussed; and consult further Ferrier, *Functions of the Brain* (2d ed. 1886); Calderwood, *Relation of Mind and Brain* (1879); Quain's *Anatomy* (vol. ii. 8th ed.); Ross's *Diseases of the Nervous System* (2d ed. 1883); papers by Horsley, Schäfer, and others, in the *Philosophical Transactions* (1886-87).

Brain-coral, or BRAINSTONE CORAL, a popular name for massive corals belonging to the family *Astræidæ*. The windings of their limy framework and their common rounded form have suggested that general resemblance to the convoluted brains of higher animals which the name implies. The name is especially applicable to the genus *Mæandrina* (*M. cerebriformis, sinuosissima*, &c.), where the individual animals which compose the colony are arranged in long winding rows. Those of one row are not separated from one another by the usual round walls, and thus elongated continuous furrows are formed not unlike brain convolutions. The entire shape is roughly hemispherical; the rate of growth slow; the total size often large. They are abundant in the West Indian Ocean. About twenty species of *Mæandrina* are known, some living, others occurring from the chalk on to tertiary strata. See CORAL, MADREPORE.

Braine-le-Comte, a busy town of the Belgian province of Hainaut, on the Senne, 19 miles SSW. of Brussels. It has an old church of the 13th cen-

tury, cotton and corn mills, dye-works, breweries, &c. Some of the finest flax that can be produced is grown in the district. Pop. (1884) 8176.

Brainerd, DAVID, missionary to the American Indians, was born at Haddam, Connecticut, 20th April 1718. He entered Yale College in 1739, but three years later was expelled for declaring that one of the college tutors had no more of the grace of God than a chair. That same year he was licensed to preach, and sent as a missionary to the Indians in Massachusetts. He laboured afterwards among the Indians in Pennsylvania, and with much success in New Jersey, baptising there no fewer than seventy-seven converts, of whom thirty-eight were adults. In 1747 he died in the house of Jonathan Edwards, by whose able pen his Life was soon after written. The year before his death Brainerd published the narrative of his labours in his *Mirabilia Dei inter Indicos and Græce Displayed*. These were republished, together with the Life, in 1822, and had some popularity. See Sherwood's essay, introductory to the third edition (New York, 1884).

Braintree, a market-town of Essex, 45 miles NE. of London by rail. It has manufactures of silk, crape, and straw-plait, with malt-kilns, corn-mills, breweries, and an iron-foundry. The ancient church of St Michael (1350) was restored in 1864-66; there are also a corn exchange and mechanics' institute. Pop. of parish (1881) 5182.

Brake. See BRACKEN.

Brakelonde. See JOCELIN.

Brakes. Any contrivance for controlling by friction the speed of carriages, wagons, trains, or revolving drums is called a brake. In its simplest form, as applied to road vehicles, wooden blocks are pressed by the driver through the medium of connecting-rods or levers against the tires of the wheels; the friction thus set up checks the speed, enabling the vehicle to go steadily down inclines, or to be rapidly pulled up.

Brakes, however, find their most important application on trains. Soon after the introduction of railways, improvements in the locomotive compelled engineers to devise means for controlling its speed. Stephenson arranged a brake, in which steam admitted into a small cylinder, pushed out its piston, and so through the action of levers pressed the blocks against the tires. It was a failure partly because it was applied only to wheels on one side of the engine, thus tending to cause it to leave the rails. Since then much labour has been spent on this question, chiefly with the object of making brakes continuous and automatic. The conditions a train-brake must fulfil are these: It must be continuous, automatic—i.e. in case of accident, such as the breaking apart of the train, it must instantaneously put itself on—be equally readily put on, or off any vehicle, and be simple in construction and durable. Moreover, it should allow of vehicles being slipped or detached without putting it on, should be tell-tale to indicate if it is in working order, be constantly in use, and lastly, very powerful, capable of stopping a heavy train at a high speed in a few hundred yards.

The chief types now used are chain, vacuum, and pressure brakes; but the first great advance was in the application of the screw to regulate the pressure of the brake-blocks on the tires, a plan still used in hand-brakes, where compressed springs give great power; the blocks are now cast-iron. The chain-brake is simply a continuous chain extending under several vehicles, wound up by a drum on the brake-van so as to be in tension; this keeps the blocks off; but if the guard slacks the chain, or it breaks through the train parting, compressed springs come into play, forcing the blocks

against the tires; it is thus partly automatic, and has been much used. Vacuum-brakes work on the principle of keeping up a vacuum in a continuous pipe or pipes extending under the train, and in brake-cylinders connected to them under each vehicle, the air being sucked out by ejectors or pumps on the locomotive. Each cylinder has a piston working in it which is, with a vacuum on both sides, in such a position that the blocks are off; but if air is let into pipes the vacuum on one side is destroyed and the piston moves over, putting on the brakes by the help of suitable levers. In other forms the cylinder is a flexible sack which is collapsed by the atmosphere, and puts on the brakes directly a vacuum in the pipes is produced.

The best known pressure-brake is the invention of Mr Westinghouse of Pittsburg, U.S.A., whose first brakes were non-automatic, but were superseded by his automatic brake. In the latter, compressed air, at from 80 to 100 lb. per square inch, is stored in a reservoir under each vehicle and in a pipe connecting them, also under each vehicle is a brake-cylinder with pistons, the rods of which operate the brake-levers, and lastly, a connecting valve called a 'triple valve.' As long as pressure is maintained in the pipe the brake is off; but if air escapes intentionally or otherwise from the pipe, the brakes are put on. The triple valve is an ingenious piece of mechanism. A piston with a sliding valve attached to its top works in a small case, with connections to the pipe, cylinder, and reservoir. If there is pressure in the pipe it acts on the under side of piston, keeping it with its valve in such a position that the brake-cylinder is in communication with the air (and so the brakes are off), while compressed air can feed to the reservoir; but if the pressure in the pipe falls, the excess pressure in the reservoir acts on the top of the piston, forces it and the valve down, shuts passage to the air, and allows compressed air to rush from the reservoir to the cylinder and put on the brakes. A little auxiliary valve in the slide valve gives great control over the pressure, and accidental leaks are provided against by grooves opening to the air which shut when the brakes are put into action. Generally each cylinder has two pistons kept close together by springs; the compressed air enters between them, forcing them apart, and so working the brake-levers. The hose couplings for pipes between the carriages are automatic—i.e. a valve opens in them when the couplings are made, and closes if they are disconnected (except when forcibly torn apart as in accidents). Captain Galton made a valuable set of experiments on the friction between blocks and tires on the Brighton line, proving conclusively amongst other things that the pressure should not be so great as to cause the wheels to skid. His results were communicated to the Institution of Mechanical Engineers. An elaborate series of tests of rival brakes was made at Newark in 1875, the general result proving the Westinghouse to be the most powerful and quickest in application—for instance, it stopped a train weighing 203 tons, running 56 miles an hour, in 1020 feet.

For revolving drums, the brake is usually some form of strap which can be tightened strongly against the drum, causing great friction, and so pulling up the drum.

Later the word brake has been used for any form of engine dynamometer which measures power

given out by an engine by absorbing it in overcoming friction. The usual method is to hang a weight from a strap or series of blocks encircling a pulley or flywheel of the engine, then to tighten up these straps till the friction produced is great

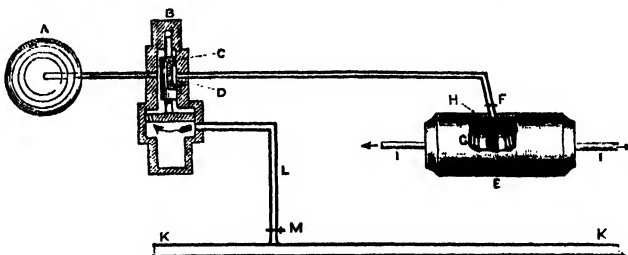


Diagram of Westinghouse Automatic Brake, showing arrangement for one carriage:

A, reservoir; B, triple valve; C, slide valve; D, exhaust; E, brake-cylinder; F, release valve; G, spring; H, pistons; I, I, communication to brake-lever; K, main pipe extending all along the train; L, branch pipe; M, cock.

enough to cause the flywheel to tend to carry the weights round, or, as it is said, to keep them 'floating.' The weights so floated measure the brake horse-power of the engine.

Brama, or **RAY'S BREAM** (*Brama rai*), a bony fish closely related to the Coryphænas or 'dolphins,' and therefore belonging or nearly allied to the mackerel family. In this genus the body is laterally compressed and more or less deep, the spinous portion of the long dorsal fin is not well developed, and the tail is deeply forked. Ray's bream is found from the Cape seas northward to the Mediterranean, and even to British coasts. Its total length may be as much as 2 feet. The flesh is said to be very good.

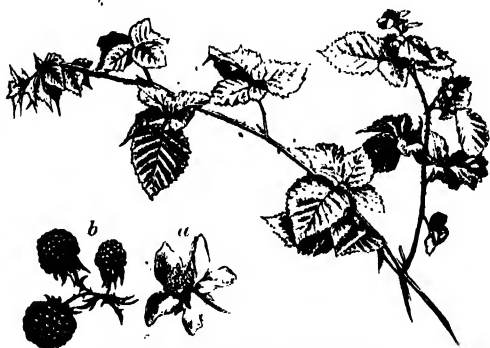
Bramah, **JOSEPH**, inventor, was born at Stainbrough, near Barnsley, Yorkshire, April 13, 1748. A farmer's son, he was incapacitated in his sixteenth year for agricultural labours by an accidental lameness, so was apprenticed to the village carpenter, and afterwards obtained employment with a London cabinetmaker. Subsequently, he established himself in business in the metropolis, and became distinguished for the number, value, and ingenuity of his mechanical inventions, such as safety-locks, and improvements in water-closets (his first patent, 1778), which have continued in use till the present time; in pumps and fire-engines, in the construction of boilers for steam-engines, in the processes of making paper, in the construction of main-pipes, wheel-carriages, the beer-machine used at the bar of public-houses, and many others. In the year 1796 he patented the hydrostatic press known by his name, which ranks as his most important contribution to mechanical science (see **HYDRAULIC PRESS**). He patented a very ingenious machine for printing bank-notes in 1806, and was one of the first to propose the application of the screw-propeller. In all, he took out eighteen patents. It has been remarked that the germs of all his inventions may be found in the work of others, but that he possessed the genius of improving upon and practically applying the work of previous inventors. He died 9th December 1814.

Bramante, **DONATO**, architect, was born near Urbino in 1444. From 1472 to 1499 he resided in Milan, where he studied geometry and perspective, neither of which sciences was well understood by artists in his day. He was noted as one of the best painters in Lombardy; but his success in architecture eclipsed his fame as a painter. After the fall of Ludovico Sforza, Bramante went to Rome,

where he was first employed by Pope Alexander VI., and afterwards by Julius II. The first great work which he undertook for the latter was to connect the Vatican palace with the two pavilions of the Belvedere by a series of immense galleries; the second was the rebuilding of St Peter's Church, of which he laid the new foundation in 1506. When only a small portion of his plans had been realised, Bramante died at Rome, 11th March 1514, and succeeding architects departed widely from the original design of a grand cupola over a Greek cross. Among other works of Bramante in Rome may be mentioned the Cancellaria and Torlonia palaces, in which he adhered more strictly than in other works to antique forms, but not without a characteristic grace in his application of these.

Brambanan, a district of the province of Surakarta, Java, rich in remains of Hindu temples, of which there are six groups, with two apparently monastic buildings. The edifices are composed entirely of hewn stone, and no mortar has been used in their construction. The largest is a cruciform temple, surrounded by five concentric squares, formed by rows of detached cells or shrines, embracing an area of 500 feet square. In several of these *dagobas* the cross-legged figures of Buddha remain; but the larger figures which must have occupied the central temples have disappeared from all but one. The outer one consists of 84 temples; the second, of 76; the third, of 64; the fourth, of 44; and the inner one, of 28. In the centre stands the largest and most imposing structure of all. It is 90 feet high, and profusely decorated with mythological figures, which are executed in a very fair style of art. On the south face of the outside parallelogram there are two monstrous figures, with uplifted clubs, kneeling in a threatening attitude. One of the single Buddhist edifices is pretty entire, as are also about a third of the cells, but the rest lie strewn upon the ground.

Bramble, or **BLACKBERRY** (*Rubus fruticosus*), a plant common in Britain and most parts of Europe, having prickly stems, which somewhat resemble those of the Raspberry (q.v.). The flowers do not appear till the summer is considerably advanced, and the fruit ripens towards the



Branch of Common Bramble:
a, a flower; b, fruit.

end of it, continuing to be produced till the frosts of winter set in. The fruit is too well known to need description. Preserves are prepared from it of very delicate flavour, besides a pleasant and fairly potent wine. The bramble is little cultivated in Britain; but it seems to deserve attention at least as much as the raspberry, and shows great capacity for improvement by cultivation. A slight rail on each side of a row of brambles, to restrain

the straggling stems, affords the necessary security for neatness and order, and the care bestowed is repaid by abundance of fruit, very acceptable where wild brambles are not plentiful, and at a season when there is no other small fruit in the garden. This being one of the most variable of British plants, its systematic arrangement has been a matter of great controversy, especially among pre-evolutionary botanists. Baker enumerates 21 sub-species, of which most again pass into varieties. Some are very pretty, and reward cultivation on the rock-garden. In America, where they are called Blackberries, they are extensively cultivated for their fruit; and of late American kinds have been with advantage introduced into Britain.—Species of *Rubus* very similar to the common bramble, or varieties of it, abound in the northern parts of Asia, the Himalaya Mountains, and North America. See *RUBUS*.

Brambling, **BRAMBLE FINCH**, or **MOUNTAIN FINCH** (*Fringilla montifringilla*), one of the Finches (q.v.), very like the chaffinch, but slightly larger, and with a more forked tail. In the males, the crown of the head, the cheeks, the back and sides of the neck, and the upper part of the back, are mottled in winter with brown and black; but in spring all these parts have a rich velvety black. The throat and breast are of a rich fawn colour, which is also the prevailing colour of the wings. These are crossed, however, when closed, by an oblique band of jet-black, and by another oblique band of white. The quill-feathers are also black, edged with yellow on their outer webs; the tail-feathers black, edged with reddish white; the rump and the belly are white; a small tuft of feathers under each wing and some of the lower wing-coverts are bright yellow. The female has a reddish-gray head. So far as is known, this finch has no song, but only a monotonous chirp. It is a mere winter visitant in Britain, and even in the south of Sweden it is only a winter bird. It breeds in the more northerly parts of Europe and Asia, and is very widely distributed.

Bramhall, **JOHN**, a great anti-Puritan Irish prelate, was born in 1594, and educated at Sidney-Sussex College, Cambridge. He was already sub-dean of Ripon, and on the road to high preferment when he went to Ireland as Wentworth's chaplain in 1633. He soon became Archdeacon of Meath, and was consecrated Bishop of Derry in 1634. Bramhall's intolerance roused the wrath of the stubborn Scotch settlers in his diocese, and ruined the king's cause in Ulster. When the Civil War broke out, for safety's sake he crossed to England, but the royalist disasters soon drove him to the Continent. At Paris, he argued with Hobbes on necessity and the freedom of the will, but the dogmatic bishop was no match save in his own opinion for that subtlest of sceptics. The Restoration gave him the metropolitan see of Armagh, which he filled till his death in 1663. Bramhall closely imitated Laud in policy, and even resembled him in person, but was far his inferior in intellect. Not strong but merely obstinate in purpose, the so-called Athanasius of Ireland by his impolitic intolerance sealed the doom of Episcopalian supremacy in Ulster. His collected writings have slumbered since their publication in 1677.

Brampton, a very ancient town of Cumberland, 9 miles ENE. of Carlisle by rail. The chief manufacture is the weaving of checks and ginghams. There are coal-mines in the vicinity. It has a town-hall, a grammar-school, and breweries. Two miles to the east stands Lanercost Abbey, founded in 1169. Pop. of parish (1881) 3438.

Bran is the material obtained from the outer covering or husk of grain during the process of

grinding, and which is separated from the finer flour before the latter is made into Bread (q.v.). It is generally met with in commerce in thin scaly yellowish-brown particles, with sharp edges, and its composition in 100 parts is as follows: Water, 14; fibrin, &c., 15; starch, 44; fat, 4; lignose and cellulose, 17; ash, 6. Bran contains a nitrogenous body called *cerealin*, which is capable of producing, by a process of fermentation, a chemical change in the starch, dextrin, &c. of flour. Bread made of flour containing bran is known as *Brown Bread* (see BREAD). The main uses to which bran is put are in the feeding of horses and cattle, and poultry, and in clearing and brightening goods during the processes of Dyeing and Calico-printing (q.v.). In the practice of medicine, bran is employed as a warm poultice in abdominal inflammation, spasms, &c., and an infusion is used as an emollient foot bath. It is also used internally in catarrhal affections.

Branch, Branching. In the widest sense we may speak of branching whenever one part gives rise to another similar one, be it the thallus of the lowest plants, or the root or stem of higher ones; more strictly, however, the term is restrained to the ramification of stems. Branches then 'are secondary stems developed from a primary one, or tertiary from these, and so on.' The growing point in many cryptogams forks constantly, while in the higher plants we have a potential branch in every vegetative bud except the terminal one which continues the main axis (see BUD). The number and position of the branches is thus in the first place determined by those of the leaves, but in the vast majority of cases such exuberant ramification is impossible, and many or most of such buds perish early or never even develop. This arrest depends largely on individual circumstances, and the branches may thus come to have a quite irregular or at anyrate undefinable position; yet this is by no means always the case, even in our trees. The general aspect of trees depends more upon their mode of branching than the form or exuberance of their foliage; notably that broadest of all arboreal contrasts, between the spire-like growth of the coniferous trees and the more spreading deciduous ones. In the conifers the lateral branches often perish and are thrown off from below upwards, and the adult stem thus appears branchless to a great height; yet even here sooner or later a branchy head is formed, as in the familiar Scotch fir or the Italian pine. The predominance of the main axis over the branches may long persist in many deciduous trees, and especially in their fastigate varieties, like the Lombardy poplar; frequently, however, as in the elm, the main axis soon becomes altogether lost, or apparently continued by several main branches. The angle at which branches come off also largely varies; usually ascending and acute, they may be at a right angle—e.g. cedar—or even droop, as in 'weeping' trees. With regard to the conifers, it may be noticed that the shortened branchlet of the larch, with its tuft of needle-like leaves, is represented in the pines by a still more reduced form, which has only two leaves, surrounded at the base by a number of bud-scales. When the vegetative life of these ceases, the branchlet is disarticulated as a whole—a fact the more curious in relation to the separation of the large lower branches of the stem, which also snap off, leaving a clean cicatrix. That more or less distinct tendency to the development of the lateral buds, and the consequent subordination of the apical one, which all branching implies, may be traced from the general aspect of the tree into the details of its growth, and yet more fully into its inflorescence. Thus, while in the simplest case, the secondary axes are all subordinate to the primary one, as in

a pine-tree or a raceme, the growth of the branches tends continuously to predominate. The shorter, more rounded, and long-branched conifers and other trees, or the 'corymb' variety of the raceme, are the simplest cases of this; but more definite forms also arise. Thus, when the leaves are opposite, the large development of the lateral branches to an equality with the main stem may give a three-branched appearance, which is well exhibited by valerian (fig. 2). More frequently,

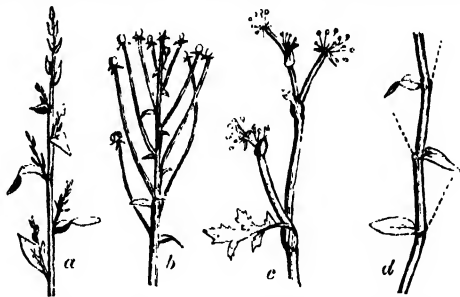


Fig. 1.—Mode of Branching in alternate-leaved plants; with series of modifications brought about by increasing subordination of the main axes and development of the secondary ones.

a, unmodified form, or racemose type; b, secondary axes lengthened (corymbose type); c, the secondary axes (arising in axils of leaves) nearly as well developed as main axis (Umbellifers); d, primary axis quite arrested after giving off its first axillary bud; this develops as a secondary axis, its bud as a tertiary, and so on, the stem being thus a composite or 'false' axis.

however, the development of the lateral branches exceeds that of the apical one altogether, which may be reduced to flower-bearing or totally arrested, and *false dichotomy* is the result; the autumnal arrest of the apical bud of the lilac, with development of its two lateral ones in spring, the apparent forking of the mistletoe, and the 'dichotomous cyme' of the pinks or chickweeds, are all familiar instances of this. Where the leaves are alternate we may also have an apparent forking, due to the equal development of the axillary branch, as often happens in Umbelliferae; or the main axis may be reduced to terminate in a flower, as in the scorpioid and helicoid cyme, or may be checked altogether, as in the shoot of the lime.

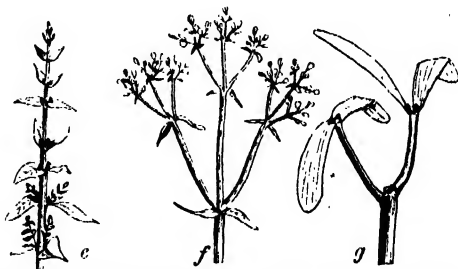


Fig. 2.—Similar modification of Branching in opposite-leaved plants:

e, primitive form; f, equal development of lateral branches (Valerian); g, arrest of main axis with development of secondary alone, and consequent resemblance to dichotomy (Mistletoe).

Where, as in most of these cases, the primary axis is not only checked by its secondary axis, but this bears a bud or tertiary axis, which again overpowers it, and so on, a *false axis* or *sympode* is formed. Physiologically indistinguishable from an ordinary main axis, examination shows that the leaves are not borne in the ordinary way, but have

developed the successive segments of stem in their respective axils.

The underground branches of a rhizome are often thickened as *tubers*; or they may send up tertiary branches to become new ascending axes—the *suckers* of the raspberry or rose. A *stolon* is a prostrate branch which roots at the tips and then develops an ascending branch; it may often be long and thread-like, and is then called a *runner* (strawberry). Branches may also undergo modifications from vegetative forms to new purposes—they may become sensitive and supporting as tendrils, their vegetative life may be diminished and their growing points hardened off as spines or thorns; the flower too is of course a reproductively shortened axis with modified appendages. See INFLORESCENCE.

Branchiæ. See GILLS.

Branchiopoda, a sub-order of Crustaceans in the order with leaf-like feet (Phyllopods). The name (gill-footed) refers to the fact that many of the numerous (10-40 pairs) appendages bear respiratory appendages. The body is distinctly jointed; the shell may be absent, shield-shaped, or bivalved; there are well-developed steering antennæ; the eggs are borne on several of the legs, or, in Branchipus and Artemia, in a special brood-sac. The heart is unusually elongated. They are mostly comparatively small, though not microscopic. Apus may be over 2 inches in length, and the brine-shrimp measures about half an inch. The males are less frequent, and often appear to be absent through a series of generations. The young mostly begin at the lowest level of crustacean life, known as the Nauplius (q.v.) stage, and pass through striking metamorphoses. None of the Branchiopoda are marine; a few live in salt-lakes and brine-pools; the rest in fresh water, in pools, ponds, marshes, lakes, &c. Only a few (*Apus*, *Estheria*) are known as fossils. See CRUSTACEA, BRINE-SHRIMP.

Branchios'tomum. See AMPHIOXUS.

Branco, RIO, a river of Northern Brazil, which rises in the Parima Mountains, on the very borders of Venezuela; and after a southerly course of about 400 miles, it joins the Rio Negro, of which it is the principal tributary, on its way to the Amazon.

Brancursine, a French popular name introduced by old writers for *Acanthus mollis* (see ACANTHUS); also applied to the Cow-parsnip (*Heracleum sphondylium*).

Brand is the mark left upon the skins of cattle, often for the purpose of recognition by the owner, as in cattle-ranches in America, produced by searing with a hot iron; or a mark made in the same way on a cask or box for trade or excise purposes, hence the expression 'a good brand' of cigars, or the like (see FISHERIES, and TRADE MARKS). The Branding of criminals is a separate article. The name Brand is given to the fungoid diseases or blights of grain crops—Bunt (q.v.), Mildew, Rust, and Smut (q.v.)—and refers to the burnt appearance which characterises the diseases to which it is applied. See PLANTS (DISEASES OF).

Brand, JOHN, antiquary, born in Durham county, 19th August 1741, was apprenticed to a cordwainer in Newcastle, and educated at the grammar-school there. His industry raised up for him patrons, who sent him to Oxford, where he graduated B.A. in 1775. He had been ordained some years previously, and in 1784 he was presented to a rectory in the City of London; in the same year he was elected resident secretary of the Society of Antiquaries, to which office he was re-elected annually until his death, 11th September 1806. His *Observations on Popular Antiquities*, first

published in 1777, and edited with additions by Sir Henry Ellis (3 vols. 1813; new ed. by W. C. Hazlitt, 1870), is the best book on its subject in the English language.

Brandane. See BRENDAN.

Brande, WILLIAM THOMAS, chemist, born in London in 1788, was apprenticed to his brother, an apothecary, and studied chemistry at St George's Hospital. His first paper was read before the Royal Society in 1805, and he was elected a Fellow in 1809, having commenced lecturing on chemistry and physics the year before. In 1812 he was appointed professor of Chemistry to the Apothecaries' Company, and in 1813 succeeded Davy at the Royal Institution, where he was assisted by Faraday. He resigned in 1854, and was head of the coinage department of the Royal Mint until his death, 11th February 1866. He was a D.C.L. of Oxford, and published a *Manual of Chemistry* (1819; 6th ed. 1848), a *Dictionary of Materia Medica* (1839), and a *Dictionary of Science and Art* (1842; new ed. 1875).

Brandenburg, a central province of Prussia, formed the nucleus of the present monarchy, though the modern province does not quite correspond with the old *Mark* of Brandenburg, which included also parts of the province of Saxony and of Pomerania. Almost the whole province is a plain, so low that at Potsdam the surface of the river Havel is only about 15 English feet above the level of the sea. The ground becomes slightly hilly towards Silesia. In general, the soil is sandy and naturally unfruitful. Without its numerous rivers and canals, Brandenburg would be one of the most barren tracts on the Continent. The inhabitants are mostly Germans, mixed with French and Dutch colonists, who, however, are almost completely Germanised; and in the south of the province, with people of Wend extraction. Shipping, agriculture, and the rearing of cattle afford occupation for a considerable number. The chief manufactures are cotton, wool, linen, sugar, glass, tiles, and machinery. There are also numerous distilleries. The province is divided into the governments of Potsdam and Frankfurt—Berlin, which is the capital, forming a separate jurisdiction. Area, 15,410 sq. m.; pop. (exclusive of Berlin) in 1880, 2,266,651; in 1885, 2,342,411, of whom all but 68,343 Roman Catholics and 12,164 Jews belong to the Protestant Church. In the beginning of the Christian era, Brandenburg was inhabited by the Semnones, and afterwards by Slavonic tribes. In 927 Henry I. defeated the latter at the Elbe, and plundered their capital of Brennibor, afterwards raising the district into a *Mark* (q.v.). Albert the Bear (q.v.) became the first Markgraf in 1134, and Frederick of Nuremberg the first Elector in 1415. The Mark or Electorate became united with the duchy of Prussia in 1611, which, under the Great Elector, Frederick-William I., shook off the suzerainty of Poland in 1657, to become, under the Great Elector's son Frederick, in 1701, the kingdom of Prussia. See PRUSSIA.

Brandenburg, the ancient *Brennibor* of the Wends, 38 miles WSW. of Berlin. The Old Town and the New are on either side of the Havel; on an island in the river stand the castle and the cathedral (14th century), with a fine crypt. The manufactures include woollens, silks, hats, baskets, leather, and starch. Pop. (1885) 33,129.

Brandenburg, NEU. See NEUBRANDENBURG.

Brandes, GEORGE, a Danish literary critic of Jewish family, born 4th February 1842, in Copenhagen, where he graduated at the university in 1864. Several books on æsthetic and philosophic subjects brought on him a charge of scepticism, which was not removed by an epoch-making series

of lectures, delivered before large audiences, and published under the title, *The Great Tendencies of Nineteenth-century Literature* (1872-75); for his description of the later intellectual position of Europe, as broken away from the orthodoxy and romanticism of the beginning of the century, brought on him the bitter attacks of all the reactionary forces in Denmark. His *Danske Digtere*, a masterpiece of psychological analysis, appeared in 1877; but the hostility of his enemies induced him in the same year to leave Denmark, and settle in Berlin, where he published, among other works, critical biographies of Lassalle (1877), Esaias Tegnér (1878), and Lord Beaconsfield (1879). A lecture tour through Norway and Denmark brought a powerful party to his side, and in 1882 he returned to Copenhagen, his countrymen having guaranteed him an income of 4000 crowns, with the one stipulation that he should deliver public lectures on literature. His later works include *Den Romantiske Skole i Frankrig* (1882) and a biography of *Ludvig Holberg* (1885).

Branding has been practised from very early times. The Greeks marked their slaves with the *stigma*; in Rome, runaway slaves (*fugitivi*) and thieves (*fures*) were branded with the letter F; and the slaves who worked in the mines, and convicts condemned to the galleys or to the mines, were also branded on the forehead for identification. Constantine limited branding to the hand, arm, or calf; the face had been fashioned in the image of God, and was to be protected from such degradation. The Canon Law provided for this punishment, and in France, down to 1832, galley slaves were marked T F (*travaux forcés*); but in Germany it has never been recognised by the common law. Under the ancient law of England, branding was practised for various offences by the application of a hot iron, the end of which had the form which it was desired should be left imprinted on the skin. The famous Statute of Vagabonds under Edward VI. authorised the branding of the letter V on the breast of a runaway servant; and where such a servant had been sold, and afterwards escaped, he might be branded with the letter S on cheek and forehead as a slave. In the same reign, Brawling (q.v.) in church was punished by branding with the letter F on the cheek as a fraymaker. During the three centuries of persecution to which the Gypsies were subjected throughout Europe, this was a mild form of punishment; in 1636 some 'Egyptians' were sentenced at Haddington, 'the men to be hangit, and the women to be drowned; and such of the women as hes children to be scourgit throw the burgh and brunt in the cheekes.' In the time of Henry VII. branding had been substituted for ecclesiastical purgation in the case of all *clergiable* offences by burning on the hand (see *BENEFIT OF CLERGY*); and with a view still further to repress theft and petty larceny, it was provided in 1698 that such offenders as had the benefit of clergy allowed them should be 'burnt in the most visible part of the left cheek, nearest the nose.' This additional severity, however, had not the desired deterrent effect, and was repealed in 1707. Cold branding, or branding with cold irons, was a way of nominally inflicting the penalty. Branding was discontinued in the reign of George III., and finally done away with in 1829. Army 'branding' or 'marking' with the letter D. or B. C. (Deserter or Bad Character), by tattooing with needles and Indian ink, *not* by burning, was abolished in 1879.

Brandis, CHRISTIAN AUGUST, was born in 1790 at Hildesheim, and from 1822 till his death on 24th July 1867, was professor of Philosophy at Bonn,

except that during 1837-39 he was cabinet-counselor to the young king of Greece. With Bekker, he edited Aristotle, and he published two works on ancient philosophy. His son Johannes (1830-73) wrote on numismatics and Assyrian archaeology.

Branding. See PAR, and SALMON.

Brandon, a quaint old market-town, mostly on the Suffolk side of the Little Ouse, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles NW. of Thetford, and 86 NE. of London by rail. It has a considerable trade in corn and rabbit-furs. In the neighbourhood are the *Grimes Graves*, demonstrated by Canon Greenwell to be Neolithic flint-workings. Gun-flints are still made here, chiefly for the African market; and the continuity of this industry can be traced at Brandon in unbroken sequence to the early prehistoric periods, when the flint was excavated with stone tools and picks made of the antlers of the red deer. Pop. (1881) of parish, 2309.

Brandon, a place of growing importance in Manitoba, Canada, situated on the Canadian Pacific Railway, below the junction of the Assiniboine and Little Saskatchewan rivers, in a prolific wheat-growing district. It was founded in 1881, and in the following year had over 1500 houses. Pop. (1887) about 4000.

Brandt, SEBASTIAN, author of the *Narrenschiff*, or Ship of Fools, was born at Strasburg, 1458; studied law and the classics with zeal at Basel, where he received permission to teach; and soon became one of the most influential lecturers in that city. The Emperor Maximilian showed his regard for Brandt by appointing him an imperial councillor. He died at Strasburg in 1521. His *Ship of Fools*, a satire on the follies and vices of his times, which was published at Basel (1494), is not very poetical, but is full of sound sense and good moral teaching, and was so much esteemed that the German popular preacher Geiler occasionally took his texts from it. The best editions are by Zarneke (1854), and Goedeke (1872). It has appeared in almost every European language; it was translated into Latin by Locher (1497), and into English by Henry Watson, *The Grette Shyppe of Fools of the Worlde* (1517); partly translated and partly imitated by Alexander Barclay (q.v.), and imitated by W. H. Ireland in the *Modern Ship of Fools* (1807).

Brandy (Fr. *can de vie*) is a term properly restricted to the liquid obtained by distilling the fermented juice of the grape. The fermented liquors or wines which are employed for that purpose are various, and contain a proportion of Alcohol (q.v.), which runs from 10 to 25 per cent. of their weight. The red wines generally are preferred. In the 17th century, French brandy was made only from white wine. About 1000 gallons of wine give by distillation from 100 to 150 gallons of brandy, which varies in strength, but is generally diluted with water till it contains from 50 to 54 per cent. by weight of absolute alcohol. When originally distilled, brandy is clear and colourless, and if wished to remain so, is received and kept in glass vessels; but when placed in wooden casks, the spirit dissolves out the colouring matter of the wood, and acquires a light sherry tint, which may be deepened by burnt sugar and other colouring matter, intentionally added by the dealers. The pleasant aroma of brandy is due to the presence of more or less Fusel Oil (q.v.) accompanied by Enanthic Ether (q.v.), derived from a volatile oil in the husk of the grape. The most famous brandy is that distilled in the country round Cognac, in Charente, in the west of France, from the choicest wines, but comparatively little of that sold under the name of *Cognac* comes from this district. *Armagnac* is the brandy of another district. Since the vines of

France have suffered from oidium, phylloxera, and mildew, only a very small proportion of what is imported and sold as Cognac is made from wine, or even from cider, grape refuse, wine lees, and fruit. A British consular report from La Rochelle in 1887 affirms that most French houses (except a few of the most respectable) import potato-spirit in large quantities from Germany, and re-ship it to England as French brandy; beetroot-spirit is also much used; the coarse spirit being flavoured with ananthic ether, with Cognac oil (made from palm oil), the essential oil distilled from husks of the grape, and other flavouring matters. From 500,000 to 700,000 gallons of brandy are annually distilled in Portugal, almost exclusively from white grapes (which contain more alcohol than red ones), and a small quantity is also made from grape refuse (*marc*). To produce 1 gallon of this brandy, 5 to 7½ gallons of wine are required. This brandy contains 75 per cent. of absolute alcohol (33 over proof of Sykes); and is principally used in checking fermentation in wine-making, and in preserving the sweetness of Portuguese wine. Some of the brandy sold in Great Britain and Ireland is prepared at home from ordinary grain-alcohol, by adding thereto Argol (q.v.), bruised French plums, some French wine-vinegar, a little good Cognac, and redistilling. The Germans use the name *Branntwein* for all kinds of grain-spirit, or that distilled from plums, blue-berries, &c. *Kirschwasser* or *kirschbranntwein* is distilled from cherries and their kernels. In England, *cherry-brandy* is brandy in which cherries have been steeped and preserved. In the United States, brandy is also made from cherries, apples, pears, and peaches; and the States export much common whisky to France, which is reimported as brandy. Brandy is frequently administered as a stimulant, and in cases of suspended animation, exhaustion, and in mild diarrhoea. It may be used externally for checking hemorrhage, and for hardening tender skin. See ALCOHOL (USES OF), DISTILLATION, WINE.

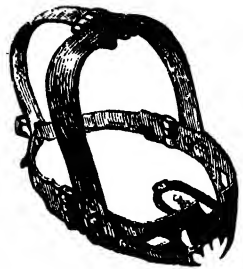
The duty on brandy imported into Great Britain, which from 1814 had been as high as 22s. 10d. a gallon, was reduced in 1846 to 15s., and in 1860 to 8s. 2d., but was soon afterwards raised to 10s. 5d., and remained at this till June 1881, when it was reduced to 10s. 4d. The consumption in the United Kingdom from 1822 to 1862 averaged about 1,400,000 gallons; and for the ten years ending December 31, 1887, 3,058,987 gallons. The import in 1885 was 2,780,122 proof gallons; in 1886, 3,139,022; and in 1887, 2,830,916.

Brandywine Creek, a stream rising in Chester county, Pennsylvania, flowing with a general south-easterly course into Delaware, and emptying into Christiana Creek at the city of Wilmington. During the War of Independence, a battle was fought on its banks, September 11, 1777, in which 13,000 Americans, under Washington, were defeated by a force of 18,000 British, under Lord Howe.

Brank, or **BRANKS**, an instrument formerly used for the punishment of scolds in England and Scotland, and often in the former country called 'the scold's bridle,' or 'gossip's bridle.' It seems in England to have come in place of the ducking-stool or Cucking-stool (q.v.), and is said to be of Scotch origin; but according to Mr Llewellynn Jewitt it was never a *legalised* instrument of punishment, although corporations and lords of the manor in England, and town-councils, kirk-sessions, and barony courts in Scotland, exercised the right of inflicting such punishment. Men were put in the stocks or pillory, women in the branks, for such petty misdemeanours as are now described as breaches

of the peace, using abusive, insulting, or threatening language, cursing and swearing, and contumacy. The brank in its simplest form is a hoop of iron,

opening by hinges at the sides, so as to inclose the head, and fastened by a staple with a padlock at the back; a plate within the front of the hoop projecting inwards, so as to fit into the mouth of the culprit, and by pressing upon the tongue, be an effectual gag. In some instances this mouth-plate was armed with a knife or point which cut the tongue if moved. In its last most complicated shape, the brank, by the



Branks.

multiplication of its hoops and bands, took the form of a conical cage or lantern, the front taking the shape of a rude mask, with holes for mouth, nose, and eyes; in one instance, the mask quite covers the face. With this cage upon her head the unfortunate woman was paraded through the streets by the bellman, beadle, or constable, or was chained to the market cross, a target for ridicule and insult. When the brank first came into use is unknown. It is found at Edinburgh in 1567, at Glasgow in 1574 and 1596, at Stirling in 1600, at Macclesfield in Cheshire in 1623, at Newcastle-on-Tyne in 1655, Worcester in 1658, Congleton in 1662, at Chesterfield, the only instance in Derbyshire, in 1688. Cheshire had thirteen examples extant in 1660. An old description of the Isle of Man mentions the tongue of a scandalous person being tied with a noose of leather called a bridle. One brank in the church of Walton-on-Thames, in Surrey, has the date of 1633. In another, called 'the witches' bridle of Forfar,' dated 1661, the gag for the mouth is not a flat plate, but a long piece of iron with three sharp spikes. A brank at Stockport was somewhat of the same description. Of examples in private custody in England, one had the date of 1688, the other the crowned cipher of King William III., and another had a mask with apertures for the eyes, a prominence to fit the nose, and a long funnel-shaped peak projecting from the mouth. The brank was used at Langholm, in Dumfriesshire, in 1772; at Morpeth in 1741; it was used at a later date at Manchester and at Macclesfield; and at Bolton-le-Moors, in Lancashire, the iron bridle was in use up to 1856 for the correction of immorality. Examples of the brank may be seen in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, in the National Museum of the Antiquaries of Scotland at Edinburgh, at Abbotsford, in the county-hall at Forfar, in the Guildhall at Lichfield, at Leicester, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Shrewsbury, in the town-hall at Macclesfield, in the parish church of Walton in Surrey, and in St Mary's Church at St Andrews in Fife; Chester has four examples. Brank was at one time a common name in Scotland for any sort of bridle, and the word is so used by Burns. The word is derived from the Gaelic *brangus*, an instrument for punishing petty offences, *brang*, a halter, words cognate with the Dutch *pranger*, pincers, and the German *pranger*, a pillory. See the paper by Llewellynn Jewitt, F.S.A., 'Scolds; and How they Cured them in the "Good Old Times,"' in *Reliquary*, vol. i. (1860-61); also notes in vol. xiii. (1872-73); and Andrew's *Punishments in the Olden Times*. See JOGS.—The affection called *Mumps* (q.v.), causing a swelling about the jaws or neck, is in Scotland vulgarly known as the *branks*.

Brant, JOSEPH, chief of the Mohawk Indians, born in 1742, fought on the side of the British in the Indian and Revolutionary wars. In the latter he headed several fierce raids against the colonists, but was equally zealous afterwards in exerting his immense influence to bring about a general Indian peace. In later years an earnest Christian, he translated the Gospel of St Mark and the English Prayer-book into Mohawk, and in 1786 visited England to raise funds for the erection of the first Episcopal church in Canada. He died 24th November 1807. He was a brave warrior, a sagacious leader, loyal to his friends, and merciful to his captives. A monument to Brant, surmounted by a colossal bronze statue, was unveiled at Brantford in 1886.

Brantford, a town and port of entry of Brant county, Ontario, 24 miles SW. of Hamilton by rail, on the Grand River, which is navigable to within 2½ miles of the town, from which point a canal affords a waterway to Lake Erie. There are manufactures of metal and stoneware, machinery, and agricultural implements. Pop. 9016.

Brantôme, PIERRE DE BOURDEILLES, SEIGNEUR DE, one of the most notable of French memoir-writers, was born about 1540 in the province of Périgord. The exact date and place of his birth are unknown. He was the third son of François, Comte de Bourdailles, and was educated at Paris and at Poitiers. In his sixteenth year the abbacy of Brantôme was bestowed on him by Henry II., but he never took orders, and spent most of his life as a courtier and free-lance. In 1561 he accompanied Mary Stuart on her journey from France to Holyrood, and in 1565 he joined the expedition sent to Malta to assist the Knights of St John against the sultan. He served in Italy under the Maréchal de Brissac, in Africa under the Spaniards, and in Hungary as a volunteer against the Turks. He was made chamberlain to Charles IX. and Henry III., and took part against the Huguenots in the religious wars of his time. About 1594 he began to write his memoirs, and thenceforth lived in retirement until his death on the 15th of July 1614. His works were not published until 1659. They comprise *Vies des Grands Capitaines Étrangers et Français*, *Vies des Dames Galantes*, and *Vies des Dames Illustres*. Their literary merit and historical interest are very considerable. Their matter is often of the most scandalous description, but they give a wonderfully vivid and faithful picture of their author's times. Brantôme depicts the corrupt court society with the most complacent frankness; he writes as if he were immoralised rather than demoralised. He had a keen eye for character; the men and women who appear in his crowded, brightly-coloured pictures have each a lifelike, sharply-marked individuality. His style is easy, lively, and picturesque. There are editions of Brantôme by Lacour and Merimée (3 vols. 1859), and by Lalanne (10 vols. 1865-81).

Brash. See PYROSIS.

Brasidas, the greatest Spartan general in the earlier years of the Peloponnesian war. Already in 431 B.C. he had distinguished himself by the courage with which he relieved the town of Methone from a hostile attack, for which he was made one of the chief-magistrates of Sparta. In 424 he relieved Megara, and he was no less successful through combined diplomacy and military skill in his expedition to Macedonia, the same year, for the purpose of seducing the cities from their allegiance to Athens. His greatest acquisition was Amphipolis. Here in 422 he had to encounter with a handful of helots and mercenaries, the flower of the Athenian army under Cleon. In

the battle both generals were killed, but the army of the Athenians was completely beaten. He was buried at Amphipolis within the walls, and for long after his death his memory was honoured as that of a hero by the celebration of yearly sacrifices and games. Thucydides speaks of the eloquence of Brasidas, so unusual in a Spartan, as well as his justice, liberality, and wisdom; while Plato compares him to Achilles.

Brass. In ancient history, biblical and profane, frequent allusions are made to the employment of brass in the construction of musical instruments, vessels, implements, ornaments, and even gates; but as no mention is made of its mode of manufacture, or even of its composition, it is doubtful if the brass of the ancients, with the exception of some made by the Romans, was composed of copper and zinc. Dr Percy (*Metal-lurgy of Copper*, Murray, 1861) concludes, from the analysis of some of their coins, that the ancient Romans were well acquainted with the art of preparing brass, in the sense of an alloy of copper and zinc. However this may be, it was bronze, and to some extent iron, not ordinary brass, that was all but universally used by them for metal objects other than those made of gold and silver. Zinc does not appear to have been known as a separate metal in Europe till the 16th century; but no doubt one or more of its ores might have been employed by the Romans along with copper to prepare brass.

The term brass is commonly understood to mean an alloy of copper and zinc of a more or less yellow colour. Bronze (q.v.), on the other hand, means an alloy of copper and tin. But there is now a tendency to make brass a generic term, so as to include bronze as well as alloys of copper and lead. In this way, under one general name, there would be a zinc, a tin, and a lead group of alloys. For the tin group, see BRONZE.

ZINC GROUP (W. Graham)—

Pinchbeck brass.....	4	of copper to 1 of zinc.
Dutch brass (Dutch metal).....	3	" 1 "
Yellow brass.....	2	" 1 "
Pale brass.....	1.75	" 1 "
Ship sheathing brass (Muntz's metal).....	1.60	" 1 "

LEAD GROUP (W. Graham)

Steeplecock metal.....	4	parts of copper, 1 of lead, and 1 of zinc, and 4 of tin.
"	2	parts of copper, 1 of lead, and 1 of tin.
Tap and pot metals. Various proportions, from	to	1 part of copper to 1 of lead.

A tough brass for engine-work can be made of copper 6½, tin 1, and zinc 1; and another kind for very heavy bearings of copper 6½, tin 1, and zinc ½ (Spretson).

As a rule, brass is easily fusible and also very malleable and ductile. Therefore it can be readily cast into moulds, rolled into sheets, hammered or stamped into various shapes, and drawn into wire. It is likewise of a pleasing colour. Brass is harder, and so stands wear better than copper, resists atmospheric influences as well, and is cheaper than that metal. These valuable properties render it next in importance to iron and steel in the metallurgical arts. The malleability of brass, however, varies with its composition, with the temperature, and with the presence, even in minute quantities, of foreign metals. Some kinds are malleable only while cold, others only while hot, and there are varieties wanting in this property at any temperature. All kinds become brittle if heated well up to their fusing-point.

Brass is more tenacious than any of the common metals except iron, steel, and copper. But if subjected to a continuous tension for some length of time, it undergoes, in many cases at least, a molecular change, and loses its tenacity. It is therefore

not quite safe to hang pictures with heavy frames or weights of any kind on brass chains or wire. The surface of this metal, if not protected by lacquer, soon tarnishes and becomes black.

The old process of making brass by mixing small bits of copper with powdered zinc ore, and heating the mixture in pots in a furnace, is now almost obsolete. The modern way of preparing it is by mixing metallic zinc directly with copper in crucibles or in a reverberatory or cupola furnace. There is least waste with crucibles. The copper is first melted, and the zinc then added in a hot state, care being required to prevent much loss by the latter volatilising. When other metals are added they are also heated first.

From the crucibles the molten brass is either poured into moulds to form ingots for remelting, or more commonly into ordinary sand moulds prepared from patterns (see **FOUNDING**). Brass takes a sharp impression when cast in a mould. Plates or slabs for rolling into sheets are cast between two marble blocks thinly lined with loam, the sides and ends being made up with sand. These are reduced by 'breaking-down rollers,' and afterwards by other rollers, till they become of the required thickness. As is the case with tube and wire drawing, these sheets are annealed at intervals during the process of rolling. See **ANNEALING**.

Ordinary drawn brass tubes are soldered longitudinally, but the tubes for locomotive boilers are formed by drawing out a solid cylinder of brass. This was looked upon as a great feat, when the process, after many trials, first succeeded in 1838.

The industries which either wholly or partially depend upon brass for their raw material, so to speak, are so numerous and so varied, that even the more important of them would form a considerable list. Birmingham is the headquarters of these industries, but they are spread all over the civilised world. See **ROLLING-MILL**, **STAMPING**, **WIRE-DRAWING**.

Brasses, MONUMENTAL, large plates of brass, or of the mixed metal called *latten* or *laton*, inlaid on slabs of stone, and usually forming part of the pavement of a church. The figure of the person intended to be commemorated was generally represented either by the form of the brass itself, or by lines engraven on it. Such, however, was not always the case, an ornamented or foliated cross, with other sacred emblems, being frequently substituted for the figure. Nor was the practice of imbedding them in the pavement uniform, as we sometimes find them elevated on what were called altar-tombs. The incised lines on these brasses were occasionally filled up with *niello*, and in the case of armorial decorations and the like, the field or background was often cut out by the chisel, and filled up with some species of coarse enamel, by which means the appropriate tinctures were produced. In England, the brass was usually of the form of the figure, the polished slab forming the ground, and the ornaments, arms, inscription, &c. were also inserted each as a separate piece. On the Continent, where the metal was more abundant, the brasses were one long unbroken surface, formed of plates soldered together, on which were engraved all the objects represented, the portions of the plate not so occupied being ornamented by elaborate flower-work. Brasses are known to have been used for monumental purposes from an early period, though there are no existing traces of them in England previous to the middle of the 13th century. There is reason to think that, if not imported from France, they were at first executed by French artists, but as no example of a brass exists now in France, it is impossible to establish this. Subsequently the art took root in England,

and English brasses, like English architecture, acquired a distinctive national character. The oldest complete specimen in England is that on the monument of Sir John d'Aubernoun, at Stoke d'Abernon, in Surrey. The knight died in 1277, and it is probable that the brass was executed shortly after that date. Next in antiquity are those of Sir Roger de Trumpington, who died in 1289, and of Sir Richard de Buslingthorpe, 1290; the former at Trumpington in Cambridgeshire, the latter at Buslingthorpe in Lincolnshire. In addition to the interest which they possess from their age, these brasses are remarkable as being still unsurpassed in the beauty of the workmanship and the spirit of the design. In the following century (1325), on the brass of Sir John de Creke, at Westley Waterless, in Cambridgeshire, the artist's



Inlaid brass Monument of Eleanor Bohun, Duchess of Gloucester (about 1400).

mark is affixed by a stamp—a fact which has been regarded as a proof that his craft had attained to some importance, and that his services were pretty frequently called into requisition. But in this case, as in every other, with one exception, the name of the artist has perished. The exceptional case is that of the brass which once covered the tomb of Bishop Philip, in the church of the Jacobins at Evreux, in Normandy, where the inscription ended with the words, 'Guillaume de Plalli me fecit.' Some of the brasses executed in England in the 14th century are probably Flemish; and in the churches at Bruges some exist which appear to be by the same hand as others which are found in England. But England is the only country which now possesses a series of brasses fairly representative of the different periods,

and exhibiting the characteristics of a national style. Very few brasses are to be found in Wales, and there are only two on record in Ireland, and three in Scotland, the latter being merely inscribed plates with emblematic devices of late 16th-century work. There can be but little question that for this, as for most of the other departments of the arts, which were afterwards successfully cultivated in England, we were indebted to continental artists. Nor will it surprise those who know the results of recent archaeological investigations in similar subjects, to learn that the artists of France and Flanders in their turn were debtors to those of the worn-out empire of the East. As in painting, sculpture, and architecture itself, so in the art of working in brass, the sparks of antique genius which smouldered in Byzantium were the means of kindling the fires of genius which afterwards burned so brightly in modern Europe. See Cotman's *Sepulchral Brasses in Norfolk* (1819), Bontell's *Monumental Brasses of England* (1849), Haines' *Manual of Monumental Brasses* (1861), and Greeny's *Monumental Brasses of the Continent of Europe* (1884).

Brassey, THOMAS, the great railway-contractor, was born, a farmer's son, at Buerton near Chester, 7th November 1805, was educated at Chester, articled to a land-surveyor, and in 1826 had charge of a business in this line at Birkenhead. In 1834 he obtained, through George Stephenson, contracts for a viaduct on the Grand Junction line. Settling in London in 1836 he turned his great energies and business ability into his profession as a railway-contractor, for which the development of the railway-system presented a good opening. His operations soon extended to all parts of the world. Amongst his chief contracts were the Great Northern Railway (1847-51), when he had in his employment between 5000 and 6000 men; as also French, Italian, Canadian, Australian, and Indian railways. He died at Hastings 8th December 1870. See Helps's *Life and Labours of Brassey* (1872).—**BARON THOMAS BRASSEY**, eldest son of the preceding, was born at Stafford in 1836, and called to the bar in 1866. He was elected for Devonport in 1865, and afterwards represented Hastings (1868-86). As Civil Lord of the Admiralty (1880), and Secretary (1884), his influence has been felt in naval questions, and he is author of several works on seamanship and naval affairs. He was made K.C.B. in 1880, and was raised to the peerage in 1886. He is a veteran yachtsman; and Lady Brassey's pleasant records of their yacht voyage round the world in 1876-77, and of succeeding trips of the *Sunbeam*, were widely popular. She died on the homeward voyage from Australia, 14th September 1887, and was buried at sea. Lord Brassey is author of *Work and Wages* (1872), *British Seamen* (1877), *The Eastern Question* (1878), *Foreign Work and English Wages* (1879), *The British Navy* (5 vols. 1882-83), &c.

Brassica, the turnip and cabbage genus of Cruciferae (q.v.), contains, when we include the mustards (Sinapis) as a sub-genus, about 100 species, all palaearctic. The Wild Cabbage (*B. oleracea*) occurs on the west and south coasts of England, Ireland, and the Continent, particularly on sea-cliffs. The cultivated forms are of great economic importance, and are enumerated by Hooker as varieties: (a) *acephala* (Scotch kale, cow-cabbage, borecole, see KALE); (b) *bulleata* (savoy); (c) *gemmifera* (Brussels Sprouts, q.v.); (d) *capitata* (red and white cabbage, see CABBAGE); (e) *caulorapa* (Kohlrabi, q.v.); (f) *botrytis* (Cauliflower and Broccoli, q.v.). The Turnip (*B. campestris* [*polymorpha*]) has also many annual or biennial varieties: of these *B. campestris* proper

is cultivated as the Swedish turnip. *B. campestris*, sub-species *Rapa*, is the common Turnip (q.v.); and the sub-species *Napus* is the rape or coleseed. The Isle of Man Cabbage (*B. monensis*) occurs on sandy shores, and its cultivation in such soils has accordingly been suggested as fodder for cattle. For the sub-genus *Sinapis*, see MUSTARD.

Brathwaite, RICHARD, minor poet, was born in Westmoreland about 1588; entered Oriel College, Oxford, at sixteen; passed afterwards to Cambridge, Pembroke College most likely, and thence to London, where he tells us he devoted himself to poetry and play-writing. In 1611 he published *The Golden Fleecce*, a collection of poems, and in 1614 three works, one of them a book of pastorals, entitled *The Poet's Willow*. In 1615 he published the collection of satires, *A Strappado for the Devil*, in imitation of *The Abuses Whipt and Stript* of George Wither, his 'bonnie brother.' After his first marriage, Brathwaite lived the life of a country gentleman in Westmoreland, and after his second in Yorkshire, without, however, ceasing his literary activity. He died near Richmond, in Yorkshire, in 1673. Of his numerous books, the only one that remains to be mentioned is *Barnaby Ranicurium*, or *Barnaby's Journal*, published in 1638 under the pseudonym 'Corymbæus.' Often reprinted under the title of 'Drunken Barnaby's Four Journeys,' this lively book in rhymed Latin and doggerel English verse was popular in the 18th century, and had the honour of an eleventh edition in 1876. With the seventh edition, edited by Joseph Haslewood in 1818, its authorship was first made known. See the life and bibliography, forming a preface to Haslewood's ninth edition (1820).

Brattleboro, a post-village of Windham county, Vermont, 110 miles S. of Montpelier by rail, on the Connecticut River, which is here crossed by a bridge. Organs, carriages, furniture, and machinery are manufactured. Pop. (1880) 4471; (1888) about 7000.

Brauer, ADRIAN. See BROUWER.

Braun, ALEXANDER, born at Ratisbon in 1805, was professor of Botany at Berlin from 1852 till his death, 29th March 1877. He did special service in the departments of the morphology of plants, systematisation, and the lower cryptogams. See his *Life* by Mettenius (Berlin, 1882).

Braun, AUGUST EMIL, archaeologist, born at Gotha in 1809, studied at Göttingen and Munich, and in 1833 went to Rome, where in a short time he was made secretary to the Archaeological Institute. He wrote many valuable works on art and mythology in German and Italian. Of these the most important are his *Vorschule der Kunstmythologie* (1854), and an admirable guide-book, *Die Ruinen und Museen Roms* (1854), both of which have been translated into English. He died in Rome, September 12, 1856.

Braunsberg, a town of East Prussia, on the navigable Passarge, 8 miles from its mouth, and 38 miles SW. of Königsberg by rail. It contains a Catholic seminary and gymnasium, and manufactures machinery, felt, and leather goods. A considerable trade is carried on in yarn, grain, flax, and ship-timber. Pop. (1885) 10,759.

Bravo ('excellent!' 'well done!'), an Italian exclamation of praise, the superlative form of which is *Bravissimo!* It is commonly used in England without distinction of number or gender; but the Italians say *bravo!* to a male singer or actor, *brava!* to a lady, and *bravi!* to a company of actors or singers.

Bravoos were those persons in Italy, but especially in Venice, who undertook to perform

any dangerous deeds for money. The name is now employed chiefly to designate hired assassins.

Bravura, an Italian word, in music applied to a composition as well as style of performance. As a composition, the bravura is a florid air or song, with many difficult and rapid passages, requiring great spirit and dexterity of execution. The intention of merely astonishing by execution has been carried to such an extent that it has brought this species of composition into undeserved discredit. The compositions of Mozart, for instance, give abundant proofs of how true artistic merit may be united with the bravura style.

Brawling in Churches, in the law of England, was an old statutory offence in the ecclesiastical courts. If it was committed by words only, the bishop might exclude a lay offender from church, and might suspend a priest. In more serious cases excommunication and branding were the punishment. Anglican priests may still be punished for such conduct by their own courts; but the riotous, violent, or indecent conduct of laymen in any place used for religious worship is dealt with by the ordinary criminal courts.

Brawn (M.E., 'muscle,' 'boar's flesh; ' akin to Ger. *braten*, 'to roast'), a preparation of meat made from pig's head and ox-feet, cut up, boiled, pickled, and prepared into a shape. The brawn of Wiltshire is celebrated, and it is also a famous dish in Canterbury.

Braxy, or **SICKNESS**, is a name loosely used to indicate a disease in sheep; but in different parts of the country totally different disorders are included under this head. Of the two most generally recognised as braxy, the one is an intestinal affection attended with obstinate diarrhoea; the other is a blood disease, and the result of plethora or fullness of blood. The second, which is spoken of by the better informed shepherds as the true braxy, may best be described here, and is most usually seen in hogs or sheep a year old. The disease is most prevalent during the months of October, November, and December, and occurs almost as an epidemic after a dry summer which is followed by an autumn aftergrowth. It also occurs among hogs which have been removed from a poor pasture into turnips or rich succulent grass. The sudden alterations of diet cause irritation of the stomach and bowels, which is followed by the generation of gases, and acute inflammation of them, resulting in sudden death. It also occurs in hogs which are in very high condition, and whose digestive systems have been so overworked that they cease acting; and as a consequence, gases are generated in the bowels and stomach, and inflammation following, death quickly ensues.

The majority of cases are found dead, but in the few which have been noticed during life, the following symptoms have been observed: loss of appetite, walking with an arched back, short steps, signs of pain, hurried breathing, swelling of the abdomen, then convulsions and death. Putrefaction sets in almost before death. After death the flesh appears of a dark-red colour, and the veins are charged with dark blood, but, on the whole, the body of the sheep looks so well that the mountain-shepherd cuts it up to make 'braxy mutton.' The bowels are found much inflamed and filled with gases, but there are no other special symptoms than the above to indicate the disease.

In the second form of braxy, chronic indigestion is induced by bad, unwholesome, non-nutritious foods, which cause constipation, dropsy of the dew-lap, limbs, and abdomen, and terminates in death from bloodlessness, or in other words, starvation.

The prevention of the disease alone affords hope, and it consists in regulating the animal's diet, to prevent sudden transitions from low to rich keep; to mix food so as to modify the action of the more highly nitrogenous kinds; and to check the development of plethora or fullness of blood by saline purgatives and diuretics, such as Epsom and Glauber salts or nitre.

Bray, a small Berkshire parish, near Maidenhead, of which Simon Aleyn was vicar from 1540 to 1588, during the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. He kept his vicarage by changing his faith according to that of the state for the time being, becoming a Protestant with Henry, Catholic again in the reign of Mary, and Protestant again on the accession of Elizabeth. His principle was to live and die vicar of Bray, and to it he adhered. The modern ballad, *In Good King Charles's Golden Days*, makes the versatile vicar live in the reigns of Charles II., James II., William III., Anne, and George I.

Bray, a seaside town, partly in Dublin county, but chiefly in Wicklow, 13 miles SE. of Dublin by rail. The beauty of its situation has raised it from a small fishing-village to a watering-place, popularly known as the 'Irish Brighton,' with well-built houses, and an esplanade a mile long, hotels, and Turkish baths. Pop. (1881) 6090.

Bray is a district of Normandy, now the south-eastern part of Seine-Inférieure, famous for its cattle and dairy produce.

Bray, ANNA ELIZA (*née* Kempe), author, was born in London, 25th December 1790, and was intended for the stage, but in 1818 married the artist, Charles Alfred Stothard (1786-1821). In 1825 she married the Rev. E. A. Bray (1778-1857), vicar of Tavistock; and after his death she settled in London, where she died, 21st January 1883. Between 1820 and 1874 she published a score of romances, books of travel, and other works, the best being *The Borders of the Tamar and the Tivy* (1836; 2d ed. 1879); *Life of Thomas Stothard, R.A.* (1851); and *A Peep at the Pixies* (1854). Her Autobiography was edited by Mr Kempe in 1884, in which year also appeared a 12 vol. edition of her romances.

Bray, THOMAS, divine and philanthropist, born at Marton, in Shropshire, in 1656. From Oswestry School he passed to All Souls, Oxford, where he graduated in 1678. In 1690 he was presented to the rectory of Sheldon, and here he wrote part of his *Catechetical Lectures*, which brought him a wide reputation. Soon after he was selected to act as the Bishop of London's commissary in Maryland in the settlement of the church there. Not being able to start at once, he devoted himself with characteristic energy to a scheme for establishing parochial libraries in England and America, and had such success that before his death eighty had been founded in England and thirty-nine in America. Out of his library scheme grew the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; and he may also be regarded as the founder of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. About the close of 1699 he sailed for Maryland, but in 1706 returned to England to accept the living of St Botolph Without, Aldgate, where he laboured with the utmost devotion. He died February 15, 1730.

Brayera. See CUSSO.

Brazil, the largest state of South America, and the third largest political division of the Western Continent, is greater in area than European Russia, Austria-Hungary, Germany, France, Norway and Sweden, Denmark, Italy, and Greece together. It extends from 4° 30' N. to 33° S. lat., and

from 35° to 73° W. long., having a length of 2660 miles, and a breadth of 2705 miles between extreme points (*Carta Geral*, 1883). Its coast-line extends from Cape Orange on the north to Rio Chuy on the south, a distance of nearly 4000 miles. It borders on every state in South America except Chili, but the boundary lines with some of them are still in dispute. The area of Brazil, estimated by some as high as 3,288,000, is more likely about 3,219,000 sq. m. (3,219,134, *Carta Geral*), or nearly one-half of the South American continent.

Physical Features.—Brazil is a triangular-shaped country, occupying the eastern angle of the continent. It lies almost wholly within the tropics, and is still in great part unexplored and unsettled. On the north and west are the great depressions of the Amazon and Paraguay rivers, which comprise large areas of flood-plains and swamps, heavily wooded, and almost uninhabitable. The upper coast is bordered by low, alluvial bottom-lands and sandy plains, full of lakes, and in places very sterile; while the southern angle of the country is rolling *campo* land, bordered by a low sandy coast. Above its eastern angle a large area of coast-lands and neighbouring plateau is subject to periodical devastating droughts. The interior of the country, however, is a high plateau, with a general elevation of 1000 to 3000 feet, irregularly ridged by mountains and deeply cut by large rivers. The mountainous ranges of the maritime system form the eastern margin of this plateau, the easternmost of which is known as the Serra do Mar. This range plays an important part in the development of Brazil, for it is a costly barrier to communication with the interior, and turns nearly all the great rivers inland to find outlets through the distant Amazon and La Plata. To the west of the maritime system the elevated tablelands of the Paraná and San Francisco make great bay-like indentations in the northern and southern margins of the mountainous area, nearly uniting about the head-waters of the latter. To the westward of these plains there is a second range, nearly parallel with the maritime system, constituting the mountains of Goyaz. To the westward of these come the great elevated plains of the Amazonian and Upper Paragnayan regions. The mountains are composed almost exclusively of uplifted strata of great geological age, gneiss and metamorphic schists, with granite and other eruptive rocks. The great elevated plains are composed of horizontal strata dating from the Silurian age, so profoundly modified by the deep excavations of the valleys that this part of the country is generally, but erroneously, represented as mountainous. Brazil possesses three great river-systems—the Amazon, La Plata, and San Francisco. The Amazon and its tributaries drain fully a half of the country. To the east of the Madeira these tributaries are tableland rivers, broken by rapids and freely navigable for comparatively short distances. West of the Madeira they are lowland rivers, sluggish, bordered by extensive flood-plains, and afford free navigation for long distances. The La Plata system drains nearly one-fifth of the country through its three branches—the Paraguay, Paraná, and Uruguay. The first of these is a lowland river, freely navigable for a long distance, while the other two are tableland rivers, full of obstructions, and without free outlets for their upper-level navigation. The San Francisco is a tableland river, flowing north-east between the Goyaz and maritime mountains, and then, breaking through the latter, south-east to the Atlantic. Its tributaries are comparatively short, and nearly disappear along the lower river in the region of slight rainfall. It is not freely navigable because of the Paulo Affonso Falls. The other coast-rivers are

generally short, the longest being the Parahyba, and have but little utility for navigation. The climate of Brazil varies greatly—the lowlands of the Amazon and a great part of the coast being hot, humid, and unhealthy, while the tablelands and some districts of the coast swept by the trade-winds are temperate and healthy. See AMAZON, AMERICA.

The vegetation of Brazil is luxuriant and varied. The vast forests of the Amazon contain hundreds of species of trees, draped and festooned by climbing plants, lianas, orchids, &c. Rosewood, Brazil-wood, and others supply valuable timber; tropical fruits are abundant, and other products are noted in the section on commerce. The number of species of animals is also very large, but the individuals in each are comparatively few. Beasts of prey are the jaguar, puma, tiger-cat, and ocelot; the other animals include the monkey, tapir, capybara, peccary, ant-eater, sloth, and boa-constrictor. Alligators, turtles, porpoises, and manatees swarm in the Amazon; and among birds, the parrots and humming-birds are especially numerous.

Population.—The population of Brazil, according to the census of 1872, was 9,930,478 of all races and classes, not including about 250,000 wild Indians. As immigration has been small, and the rate of mortality is very large, the annual rate of increase since then has probably not exceeded 1½ per cent., which gives an approximate population of 12,165,000 at the close of 1887. The proportion of non-producers is very large, the natural conditions of the country rendering labour but slightly necessary to meet the ordinary requirements of life. The institution of slavery has had much to do with this state of things, by degrading manual labour, and making idleness respectable. The African slave-trade was prohibited in 1831, but did not actually cease until 1854. In 1871 a gradual emancipation law was adopted, which declared the children born thereafter of slave mothers to be free, but obliged to serve the mother's master until the age of twenty-one years. It also provided for a fund with which to liberate slaves by purchase. The number of slaves registered in 1873 under this law was 1,540,796. Through the operations of the fund 30,014 slaves had been ransomed up to the beginning of 1887, at a total cost of Rs.19,694,079\$ (*milreis*), to which the slaves contributed Rs.1,614,405\$ from their own savings. The number of slaves voluntarily liberated and ransomed through private efforts was very large, and two provinces (Ceará and Amazonas) had been declared entirely free. In 1885 a second law was adopted, providing for a new registry, declaring all sexagenarians free, but with obligatory service until the age of sixty-five years, and fixing an official valuation on all slaves, to prevent further abuses of the emancipation fund. The official returns of the registry under this law (closed March 31, 1887) gave 723,419; the number of sexagenarians liberated was about 100,000, and the number enrolled for obligatory service under the law was 18,946. Finally, by the law of 13th May 1888, immediate and unconditional emancipation was decreed, although Brazil had been unable wholly to replace the system of slave labour. Immigrant labour was still limited, the poorer rural population was both untrained and opposed to habits of industry, and the labour of freed slaves had hitherto been utilised only to a limited extent. Recent events, however, have proved that kind treatment and good pay will keep a very large percentage of the freedmen on the plantations.

The Roman Catholic is the established religion, and is supported by the state; but all other sects are tolerated. There are, however, less than 30,000 non-Catholics in the country. Education is com-

pulsory in several provinces, but is still in a very backward condition; 84 per cent. of the population was returned as illiterate at the last census. The language is Portuguese, with dialectal varieties, discussed by Vasconcellos in *O dialecto Brasileiro* (Oporto, 1883); and the literature, which dates back to the 16th century, will fall to be noticed under PORTUGUESE.

Government.—The government of Brazil is a constitutional monarchy whose executive governs through a cabinet of seven members—empire, finance, war, marine, justice, foreign affairs, and agriculture—and through a president in each of the twenty provinces of the empire. The imperial capital, Rio de Janeiro, constitutes an independent municipality. The executive power is vested in the emperor and his cabinet, the legislative in a General Assembly of two houses—the Senate and Chamber of Deputies—and the judicial in a council of state (advisory only), a supreme tribunal, twelve district courts, and the usual subordinate courts. The crown is hereditary, irresponsible, and is vested with the rights of veto and pardon. The annual appropriation for the emperor is 800,000 milreis (or £80,000). The Senate is composed of sixty life members representing provinces, each chosen by the crown from a list of three members elected by the people. The Chamber of Deputies is at present composed of 125 members, representing districts, and elected directly by popular vote for a term of four years. The senators receive an annual salary of £900, and the deputies £600, with travelling expenses. The chamber may be dissolved by the crown and new elections ordered. The right of suffrage is based on a property qualification, but is so restricted and involved that the voting population of the whole empire barely numbers 150,000. The legislative sessions are held annually, opening May 3, and lasting four months. The judges, public prosecutors, and superior police officials are appointees of the crown; hence the judiciary is a dependent, rather than an independent branch of government. The police force is a military organisation, and the chiefs of police are invested with semi-judicial powers. The provinces are governed by presidents appointed by the crown, and by single-house assemblies elected by the people. These local assemblies, however, do not possess much discretionary power, owing to the extreme concentration of authority in the central government.

On a peace footing, the army of Brazil consists of 13,500 men, and the navy of 43 vessels of all classes, with 5788 officers and men. Impressment and the enlistment of condemned criminals are still employed by the military authorities, though laws exist for uniform obligatory service (6 years in the regular army, and 3 in the reserve).

Finance.—The revenue of Brazil for 1884-85—the latest to date whose accounts are balanced—was Rs.120,051,701\$, or £12,005,170, of which Rs.65,644,823\$ were from import, and Rs.16,767,645\$ from export duties. The expenditure for the same year was Rs.158,495,837\$, showing a deficit of Rs.38,444,136\$. Of the last fifty years not more than two have yielded a surplus of revenue over expenditure. For the decade 1875-76 to 1884-85 inclusive, the average deficit was about £3,195,000 a year. The public debt in 1887 was £23,553,900 foreign, Rs.440,443,200\$ internal funded (4 to 6 per cent. consols), about Rs.92,280,000\$ internal unfunded, and Rs.184,335,000\$ paper currency—making a sterling total (at 2s. per milreis) of £95,259,720, or very nearly £8 per head of population.

Commerce.—The industries of Brazil are confined almost exclusively to agriculture, mining, and forest products, manufacturing having thus far been but

slightly developed. Stock-raising has totally failed to keep pace with the domestic consumption of jerked-beef, which is largely imported. The coast fisheries have also been neglected, although Brazil is a large consumer of codfish. The forest products are rubber, maté, nuts, cocoa, medicinal plants, cabinet and dye woods, &c.—the first ranking third in importance as an article of export. Of agricultural products, coffee occupies the first place, and furnishes about two-thirds of the total exports of the whole empire. The Rio and Santos export in 1886-87 was 5,871,170 bags of 60 kilogrammes each. The normal export from the whole empire is $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 millions of bags. Sugar ranks second in importance as an export, and is now receiving special encouragement from the state, in the grant of interest guarantees on central usines. The production of cotton and tobacco has considerably decreased, and that of tapioca has nearly disappeared. Rice, maize, and many other products are easily grown, but have been overshadowed by coffee and sugar, and to some extent discouraged by the high cost of internal transportation. In colonial times the mining industries attracted much attention, and yielded large results. They are now comparatively unimportant, and are restricted in development by unfavourable mining laws. Gold and diamonds are found in Minas Geraes, Paraná, and Bahia, but the annual production at present is not large. Iron ores of superior quality exist in several provinces, but there are no large mines in operation, the absence of coal being a serious obstacle to the development of this important industry. The productions and commerce of Brazil cannot be treated briefly and comprehensively, because of the total lack of reliable statistics. There are no trustworthy official reports on these matters, the tables given being so defective and full of clerical errors as to render them valueless. An official report for 1884-85 gives the aggregate value of the agricultural, grazing, and extractive products for that year at about Rs.237,000,000\$. The total value of imports in 1885-86 was estimated at Rs.197,501,500\$; that of exports at Rs.194,961,600\$, of which coffee alone contributed Rs.124,792,479\$. The aggregate value of the inter-provincial coasting trade for the same year was estimated at Rs.136,796,600\$. The mistaken policy of levying export duties on domestic products, and heavy import duties on foreign goods, has done much to restrict production and commerce. Moreover, the system of protection is even gaining ground, and a few industries have already been established on the encouragement given. As no land-tax, which would be opposed by the great landed proprietors, is levied, the loss of revenue through any effort to protect national industries will certainly lead to serious financial difficulties. It should be added that the inhabitants of the southern provinces of the empire are broadly distinguished by their energy from the more indolent northerners. It is in the southern provinces that the numerous German colonies (comprising some 220,000 Germans) are mostly established.

Steam communication with Europe was opened in 1850, and telegraphic communication in 1874. The first railway was opened in 1854; Brazil now possesses a total extension of 4765 miles under traffic, and 1013 miles in construction. Of these, 1138 miles under traffic and 234 miles in construction belong to the state, while 1444 miles under traffic and 278 miles in construction are operating under interest guarantees from the state. The aggregate amount paid these roads on account of guaranteed interest up to the end of 1886 was £9,781,532. There were 52 miles of tramways in Brazil in 1887, and 6593 miles of telegraph lines.

History.—Brazil was first discovered on 26th January 1500, by Vicente Yañez Pinzon, who landed

at Cape St Augustine, near Pernambuco, and then followed the coast north to the Orinoco. In the same year a Portuguese expedition to the East Indies, under Pedro Alvarez Cabral, discovered the Brazilian coast near Porto Seguro on 25th April (April 22, *Cazal*). Cabral took formal possession, and named his new discovery 'Terra da Vera Cruz.' Two Portuguese expeditions were sent out in 1501 and 1503, the first exploring the coast from 5° to 32° S. lat., and the second planting a colony and bringing back a rich cargo of Brazil-wood (q.v.), which gave a name to Portugal's new possession.

In 1530 the Portuguese government resolved upon the definite settlement of Brazil, and the plan adopted was its division into hereditary captaincies, which should be granted to private individuals, with ample powers for the founding of colonies on their own account. Many of the earliest colonies failed through lack of means, and from inability to hold their ground against the natives. In 1567 a Huguenot colony, established on the bay of Rio de Janeiro twelve years before, was overthrown by the Portuguese, who then founded the present capital of Brazil. Portugal and her colonies having become dependencies of Spain, a squadron sent out by the Dutch in 1623 to seize Brazil captured the colonial capital, Bahia. The Dutch lost the city in 1625, but in 1630 they captured Pernambuco, which, with several neighbouring places, they held for over twenty years. In 1640 Portugal regained her independence, and in 1654 her former possessions, but without any definite settlement of her boundary disputes with Spain. To strengthen her claim to the territory on the eastern shore of the La Plata, the town of Colonia, opposite Buenos Ayres, was founded in 1679; this was the beginning of a bitter struggle for the present republic of Uruguay, lasting nearly 150 years, until the independence of that territory was formally recognised in 1827 by Dom Pedro I. The discovery of gold in Minas Geraes in 1693, and of diamonds in 1729, gave a new impetus to the growth of the country, one result of which was the removal of the colonial capital from Bahia to Rio de Janeiro. The cultivation of cotton, tobacco, and sugar-cane had already attained great prominence and prosperity in the northern captaincies. The colonial system of Portugal, however, was one of selfish exclusion and greedy extortion. The colony was rigidly closed to foreigners, industry was burdened by restrictions and monopolies, the taxes were farmed out, the authorities were arbitrary and grasping, the administration of justice was slow and corrupt, printing was forbidden, the people were grossly ignorant, turbulent, and immoral, and internal communication was slow and difficult. In 1808 the royal family of Portugal was expelled by the French and took refuge in Brazil, and the very first act of Dom João VI. was to open Brazilian ports to foreign commerce. He then removed various restrictions on domestic industries, founded a printing-office and library, created new courts, and opened various schools and public institutions. All these acts greatly stimulated the growth of the country. In 1821 he returned to Portugal, leaving his eldest son in Brazil as prince-regent. Personal ambition, and the advice of men opposed to government from Lisbon, led the young prince to declare for Brazilian independence, 7th September 1822. He was proclaimed and crowned emperor—as Dom Pedro I.—before the end of the year, the small Portuguese force in the country being quickly and easily expelled. The constitution was ratified and sworn to early in 1825, and some amendments were added in 1835. The new empire, however, did not start smoothly, nor was the reign of Dom Pedro I. a fortunate one. Vexed with the opposition encountered, he in 1831 voluntarily abdicated in

favour of his eldest son, and withdrew to Portugal. During the next nine years Brazil was governed by regencies, but in 1840 a popular agitation led to the declaration of the young prince's majority, at fifteen years of age, and to his coronation the following year as Dom Pedro II. The reign of this sovereign has been one of almost unbroken peace, interrupted only by one or two insignificant revolutionary outbreaks, and by two foreign wars—one to overthrow the Rosas dictatorship in Buenos Ayres in 1852, and the other against Paraguay in 1865-70.

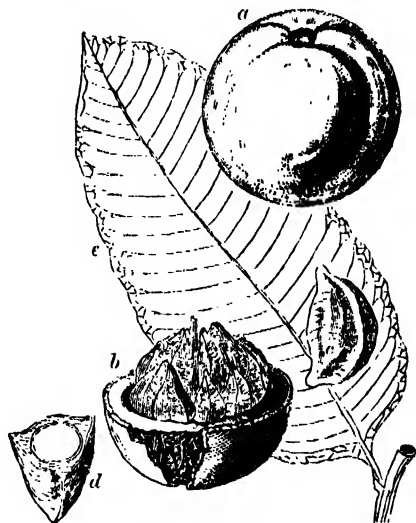
See *A Journey in Brazil*, by Professor and Mrs Agassiz (1870); Hartt, *Geology of Brazil* (Boston, 1870); A. R. Wallace, *Travels on the Amazon* (1870); Bates, *The Naturalist on the Amazon* (1873); Mulhall, *Handbook of Brazil* (Buenos Ayres, 1877); Fletcher and Kidder, *Brazil and the Brazilians* (9th ed. Philadelphia, 1879); H. H. Smith, *Brazil, the Amazon, and the Coast* (1880); Sellin, *Das Kaiserreich Brasilien* (1882); Zöllner, *Die Deutschen im brasilischen Urwald* (1883); Wells, *Three Thousand Miles through Brazil* (1886); and for the history, Southey's *History of Brazil* (1810-19), and the Portuguese works of Costancio and Pereira da Silva.

Brazil Cabbage, CHOU CARAÍBE, are names somewhat vaguely applied to various species of *Caladium* and *Colocasia* (natural order, Araceæ), which yield edible tubers, and are largely cultivated in the tropics. See ARUM, COCCO.

Brazilian Grass, an incorrect popular name applied to a substance used in the manufacture of a very cheap kind of hats, known as Brazilian grass hats, and also as *chip* hats. It consists of stripes of the leaves of a palm, *Chamerops argentea*, which are imported into Britain for this manufacture, and chiefly from Cuba. See CHAMEROPS.

Brazilian Plum. See HOG PLUM.

Brazil Nuts are the seeds of the *Bertholletia excelsa*, a majestic and beautiful tree belonging to the Lecythidaceæ, a sub-order of Myrtaceæ (q.v.).



Brazil Nut:

a, the fruit; b, the same, with half the pericarp removed to show the nuts or seeds; c, a single nut or seed; d, a nut cut across; e, a leaf.

The tree grows to the height of 100 or 120 feet, and abounds on the banks of the Orinoco, and in the northern parts of Brazil. It produces a round woody seed-vessel, almost as large as a man's head, within each of the four divisions of which lie six or eight of the seeds. The pericarp is very heavy and solid; and at the time when this great fruit is ready to fall, it is dangerous to walk under the

tree. The seeds, which are popularly called nuts, and much resemble fruits of that description, are wrinkled and triangular, having a hard shell and a pure white kernel, which, when fresh, is very agreeable. They are chiefly exported from Pará and French Guiana, and are well known in our shops. They yield as much as 56 per cent. of oil, which is good for burning. The also much esteemed nuts or seeds of the *Leocythis ollaria*, the Sapucaya or Monkey-pot tree, are produced in a pericarp which resembles a rusty iron pot with a lid, and which is indeed employed as a vessel for many purposes by the Brazilian Indians. *L. bracteata* (*Couroupita guianensis*) is the cannon-ball tree; the fruit contains a sweet, fragrant, and refreshing pulp.

Brazil-wood, a dark-red or yellowish-brown dye-wood, which forms a considerable article of export from Brazil. It is the produce of different species of *Caesalpinia* (q.v.). Much of the Brazil-wood of commerce is obtained from the heart-wood of *Caesalpinia brasiliensis*, a native of the West Indies.—**PERNAMBUCO WOOD** is the produce of *C. echinata*, sometimes regarded as the Brazilian form of the preceding species. The timber is called Nicaragua-wood. The Sappan-wood (*C. Sappan*) of the East Indies has similar properties, and is described as an article of European commerce in 1193 under the name of brasil, brasilly, &c. (cf. Span. *brasil*; Fr. *brésil*, for which Marco Polo has *berzi*). Thus Brazil-wood does not really owe its name to the country of its frequent origin, but the country to its abundance of red dye-woods. *C. crista* probably yields some of the inferior West Indian Brazil-wood.

The colouring matter is termed brasilin; strong decoctions of Brazil-wood are used by the dyer and calico-printer in the fabrication of reds, browns, &c.; it is also used in the manufacture of red ink. See **INK**, **DYESTUFFS**, and **SANDALWOOD** (RED).

Brazing, or **SOLDERING**, is the process of uniting together two pieces of brass, two pieces of copper, or one of each, by means of a hard solder, partaking more or less of the composition and properties of ordinary brass. The edges or parts of metal to be joined are first filed bright, so as to be thoroughly clean, then there is strewed over the joint a mixture of the solder and borax. The solder employed varies in composition according to the kind of work, and may be rendered more fusible by the addition of a larger amount of zinc. Hard solder, or 'spelter solder,' for brass consists of 1 part of copper to 1 of zinc; for copper or iron it is usually 1 part of copper to 3ths of a part of zinc. The proportions, however, vary, 3 of copper to 1 of zinc being about the hardest solder. After the solder is made it is again heated and granulated in a mortar for use. The borax is employed to form a glaze over the brightened surfaces, and thus prevent the oxidation of the metal, which would seriously interfere with brazing, and even stop the operation. An outward coating or layer of charcoal is likewise serviceable in the exclusion of the air during the brazing of large pieces of metal. Where a very high heat is required in the process, a little powdered glass is mixed with the borax. The mixture of solder and borax may be applied dry, but it is better to moisten it with water, and to lay it on the filed surfaces with a spoon. The whole is then gently heated, when the water evaporates and leaves a crust of borax and solder. The work may now be strongly heated by a bellows, blowpipe, or over a clear charcoal or coke fire, and at a bright red heat the solder fuses and the zinc begins to burn with a pale-blue flame. At this stage the solder *flushes* or becomes liquid enough to permeate the joint or

crevice; but should it be tardy in acting thus, several slight taps will insure the proper result. The whole is now cooled, and, towards the close, the articles may be introduced into cold water for more rapid reduction in temperature. Pieces of metal which have undergone the process of brazing are so firmly united that they may be rolled and re-rolled without the parts yielding. Steel is brazed with a solder composed of 19 parts silver, 1 of copper, and 1 of brass. See **SOLDER**.

Brazos, formerly **BRAZOS DE DIOS**, a river of Texas, U.S., rising in a tableland called the Staked Plain, in the N.W. of the state, and running 950 miles south-eastward, till it falls into the Gulf of Mexico about 40 miles SW. of Galveston. It is navigable at all times to a distance of 40 miles from its mouth, and at high-water for 250 miles.

Brazza, the largest and most populous of the Dalmatian islands of the Adriatic, with an area of 152 sq. m., and a pop. (1880) of 19,969. Its surface is mountainous, attaining 2578 feet, and richly wooded; excellent marble is quarried. San Pietro is the chief town.

Brazza, **PIERRE SAVORGNAN DE**, a French explorer, of Italian descent, was born at Rome in 1852. He studied at Paris, entered the French navy in 1870, and served on the Gaboon station. In 1876-78 he made a famous exploration of the Ogoway, and of some of the northern tributaries of the Congo. In 1878 the French government gave him 100,000 francs for exploration and the promotion of French interests in the country north of the Congo, where he secured vast grants of land for France, and founded several stations, that called Brazzaville being on the northern shore of Stanley Pool. In 1883 he again returned to extend the territory secured to France, this time with a government grant of 1,275,000 francs, besides stores and provisions of all kinds; and by the end of 1885 he had established twenty-six stations, Franceville being the chief. The securing for France of her great dependency lying between the Gaboon and the Congo is mainly his work; and of that dependency he was made governor in 1886. See **CONGO**.

Breach, in a military sense, is a gap or opening in any of the defences of a fortress, effected either by mining or by the fire of guns placed in what are called 'breaching-batteries.' The high earthen ramparts of all fortresses are surrounded by deep ditches. In order to support the weight of the rampart, and make the ditch a more formidable obstacle, its sides are built up with retaining walls of masonry, technically called 'revetments,' often 30 feet high and 15 feet thick at the foot. To breach by mining, the explosives are lodged at the back of the revetment and near its foot under the parapet in sufficient quantities to bring down the greater part of the whole bank of earth and retaining wall. The debris falling into the ditch forms a ramp or slope, up which the assaulting party rush into the fortress. At the same time the wall retaining the far side of the ditch, called the 'counterscarp,' is treated in a similar manner to facilitate the descent into the ditch. The same result may be obtained by artillery fire. Heavy howitzers are placed in batteries about 1000 yards from the 'escarp' or revetment of the rampart, upon which they drop shell, at an angle of descent of about 14°, crumbling it away from the top downwards, until a practical breach 20 or 40 yards wide is made. During the Peninsular war there were some formidable examples of breaching. At Badajoz, 14,000 shot brought down 180 feet of wall in 104 hours, from a distance of 450 yards. At St Sebastian, 13,000 shot brought down 100 feet of wall in 62 days, from a distance of 620 yards. It was then calculated that 10,000 24-lb. shot, or

240,000 lb. of iron, would breach 100 feet of wall of average dimensions from a distance of 500 yards. But improvements in modern artillery have greatly reduced these figures; thus, at the siege of Strasburg in 1870, 1000 rounds from a 60-pounder gun brought down 30 yards of a wall 15 feet high from a battery 870 yards distant. See **SIEGE**.

Breach is a legal term used in England and Scotland to denote the violation of a legal right or obligation. The most common form of this is Breach of Contract. A contract may be broken by simple failure to pay or to perform, or by the debtor making it impossible for him to perform before the time arrives, or by his seriously declaring that he will not perform. In some cases the creditor has a right to specific implement—i.e. an order by the court on the other party to do what he promised to do; but in most cases the remedy is an action of damages for breach of contract; and difficult questions arise as to the proper measure of damages. In an ordinary mercantile sale, for instance, if the seller fails to deliver, the buyer must go into the market within a reasonable time to supply himself. On the other hand, if the buyer breaks the contract, the seller should dispose of the goods as soon as possible, and charge the difference of market and contract price. Breach of Trust consists in the violation of the express or implied obligations of a trustee—e.g. making an investment of trust funds not sanctioned by the trust deed, or using trust funds in the business of the trustee. The liability so incurred is generally to replace the funds, sometimes with penal interest. Such acts are often restrained by interdict or injunction at the instance of the beneficiaries. Breach of trust often takes a criminal complexion, and is punished as embezzlement. Breaches of contract are very rarely criminal—indeed only where the element of conspiracy occurs. Breach of the Peace includes a great variety of criminal acts, from mobbing and rioting down to small police offences. In England, Breach of Close is a technical expression for trespass on private ground; Breach of Pound is the offence of breaking open the place where distrained goods are placed for custody with a view to sale. In Scotland, Breach of Arrestment means the disregard of the prohibition to pay or deliver, which is effected by the use of arrestment in the hands of a debtor; it involves only civil consequences—viz. the liability to pay or deliver a second time. Breach of Interdict, on the other hand, is regarded as a more serious contempt of court, and is often severely punished criminally. See **CONTRACT**, **DAMAGES**, **TRUST**, **INTERDICT**; and for Breach of Promise of Marriage, see **MARRIAGE**.

Breaching Tower, or **BEFFROI**, was the name of a tower used in the military sieges of ancient and medieval times. When a town was to be besieged, a movable tower, as high as the walls, was brought near it; and this tower was the beffroi. Its use is more than once spoken of by Caesar in his account of his campaigns in Gaul. Froissart describes, with his usual spirit, a beffroi employed at the siege of the castle of Breteuil in 1356. At the siege of Jerusalem by the Crusaders, a beffroi was carried in pieces, put together just beyond bow-shot, and then pushed on wheels to a proper position. Sometimes they were pushed on by pressure, sometimes by capstans and ropes. The highest were on six or eight wheels, and had as many as twelve or fifteen stories or stages; but it was usual to limit the height to three or four stages. They were often covered with raw hides to protect them from the flames of boiling grease and oil directed against them by the besieged; and there was a

hinged drawbridge at the top to let down upon the parapet of the wall to aid in landing. The lower stage frequently had a ram (see **BATTERING-RAM**); while the others were crowded with bowmen and slingers; or there were bowmen on all the stages except the top, which had a storming or boarding party. The *locus classicus* for a description of such military engines is this from Lord Berners' *Froissart*, I. cix. 131: 'Two belfries of great timber, with iii. stages, every belfry on four great wheels, and the sides towards the town, were covered with cure holy [Fr. *cuir bouilli*] to defend them from fire and from shot; and into every stage there were 'pointed C. archers.' The engine was also called a *sow*.

Bread. The earliest and most primitive way of making bread was to soak the grain in water, subject it to pressure, and then dry it by natural or artificial heat. An improvement upon this was to pound or *bray* the grain in a mortar, or between two flat stones, before moistening and heating. A rather more elaborate bruising or grinding of the grain leads to such simple forms of bread as the *out-cakes* of Scotland, which are prepared by moistening oatmeal (coarsely ground oats) with water containing some common salt, kneading with the hands upon a baking-board, rolling the mass into a thin sheet, and ultimately heating before a good fire, or on an iron plate called a girdle, which is suspended above the fire. In a similar manner, the barley-meal and pence-meal *bannocks* of Scotland are prepared; and in the East Indies (especially the Punjab and Afghanistan), as well as in Scotland, flour is kneaded with water, and rolled into thin sheets, as *scones* (although this term is usually applied to bread lightened with butter-milk and baking-soda.) The *passover cakes* of the Israelites were also prepared in this way. A similar preparation of wheat-flour, but where the sheet of dough is made much thicker, forms the *dampers* of Australia. The Indian corn-meal, kneaded with water and fired, affords the *corn-bread* of America. The kinds of bread referred to above are designated *unleavened*, as no leaven has been added to the dough to excite fermentation. No chemical change has therefore been produced except that the starch has been rendered more soluble by the process of baking. Even in the time of Moses, however, *leaven* was employed in making bread. It is held probable that the Egyptians were the first to use leaven; that the secret afterwards became known to the Greeks; and that the Greeks communicated the process to the Romans, who spread the invention far and wide in the northern countries during their campaigns.

The grain of wheat is generally employed in the manufacture of bread among the better classes and more advanced nations, though rye, barley, Indian corn, and rice are also extensively used. The average composition of the grain of wheat is:

Moisture.....	14.0
Mineral matter.....	1.8
Albuminous bodies (soluble in alcohol)...	7.2
Nitrogenous matter (insoluble in alcohol)...	4.5
Sugar.....	2.2
Cellulose.....	3.0
Starch.....	65.8
Fat.....	1.5
Total.....	100.0

The proportion of these ingredients, however, varies considerably. Much depends on soil and climate. Taken as a general rule; to which there are exceptions, the wheat becomes more starchy as we proceed southwards. The *strongest* foreign flours (i.e. those richest in gluten) are grown in Minnesota, Manitoba, Hungary, and Russia. Indian wheat usually furnishes a *weak* flour. The principal constituents of wheat may be separated from each other without much difficulty. Thus, if wheat-

flour be placed in a cloth-bag with the mouth well closed, and the whole introduced into a basin of water, and pressed by the fingers for some time, the starch is squeezed through the cloth as a fine white powder, and the gluten is left in the cloth as a viscid or sticky substance. Again, if wheat-flour be burned on a porcelain plate on a fire, or oven, or gas-lamp, till it can burn no longer, it leaves behind a small amount of ash or saline matter.

Previous to being employed in the fabrication of bread, the grain of wheat undergoes the process of *milling*, with the double object of reducing it to a fine state of division, and separating the more hard and indigestible parts (see MILL). During the grinding operations, the wheat as it passes from grain to flour nearly doubles its bulk. The products come from the dressing-machine divided into different qualities, a quarter of wheat yielding by some systems of milling :

Flour, 1st and 2d qualities.....	71.86 per cent.
Bran (small and large).....	23.91 "
Germ, sweepings, light wheat, exhaust dust, &c.....	3.23 "
Waste.....	1 "
Total	100.00

In the making of bread in Great Britain, the flours are blended by the baker so as to produce bread of desired quality. In the making of good bread three things are absolutely requisite: flour or meal, yeast or leaven, and water containing salt. The Yeast (q.v.) or leaven is added to give a start to the Fermentation (q.v.) process, thereby supplying carbonic acid, which communicates a spongy or light texture to the bread. Leaven is the more primitive ferment, and is simply a portion of moistened flour or dough in which the putrefactive agencies have begun to work. It may be procured by allowing moistened flour to lie in a warm apartment (summer heat) for six or eight days, and when sufficiently formed, has an acid taste and reaction, and a somewhat fusty odour. When brought in contact with a new portion of flour and water, and incorporated therewith by kneading, it very quickly acts as a ferment, and develops partial fermentation in the whole. Hence it is that where leaven is used, it is customary to retain a portion of the leavened dough for the next baking. On the Continent, leaven is still very extensively employed, especially in districts far from breweries. In Britain, yeast is generally used as the ferment. There are three forms in common use—viz. 'brewers' yeast,' 'German compressed,' and 'patent.'

The materials being at hand, and the proper benches, utensils, and oven being within reach, the baker takes a quantity of water and adds to it the yeast and salt; after which the flour is added, and the whole thoroughly and laboriously kneaded together till it assumes a ropy consistence. It is then called the *sponge*, and is placed in a kneading-trough in a warm place, which is styled *setting the sponge*. In a short time, the yeast begins to act on the gluten, starch, and sugar of the flour, compelling the latter to pass into alcohol and carbonic acid gas in every part of the dough, which thereby becomes inflated with innumerable air cavities. When the fermentation has sufficiently advanced, the baker takes the sponge, adds more flour, water, and salt, a second time subjects the whole to a thorough process of kneading, and makes it into dough, after which he allows the mass to lie in a warm place for from one to two hours. The dough swells considerably from distension by gas, and is weighed out into lumps of the proper size, which are shaped into loaves, constituting the *batch*, or placed in tin pans, and allowed to lie for a short time till they get further distended. The oven has previously been heated to a

temperature of at least 450° F., which is the lowest temperature at which bread can be baked, and ranging up to 572° F.; when it has been thoroughly cleaned out, the loaves are introduced, and the oven shut up. Until recent years bakers had not improved upon the method used in the bakeries of Pompeii—viz. by burning wood in the floor of the oven itself until the proper temperature had been reached, then cleaning out and introducing the loaves. Latterly, however, this somewhat inconvenient method has been improved upon, and many large bakeries are fitted with ovens heated either by flues, gas (regenerator), or superheated steam. The heat acts in dissipating much of the water from the dough, in distending the air cavities more fully, and in partially *boiling* the starch and gluten of the dough, and developing some gum from the starch. Indeed, though the temperature of the oven is much higher, yet the loaves beyond the mere crust are bathed in an atmosphere of steam, and are never heated above 215° F., as has been proved by direct experiments with the thermometer. One effect of the heat is to arrest any further Fermentation (q.v.; see also YEAST). After about one and a half hours' baking in the oven, the length of time being determined by the temperature, the loaves are withdrawn, and allowed to cool. The brown appearance of the crust of loaves, and the pleasant taste of the crusts, are due to the action of the heat on the starch and the formation of Dextrin (q.v.), a sort of gum. The number of quarters (4-lb.) loaves which a sack of flour weighing 280 lb. yields, is from 86 to 96 according to the strength of the flour. It will be apparent, therefore, that as 280 lb. of flour yield on an average 360 lb. of bread, a good deal more water must be present in the latter than in the former; and, indeed, ordinary good wheaten bread contains about 45 per cent. of water. This water is retained even after the loaf is apparently dry, and even mealy, as the gum and gluten have a great affinity for water.

Machinery has now superseded manual labour in many of the operations of bread-making. In a few of the largest bakeries the flours obtained from various sources are blended by passing through a sifting-machine, and are thence conveyed by a strap or endless screw to large bins. From these bins, when Parisian barm or brewers' yeast is used, the flour is drawn off into barrels or troughs in which the sponge has to be stirred. The stirring is usually performed by means of a vertical spindle provided with horizontal blades, which is made to revolve in a barrel or trough. At the proper time the sponge is emptied into a kneading-machine, the remainder of the water and salt is added, and a quantity of flour is drawn off from the bins sufficient to make the mass of the desired consistency. The whole is now thoroughly mixed into dough. This operation is completed in from five to ten minutes in batches which will turn out from one hundred to five hundred loaves. There are several kinds of kneading-machines in the market, but the two most commonly used are the 'Thomson' and the 'Pfleiderer' machines. They consist essentially of an iron trough provided with blades revolving in opposite directions. In the 'Thomson' machine the blades revolve upon the same axis, while those of the 'Pfleiderer' revolve upon different axes. As soon as the dough is thoroughly made, it is emptied into troughs, where it remains for an hour or two. It is then conveyed to a table and weighed out, and afterwards moulded into loaves as already detailed. There have been several attempts to make machines to divide and mould the dough into loaves, but these have not yet been perfected.

The baking business is chiefly carried on in shops

of moderate dimensions, in which on an average perhaps twenty bags of flour are used per week, but in many large cities the factory system has been introduced. Some of these are on a very large scale, using 1000 to 2000 bags every week. From the nature of the industry, operations are principally carried on at night or early morning. In England till recently almost every family in the country baked its own bread, but the Scottish custom is gradually creeping in, of getting supplied by a baker from a neighbouring town.

The appearance which good wheaten bread ought to present is that of a vesicular or spongy mass, from which layers can be readily detached; and this, known to bakers as *piled bread*, is the best index of good, wholesome, and easily digested bread. When the layers cannot be detached, and the loaf cannot be crumbled down by the fingers into a coarse powder, or the fragments be thoroughly soaked and be readily diffused through water, but become a permanent tough mass of dough, the bread is imperfectly made.

Rye-bread is very extensively used in northern European countries, where the soil being sandy is admirably adapted for the growth of that grain. It yields a flour darker than wheat-flour. It is almost equal in nutritive value to wheaten bread. Barley and oats, which, when used as bread, are generally made into cakes or bannocks, possess also a composition not unlike wheat. Indian corn, which thrives luxuriantly on the American soil, and is largely used there for bread, as also to a considerable extent in the Old World, is little different from wheat in the proportion of its ingredients. Rice is occasionally employed in making bread, but it is not nearly so nutritious as wheat.

But although, with the exception of rice, the various kinds of grain do not sensibly differ in the amount of nutritious matter contained in the meal, yet there is a great difference as to the quality of yielding a light, spongy bread. In this respect the flour of wheat excels all others. This quality seems to depend upon the mechanical structure of the gluten of wheat, which gives a glutinous, sticky consistency to the dough, rendering it impervious to the carbonic acid gas formed in it during the fermentation, so that the gas thus imprisoned swells it up. The meal of other grains forms a more granular and less tenacious dough, which allows the gas to escape with more or less ease as it is formed. It is thus impossible to make a light spongy loaf of oatmeal, however finely it might be ground. In the case of whole-meal bread, or brown bread, the rough, hard particles of the bran interfere with the ordinary tenacious quality of wheaten flour, and make the dough slightly porous, so that much of the gas escapes, and thus this kind of bread is never so much raised as bread of fine flour.

Instead of raising the dough by the action of yeast, which decomposes a part of the flour and causes the loss of about 2 per cent., bicarbonate of soda and hydrochloric acid, or bicarbonate of soda and tartaric acid, are sometimes employed. The proportions by this process are 4 lb. of flour intimately mixed with 320 grains of bicarbonate of soda; to this is added a mixture of 35 ounces of water and 6½ fluid drachms of hydrochloric acid, sp. gr. 1.16, or 320 grains of bicarbonate, and 160 grains of tartaric acid, and the whole is kneaded and placed in the oven. When the mixture is made, the acid acts on the bicarbonate of soda, forming common salt, which is left in the dough, and carbonic acid is liberated at every point, and communicates a spongy texture to the mass. This process is chiefly used in making *whole-meal bread*, as the usual fermentation process would cause too much change in the bran, and produce a bread liable

to sour by secondary fermentation. It is also employed in making 'fancy' and 'small bread.' Sesquicarbonate of ammonia is employed to some extent in the preparation of rusks, ginger-bread, and other light fancy bread; when heated, it entirely passes into gas, and thus yields a very spongy mass. *Short-bread* is prepared from flour with which butter has been incorporated.

Brown, Composition, or Whole-flour Bread is made from the ground but undressed wheat, and therefore contains the bran as well as the flour. Some years ago it was suggested that as the bran contained more nitrogenous matter than the flour, the whole meal must be more nutritious than the finer flour alone. But that opinion is now considerably modified. The great argument in favour of the use of whole-meal bread is that it contains more nitrogen than white bread. This is perfectly true, but as was pointed out by Wigner, the nitrogen of cereals exists in two forms—viz. the coagulable and the non-coagulable albuminoids, the former being those available for the purposes of nutrition, whilst the latter are almost useless for the purposes of food, consisting of alkaloids and salts of nitrogen. The fine portion of the flour was found by him to contain the nitrogen in the first condition, whilst the bran contained the comparatively useless form of nitrogen. A strong argument against the use of whole-meal bread is that the gritty particles which are present in the bran cause an unnatural irritation in the alimentary canal, and lead to a quicker evacuation of the but partially digested and absorbed food. This explains why brown bread possesses laxative properties, and why labourers fed on it consider that it makes them hungry soon again; they feel that it does not last in the stomach, and consequently think it has little nourishment in it.

The Act of 1836 prescribes that bread, except French rolls and fancy bread, must be sold by weight only; and the Factory and Workshops Act of 1873 regulates the condition of bakehouses. See also BISCUIT, CEREALS, DIETETICS, FLOUR, FOOD, NUTRITION, WHEAT.

AERATED BREAD is prepared by a process patented by Dr Daughlish in March 1859, and was at one time very popular, but its use is now almost exclusively confined to London and district. The process consists in placing the flour in a strong inclosed iron box, and moistening it with carbonic acid water, prepared as stated under Aerated Waters (q.v.). The dough is then worked up by machinery for ten minutes or so inside the box, from which it is dropped into moulds, which form it into loaves. It is then placed in an oven, when the carbonic acid, previously introduced with the water within the dough, expands, and forms a light palatable bread. The advantages claimed for this method of working bread are: (1) There is a saving of the whole of the waste caused by fermentation, which admits of more bread being made out of a sack of flour than by the old process; (2) The process, instead of occupying eight or ten hours, is completed in half an hour; (3) The cost of machinery and gas is less than that of yeast used in the old process; (4) The dough requires no handling to knead it and form it into loaves; (5) The bread is absolutely pure—it is simply flour, water, and salt. Not having undergone the process of fermentation, however, it has not the peculiar sweet flavour that we are accustomed to in ordinary bread, and the palate soon tires of the somewhat vapid taste.

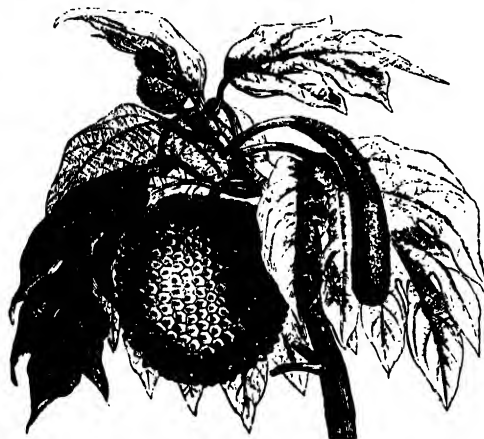
GLUTEN BREAD is a bread prepared in such a way that it contains no starch or sugar, so as to be suitable as a food for diabetic patients. The flour is made into a stiff dough with water, and

allowed to stand for a short time, usually an hour. It is then kneaded under running water so as to separate and wash away the starch. When the wash water ceases to be milky, the remaining gluten is made up into small rolls and baked.

The adulterations of bread are dealt with in the article on ADULTERATION.

Breadalbane. See CAMPBELL.

Bread-fruit Tree (*Artocarpus incisa*), a tree of the sub-order Artocarpaceæ of Urticaceæ (q.v.), a native of the islands of the Pacific Ocean and of the Indian Archipelago, is one of the most important gifts of nature to the inhabitants of these regions, its fruit supplying the principal part of their food, and its inner bark a considerable part of their clothing, whilst its timber and its milky juice are also employed for economical purposes. The genus to which it belongs (Gr. *Artocarpus*, 'bread-fruit')



Bread-fruit (*Artocarpus incisa*).

is distinguished by having the male flowers in catkins, with a two-leaved perianth and one stamen; the female flowers naked; the fruit roundish, fleshy, and tuberculated. The bread-fruit tree is a rather slender tree, 40 to 50 feet high, and often rises almost half its height without a branch. It has large pinnatifid leaves, frequently 12 to 18 inches long, dark-green, and glossy. The fruit is generally oval, or nearly spherical, and about the size of a child's head, and 3 or 4 lb. in weight. It is a *sorosis*, a compound or aggregate fruit formed from numerous flowers on a common axis, and is covered with a roughish rind, which is marked with small square or lozenge-shaped divisions, corresponding to the separate fruitlets; it is at first green; when imperfectly ripened, brown; and when fully ripe, assumes a rich yellow hue. It is attached to the small branches of the tree by a short thick stalk, and hangs either singly or in clusters of two or three together. It contains a somewhat fibrous pulp, which, when ripe, becomes juicy and yellow, but has then a rotten taste. At an earlier stage, when the fruit is gathered for use, the pulp is white and mealy, and of a consistence resembling that of new bread. In a still less mature state, the fruit contains a tenacious white milk. The seedless variety is of course especially fleshy, but the seeds of the normal form are sometimes roasted like chestnuts or used as sources of starch. The common practice in the South Sea Islands is to cut each fruit into three or four pieces, and take out the core; then to place heated stones in the bottom of a hole dug in the earth; to cover them with green leaves, and upon this to place a layer of the fruit,

then stones, leaves, and fruit alternately, till the hole is nearly filled, when leaves and earth to the depth of several inches are spread over all. In rather more than half an hour, the bread-fruit is ready; 'the outsides are, in general, nicely browned, and the inner part presents a white or yellowish cellular pulpy substance, in appearance slightly resembling the crumb of a wheaten loaf.'

It has little taste, but is frequently sweetish, and more resembles the plantain than bread made of wheat-flour. It is slightly astringent, and highly nutritious. Sometimes the inhabitants of a district join to make a prodigious oven—a pit 20 or 30 feet in circumference, the stones in which are heated by wood burned in it, and many hundred bread-fruits are thrown in, and cooked at once. Baked in this manner, bread-fruit will keep good for several weeks. Another mode of preserving it is by subjecting it in heaps to a slight degree of fermentation, and beating it into a kind of paste, which although rather sour, is much used when fresh bread-fruit cannot be obtained. There are numerous varieties of the bread-fruit tree in the South Sea Islands, and they ripen at different seasons. The tree produces two and sometimes three crops a year, in fact is bearing during eight or nine months of the year. In the West Indies and South America, into which it has also been introduced, the bread-fruit is valued as an ornamental tree, but has not come much into use as an ordinary article of food; various preparations of it, however, are reckoned delicacies.—The fibrous inner bark of young bread-fruit trees, beaten and prepared, is used for making a kind of cloth, which is much worn by the common people in the South Sea Islands, though inferior in softness and whiteness to that made from the paper mulberry (see MULBERRY, PAPER).—There exudes from the bark of the bread-fruit tree, when punctured, a thick mucilaginous fluid (*latex*), which hardens by exposure to the air, and is used, when boiled with cocoa-nut oil, for making the seams of canoes, pails, &c. water-tight, and as birchline.—The timber is soft and light, of a rich yellow colour, and assumes, when exposed to air, the appearance of mahogany. It is used for canoes, housebuilding, furniture, and many other purposes. It is durable when not exposed to the weather. The leaves serve for wrapping articles of food, and the fallen male catkins furnish a convenient source of tinder.—The Jack (q.v.) or Jaca (*A. integrifolia*) is a large and very thick tree, a native of the East Indies, but cultivated also in the Antilles, with large entire leaves and much larger fruits (up to 25 lb.), of which some varieties are as eatable as those of the commoner species. The mahogany-like timber is known as jacqueira-wood, and is used both in building and furniture. The sap yields a kind of dammar, and is also a source of caoutchouc. *A. hirsuta* (Malabar) yields paper from its bast.

Bread-nut, the fruit of *Brosimum alicastrum*, a native of Jamaica, an artocarpaceous tree closely allied to the bread-fruit. The bread-nut tree is dioecious, with ovate-lanceolate evergreen leaves, and abounds in a tenacious gummy milk. Its leaves and young shoots are much eaten by cattle, but deleterious qualities are said to be developed in them as they become old. The fruit is a one-seeded drupe, and the kernels, boiled or roasted, form an agreeable article of food, and are eaten instead of bread. Their taste resembles that of hazel-nuts.—The *Palo de Vaca*, or Cow-tree (q.v.), of Demerara is often referred to the same genus.—*B. Aubletii* of British Guiana and Trinidad yields heartwood of a rich deep mottled brown, hence called letterwood, snakewood, or leopardwood. It is chiefly used for veneering.

Bread-root. See YAM and PSORALEA.

Breadth is a term used by painters and critics to indicate that artistic quality which gives concentration, repose, and harmony of effect to a picture. In a work distinguished by breadth, the individual component parts do not force themselves unduly upon the spectator, the eye is not tempted to wander aimlessly from point to point of the canvas; in such a picture we do not feel inclined to count the several bricks of the artistic structure, but we are led to admire the general proportion and total effect of the building. Breadth of effect is most commonly and readily attained by massing the shadows, and skilfully leading the eye through the half-tones to the brilliant concentration of the highest lights; and of this mode of treatment the portraits and figure-pieces of Rembrandt are typical and unsurpassable examples. The introduction of the triangular spaces of shadow, which appear so frequently in the foreground of Waterloo's etchings, and in the landscape-work of his contemporaries, is a well-known conventional and mechanical device for securing breadth of effect. Breadth, however, may—in the hands of an accomplished painter—be attained more subtly when the greater part of the canvas is kept in full sunshine and the spaces of shadow minimised (instead of the points of light, as in the practice of Rembrandt above referred to); and of this method of attaining breadth the most perfect examples that art has yet presented are the later landscapes of Turner. The term 'breadth of handling,' or 'a broad touch,' is used to express certain characteristics of manipulation, to designate the practice of a painter who works with a full brush, and aims less at minute and searching expression of detail than at truth and beauty of general tone, effect, and relation.

Bread-tree. See KAFFIR BREAD, CYCADACEÆ.

Breaking Bulk, in Scots law, signifies making use of an article supplied in bulk, or in quantity; by which act one is said to break bulk, and is, in consequence, prevented from afterwards objecting to it, and returning it to the seller. It may be necessary to apply for judicial inspection before doing this, or at least to give notice to the carrier or to the seller. See SALE OF GOODS.

Breaking Inclosures, the technical name of an old statutory offence in Scotland, which consisted of injuring plantations or breaking their inclosures. Special punishments were provided for the purpose of favouring planting and inclosing in the 17th century. This would now be punished as malicious mischief. See PLANTATION.

Breakspear. See ADRIAN.

Breakwater is a barrier intended for the protection of shipping in harbours or anchorages. It sometimes happens that, in front of a semi-circular bay, a small island is so situated as to form a natural breakwater. This is to some extent the case with the Isle of Wight, which occupies such a position as to protect Portsmouth and Southampton from the south. In many other places, however, bays and harbours are without such screens. A pier may be so placed and constructed as to serve also the purpose of a breakwater, but the term breakwater is generally confined to a structure used solely for protection, and not for berthing or traffic, and breakwaters are frequently insulated, so as to be cut off from any communication with the shore unless by water.

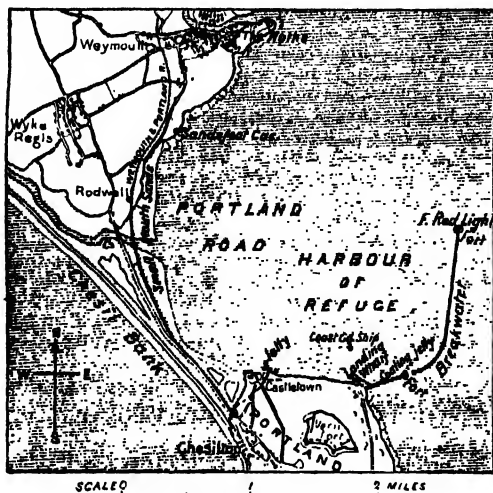
Plymouth Breakwater is the best known of these engineering works. The sound or harbour, being open to the south, was so much exposed to storms that, early in the present century, it was determined to construct a breakwater across its mouth, with openings between it and the shore, on either side, for the ingress and egress of ship-

ping. The works were commenced in 1812, from designs by Rennie, and were estimated to cost £900,000. The operations consisted in transporting along a tram-road large blocks of limestone got from a neighbouring quarry, shipping them in vessels fitted with trap-doors, and by means of these depositing them in the shape of a huge mound in the required situation. The design was to carry the rubble mound to a height of 10 feet above low-water, to give the seaward face a slope of 3 to 1, and the inner face $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, and the width on top 30 feet. As soon as the stones began to appear above water, a perceptible benefit resulted in the relative calmness of the sound during the prevalence of storms; but the structure was frequently very roughly handled by the waves, which altered and flattened its shape. A severe storm in November 1824 overthrew a length of 796 yards of the finished work; after this the breakwater was raised 10 feet higher, the seaward slope made 5 to 1, and the top width 45 feet, the top and slopes paved with masonry, and the top protected with expensively dressed granite blocks, joggled together and bedded with cement. It was not until 1841 that the works were finally completed, by the deposit of more than 3,000,000 tons of stone, and the expenditure of nearly £1,500,000. The breakwater is nearly a mile long, the central portion is 1000 yards; and two wings, of 350 yards each, extend from the ends of this at a slight angle. The open channels at each end, between the breakwater and the shore, are each about half a mile wide, and their depth is respectively 40 and 22 feet at low-water. The breakwater is 400 feet wide at the base, and 45 at the top—the two sides being made very sloping for the security of the stones. The slopes and top are faced with masonry. The water-space protected by this breakwater comprises 1120 acres, and it is generally admitted that the money has been well spent on the work. The breakwater requires constant repair; the sum voted for it in 1886 was £2690.

Holyhead Breakwater was designed by Mr Rendel for the purpose of converting Holyhead Bay into a harbour of refuge. It is formed of stone quarried from Holyhead Mountain, the stone being run out upon a timber staging and dropped into the sea. This mode of construction was first adopted at this work, and it permits the stone being deposited in rough weather, when it would not have been safe to use barges. The rubble reached up to the level of high-water, and has assumed a seaward slope of 1 in 12; the inner slope is $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. A vertical wall, 20 feet thick, is founded in the rubble at low-water level and carried up to 40 feet above that level; the width of roadway inside is 40 feet. The breakwater shelters an outer roadstead of 400 acres, with a depth of from about 20 to 50 feet, and an inner harbour of 267 acres, with a depth of 3 to 7 fathoms. It was originally contemplated to inclose the area by two breakwaters—a north one 5360 feet long, and an east one 2000 feet in length. The east breakwater was, however, abandoned, and the north breakwater lengthened to 7860 feet. The original estimate was £1,400,000. The stone for the breakwater was obtained by enormous blasts: one of the mines exploded on 21st May 1857 contained 21,000 lb. of gunpowder, which displaced 130,000 tons of stone. On Mr Rendel's death the completion of the work was intrusted to Sir John Hawkshaw, who completed the head, which was founded by divers at a depth of 20 feet under low-water, and carries a lighthouse rising to the height of 70 feet above high-water. The cost of the breakwater has been £163, 10s. per lineal foot. The work was begun in 1847 and finished in 1873.

Portland Breakwater is of very great value,

in converting into a harbour of refuge the expanse of water between the Dorsetshire coast and the Isle, or rather peninsula, of Portland.



Plan of Portland Breakwater.

An act of parliament was obtained in 1847, authorising the works, which were begun in 1849. The breakwater, starting from the north-east point to the isle, stretches nearly due north for more than 2 miles, with one or two intervening openings for the ingress and egress of shipping. The works are of the same engineering character as Holyhead, but were conducted more easily than those of any other great breakwater; for the isle contains an abundance of stone easily quarried, and the steep shores afforded facility for transporting the stones by their own gravity to their destination. The work, finished in 1872, is for the most part a rough rubble stone bank, surmounted by vertical walls from the low-water level; the depth is about 50 feet at low-water. From the nature of the operation, any part of the breakwater became useful as soon as constructed, increasing the safety of Portland Bay as a harbour of refuge.

A battery constructed of iron and mounted with heavy ordnance has been erected on the extreme end of the outer breakwater, and another has been placed on the end of the inner breakwater, while formidable batteries have been erected on shore.

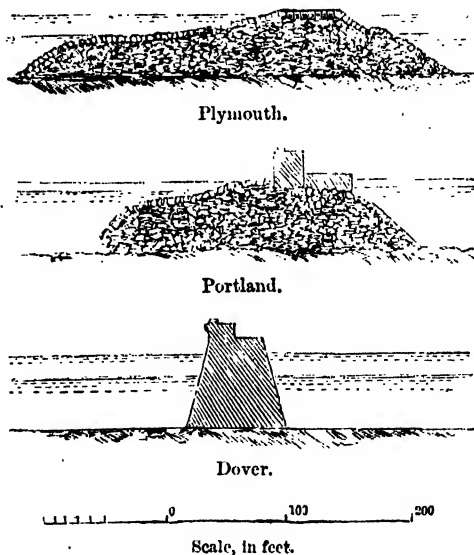
Dover Breakwater has been chiefly useful as the French mail-packet station. There is no stone near to form a mound, as in the other breakwaters spoken of, and, in consequence, the work has been brought up in solid ashlar from the bottom by the diving-bell, with the interior formed of blocks of concrete. The work was begun in 1847, and up to the year 1888 the pier had been extended to a length of 2100 feet into a depth of water at low-water of 45 feet. The cost of the work has been £693,077, and a sum of £22,827 has been paid for repairs of damage done by the storms of 1877 and following years. Works additional to those that now exist have been proposed by the government, to be carried out by convict labour. It has never been clearly stated whether the government regards this breakwater as a protection to a great naval station and fortified harbour, or as being chiefly valuable as a harbour of refuge for commercial fleets. In 1844 a commission of inquiry recommended that £2,500,000 should be laid out in forming a harbour of refuge here. The works connected with it have not been carried out.

Alderney Breakwater was designed for the government by the late James Walker in 1847. The situation is fully exposed, and the depth of water at its extremity is 130 feet. This breakwater consists of a rubble mound, with walls above founded 12 feet under low-water. The work was completed in 1864, but has been at various times seriously damaged. Up to 1884 the cost of repairs was £110,000; the total cost of the structure has been £1,327,050. The length of breakwater is 4500 feet; but the outer portion has been abandoned on account of the difficulty of maintaining it.

Small breakwaters have been constructed at Cetto near Marseilles, at the mouth of the Delaware in the United States, and at Buffalo in Lake Erie; but they do not call for description.

Cherbourg Breakwater is the greatest and the most costly ever constructed. More than 100 years ago, M. de Cessart proposed to the French government the formation of a breakwater at Cherbourg, to be commenced by the construction of a number of hollow cones formed of timber-framing, sunk in a line as close as they could be placed to each other, and then filled with stones. These cones, of which there were to be 64, each about 70 feet high, 150 feet in diameter at the base, and 60 feet at the top, were intended to form a nucleus to the stone breakwater, to prevent the stones, during its formation, being knocked about and too much spread out by the action of the waves. In 1784-88, 16 cones were constructed, and 13 of them sunk; but so great was the destruction which they underwent during stormy weather, that the government at length abandoned the plan, and carried on the stone breakwater without the aid of the cones. It was completed under Napoleon III. at a cost

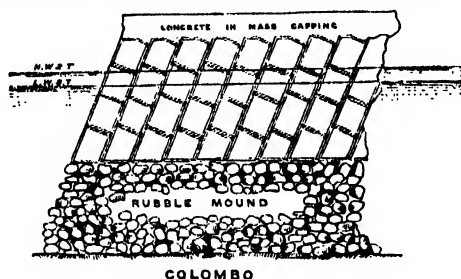
BREAKWATERS.—SECTIONS.



exceeding £2,500,000. The breakwater itself was finished in 1853, but since that year large fortifications have been built upon the upper works. The length is nearly 2½ miles; the breakwater is 300 feet wide at the bottom, and 31 at the top. The chief mass consists of rubble or unshaped stones, thrown down from ships; but there is a larger ratio of wrought and finished masonry than in the Plymouth Breakwater, consisting of granite blocks imbedded in cement. The depth of water is about

60 feet at low-water spring-tides; and the breakwater rises to 12 feet above high-water level. The water-space included within and protected by the breakwater is about 2000 acres, but two-thirds of this has scarcely depth enough for the largest sized ships. The relation which this breakwater bears to the vast military and naval arrangements of the place will be noticed under **CHERBOURG**.

Concrete Breakwaters.—The introduction of concrete made from Portland cement has in recent years greatly modified and simplified the construction of breakwaters. The cement is mixed with sand, gravel, and broken stone in various proportions according to exposure; 1 of cement to 7 of other materials being a common proportion for breakwaters. Sometimes the concrete is made into large blocks on shore and deposited under low-water. On the other hand, it may be lowered down, inclosed in large bags; or it may be lowered down in boxes, with hinged bottoms, and deposited in



Section of Colombo Breakwater.

mass on the bottom, either within timber casing, or even without any protection at all. The south breakwater of Aberdeen is formed of large blocks from the bottom up to 4 feet above low-water, and above that level of concrete in mass formed within temporary casing. The Colombo Breakwater is composed of a mound of rubble brought up to 24 feet under low-water, and above that level of concrete blocks weighing 35 tons each set on edge. Sometimes breakwaters are made by first depositing large concrete blocks of 20 to 50 tons in weight, in *pierrres perdues* style from the bottom up to a little above low-water, and then forming a monolithic mass of concrete above, such as the breakwater at St Jean de Luz. The breakwater in Peterhead Bay, for which preliminary works were in progress in 1888, will be in the Colombo style, and is being made by aid of convict labour. The breakwater at Fraserburgh, begun in 1878 and finished in 1882, is constructed of Portland cement concrete; the lower portion is formed of fifty-ton bags dropped from a barge on the system adopted first by Mr Cay at Aberdeen. The result at Aberdeen has not been favourable to the bag-work system for exposed situations, serious damage having been sustained by the works. Mr Abernethy reported to the trustees that a sum of £11,000 would be required to repair the work and make the structure safe. The bag-work has had to be protected at some parts by large concrete blocks deposited in front of them.

Many substitutes have been proposed for solid breakwaters, such as floating breakwaters constructed of timber framework, open iron screens, &c., but none of them have been shown to be suitable for actual practice. Close timber-work, filled in with stones, is found to be quite efficacious; but on most of our coasts the timber is liable to be eaten by the marine worm, which is an almost

insuperable objection to its being used under water. See **HARBOUR**.

Bream, a popular name applied to three very different kinds of fish, but especially to the first mentioned. (1) The Fresh-water Bream (*Abramis brama*), a common little fish nearly allied to the Bleak (q.v.). It has an elongated, laterally compressed body, a short blunt snout, and long anal fins. The colour varies from silver gray to brown. It may measure over a foot, and usually weighs between two and four pounds, though often more. The bream is frequent in North Europe, including England and Ireland, and lives in great shoals, in quiet waters. They are shy in habit, hardy in constitution, and very prolific. Fresh-water plants, such as Isoetes, form the favourite diet. At the breeding-time the males become adorned with numerous whitish knobs, which become amber-coloured; as many as four are said to follow the spawning female. The flesh is esteemed, especially on the Continent. The White Bream (*A. blicca*) is another common species, also British, but its flesh is not eaten, or at any rate not liked.

(2) Quite distinct from these is the large family of Sea-breams or *Sparidae*, in the Acanthopterygii division of bony fishes. They have compressed oblong bodies, one dorsal fin, with approximately equal soft and spinous portions, with the lower rays of the pectorals usually branched, with thornlike ventrals. They are especially characterised, however, by the nature of their dentition. Anterior cutting teeth, or lateral molars, or both, sometimes plus anterior conical canines, are present, and the palate is usually toothless. The family is a large one, with 30 genera and about 160 species, occurring abundantly along the coasts of tropical and temperate seas. They feed on flesh or algae, and are for the most part fit for eating. The solitary Black Sea-bream or Old Wife (*Cantharus lineatus*), the Common Sea-bream (*Pagellus centrodontus*), caught in great numbers with the seine net, the Mediterranean Gilthead (*Chrysophrys aurata*), and many



Common Sea-bream (*Pagellus centrodontus*).

others, occur in varying abundance on Southern British coasts. Box, Sargus, and Pagrus are allied genera. (3) The term Bream is also applied to *Brama raii* (q.v.), a widely distributed fish of the mackerel family.

Breastplate, in ancient armour, was a plate of iron, steel, or other metal, so fastened as to protect the chest of the wearer. The backplate, in like manner, protected him from attack from behind. The two together form what is now called the *cuirass*, worn by the *cuirassiers* of European armies, and by the household cavalry (Life-guards and Horse-guards) in England. See **ARMOUR**.

Breasts, or mammary glands, are the organs which secrete milk for the nourishment of the young in the Mammalia, and from the presence of which that class of animals takes its name. In the human subject they are two in number, situated on the front of the chest. In very exceptional cases additional glands are found, sometimes in remote situations. In children they are small and rudi-

mentary, but about the age of puberty they enlarge. In boys this enlargement, if it occurs, passes off after a few days, and the breasts remain rudimentary during the rest of life; but in girls it leads to the full development of the organ. Over the centre of the gland there is a circular patch of skin, thinner and darker than the rest (the *areola*); and from it rises a small conical projection (the *nipple*). On the apex of the nipple the *milk-ducts* (15 to 20 in number) open by separate orifices. Each of these ducts passes outwards to one division or *lobe* of the breast, dilating beyond the nipple into a *sinus*, and



Breast, showing the lower half dissected, during the period of lactation (from Luschka).

then branching repeatedly to terminate in the *lobules*, or clusters of small rounded vesicles in which the milk is secreted. The lobules and lobes are bound together by connective tissue, and well packed in fat, which increases sometimes to an enormous extent the apparent size of the organ.

In the adult female the breasts swell a little at each monthly period. During pregnancy considerable enlargement takes place, and shortly after the birth of the child the milk begins to be freely secreted.

DISEASES OF THE BREAST are of frequent occurrence in women, probably on account of the great changes in activity and blood-supply to which the organ is subject.

Fissures of Nipple.—During suckling the delicate skin of the nipple often becomes abraded. The ulcers or fissures thus formed are usually very painful, so much so it may be as to render nursing impossible, and frequently lead to abscess of the breast. Their formation may usually be prevented by applying to the nipple several times daily a spirit lotion—e.g. diluted eau-de-Cologne or brandy—or an astringent—e.g. glycerine of tannic acid—both before and after nursing is begun, and by scrupulous attention to cleanliness. When they have formed, similar measures may be used; or oxide of zinc, starch, or some other drying powder, frequently applied. If severe or persistent, the use of lunar caustic may be necessary.

Acute Inflammation and Abscess.—Acute inflammation of a part of the breast or of the adjacent tissues frequently occurs during nursing, rarely at other times. In its treatment, besides measures generally useful in inflammation, the free application of belladonna in the form of ointment or liniment is of special value; and care must be taken that the milk is not allowed unduly to accumulate in the organ. When abscesses result, they should be opened with antiseptic precautions; but they are often very tedious and intractable.

Chronic Inflammation of the whole or a part of

the breast sometimes occurs, and may closely resemble a true tumour. It may disappear under the prolonged application of warmth and moisture, or other remedies which favour absorption, or may end in abscess.

Tumours.—The breast may be the seat of almost any of the numerous forms of Tumour (q.v.) met with in the body. Far the most common varieties in this situation, however, are *glandular tumours* and *hard cancer*. Glandular tumours (adenocoele) vary much in size, form, and consistence, but present in their intimate structure more or less resemblance to the normal structure of the breast, and are not dangerous to life. Their removal may be necessary on account of the pain or inconvenience they cause the patient. Cancer (q.v.), on the other hand, is all but invariably fatal if left alone, and the whole gland affected with it should be removed at once as soon as the nature of the case is recognised. Unfortunately, however, the disease frequently returns. It is most important that any lump in the breast, not obviously inflammatory, should at once be shown to a medical man, though in some cases it may be hardly possible, even for the most practised, to decide at once its nature. Here it must suffice to say that cancer of the breast very rarely begins before the age of thirty; in a woman younger than this, therefore, a tumour is not likely to be of a serious nature.

The male breast is occasionally, but very rarely, the seat of disease.

Breastwork, in Fortification, is a hastily constructed earthwork of sufficient height to protect men standing on the natural surface of the ground, and firing over it without requiring a 'banquette' to stand upon, as would be the case with the more carefully constructed work called a 'parapet.' The ditch in front, from which the earth is taken to form the breastwork, affords a slight additional obstacle to the attack. The inner surface of a breastwork is revetted (that is, faced with sods, timber, hurdles, &c.), in order that it may stand at a steep slope, thus improving the cover it gives by enabling the defenders to get close up to it. In this respect it differs from the still simpler work called an *Epaulement*.

Breath and Breathing. See RESPIRATION.

Breath, OFFENSIVE, may depend upon some cause limited to the mouth or nose, or it may arise from diseased conditions of the respiratory or digestive apparatus. If, from want of proper attention, the teeth have collected a quantity of putrescent particles around them, they must be well scrubbed with a brush and tepid water, with some powdered carbonate of magnesia mixed with it. A wash composed of a teaspoonful of tincture of myrrh or of Condyl's fluid in a pint of water is also very useful. Occasionally, the secretion from the Tonsils (q.v.) is very offensive; and then a solution of nitrate of silver, 4 grains to 1 ounce of water, should be applied to them every morning, with a camel-hair brush, and small alterative doses of medicine administered. Solutions of soda in water are also very useful. Should the fetid smell arise from a portion of dead bone, the latter must be removed whenever it becomes loose. Inhalations of steam from hot water into which some creosote has been dropped, is much recommended for cases in which the cause resides in the nose and respiratory passages. When, however, it is caused by digestive derangements, the treatment should consist in purging to empty the intestinal canal, followed by soda to correct acidity, and tonics, of which the bitter infusions and tinctures, and the dilute mineral acids, are among the best.

All medical treatment is unavailing to correct the foul odour which rises from the stomach of the

habitual drunkard, or from the victim of gangrene or abscess in the lungs. See also OZÆNA.

Breccia, a term adopted from the Italian to designate a mass composed of angular fragments of rocks of the same or different kinds, cemented together by an enveloping paste, as, for example, by infiltrated oxide of iron or carbonate of lime. Bones and fragments of bones cemented together by calcareous matter often occur upon the floors of caves in limestone: these accumulations are termed *bone-breccia*.

Brechin, a town of Forfarshire, on the left bank of the South Esk, $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles W. of Montrose. Pop. (1851) 6638; (1881) 9031. With Montrose, &c. it returns one member to parliament. Linen and paper are the leading manufactures; bleaching, distilling, and brewing being also carried on. David I. founded a bishopric here about 1150. Part of the cathedral, late First and Second Pointed in style, is now the parish church, at whose south-west angle rises the Round Tower (q.v.) of a Culdee college, similar to the Irish ones, and to the one at Abernethy, the only other example in Scotland. Dating probably from about 983, it is 87 feet high, 25 feet in diameter at the base, and 124 feet at the top, which is surmounted by a 15th-century conical roof of 25 feet. Brechin Castle, the ancient seat of the Maules, and now of their representative, Arthur Maule Ramsay, fourteenth Earl of Dalhousie (born 1878; succeeded 1887), was taken by Edward I. in 1303 after a twenty days' siege. The town itself was burned by Montrose in 1645; and near it Huntly defeated the rebellious Crawfords in 1452. Dr Thomas Guthrie was a native of Brechin.

Breckinridge, JOHN CABELL, vice-president of the United States, was born 21st January 1821, near Lexington, Kentucky, where he practised law until 1847, when he was chosen major of a volunteer regiment for the Mexican war. He sat in congress 1851-55, and in 1856 was elected vice-president, with Buchanan as president. In 1860 he was the pro-slavery candidate for the presidency, but was defeated by Lincoln. A United States senator from March to December 1861, he then entered the Confederate army, was appointed a major-general in 1862, and held some important commands during the civil war. He was secretary of war in Jefferson Davis's cabinet at the close of the struggle, and escaped to Europe, whence he returned in 1863. He died at Lexington, 17th May 1875.

Brecknock, or BRECON, the capital of Brecknockshire, is situated in an open valley in the middle of the county, at the confluence of the Usk and Honddu, 183 miles W. by N. of London by rail, and 40 NE. of Swansea. It lies in the midst of fine mountain scenery, and has beautiful public walks, the triple-peaked Brecon Beacons (2910 feet) rising to the south. From 1536 to 1885 Brecon returned one member to parliament. Flannels, coarse woollens, and hats are manufactured. Pop. (1861) 5325; (1881) 6247. Bernard de Newmarch founded the town, and built a castle here in 1094. Henry VIII. in 1541 converted a Dominican friary into a college, which was rebuilt in 1864; the priory, now the parish church, was restored by Sir Gilbert Scott in 1862. The county-hall was built in 1843. Mrs Siddons, the actress, was a native.

Brecknockshire, or BRECON, an inland county of South Wales, to the south of Radnorshire, from which it is separated by the Wye. The maximum length is 39 miles; its breadth ranges between $11\frac{1}{2}$ and 30 miles; and its area is 719 sq. m., of which only 43 per cent. is cultivated. Brecknockshire is one of the most mountainous counties in South Wales, and has deep, beautiful, and

fertile valleys. Two principal mountain-chains, the highest in South Wales, culminating in the Brecon Beacons at a height of 2910 feet, intersect the county in the north and south, and occupy, with their offshoots, a great part of the surface. Old red sandstone occupies the south and middle of the county, and Silurian rocks the north. The chief rivers are the Wye and Usk; and Llangorse Lake covers nearly 1800 acres. The climate is moist but healthy among the mountains, and in the valleys comparatively mild. The agriculture, though still defective, especially in the higher districts, has been greatly improved by the Brecknockshire Agricultural Society, instituted in 1775. The chief crops are oats and barley, but wheat is also grown in Talgarth and Crickhowell, the most fertile districts of the county. The native small black-cattle are reared in the hills, while in the lowlands the Hereford breed predominates. The mineral produce is small, consisting of iron, especially along the south border; coal and limestone are also found in the south and west. The Brecon Canal connects the county with the Bristol Channel, and many railways have been constructed throughout the county. There are several small factories of woollens and worsted hosiery; also several important ironworks, but the ore is chiefly obtained from adjoining counties. Brecknockshire returns one member to parliament. Pop. (1801) 32,325; (1871) 61,627; (1881) 57,746. The chief towns are Brecon (the county town), Builth, Crickhowell, Hay, and Llanelli. There are many remains of British and Roman camps, Roman roads, cairns, cromlechs, mounds, and castles, throughout the county. Brecknockshire formed part of the territory of the Silures, who bravely withstood the Romans. The Normans, under Bernard de Newmarch, wrested the county from the Welsh princes in 1092. Llewellyn, the last British prince of Wales, was killed at Llanafanfychan, near Builth, in 1282, and by his fall the native mountain-chiefs were entirely subdued. Welsh is still the language of the middle-class and the peasantry. See Jones's *History of Brecknockshire* (2 vols. 1805-9).

Breda, a town of North Brabant, Holland, at the confluence of the navigable Mark and Aa, 60 miles ENE. of Flushing by rail, and 30 NNE. of Antwerp. It formerly possessed the means of laying the surrounding country under water in the event of an attack, but the importance of the town as a military position has passed away, and in 1876 the fortifications were removed. Its Gothic cathedral (1510) has an octagonal steeple 311 feet high, and several interesting monuments; whilst the castle (1350) received its present shape from William III. (1696), and in 1828 was converted into a military academy. There are manufactures of carpets, linen, hats, soap, leather, &c., and dye-works, breweries, and rope-walks. Pop. (1869) 14,765; (1883) 18,324. Breda is celebrated as the place where, in 1566, the protest of the Dutch nobles, known as the 'Compromise of Breda,' against the measures of Philip II. of Spain in the Netherlands, was presented and rejected. The 'Declaration of Breda' (April 1660) was Charles II.'s manifesto prior to the Restoration; whilst by the 'Treaty of Breda' (1667) between England, France, Holland, and Denmark, England got St Christopher, Antigua, and Montserrat, and France Acadia. Breda has suffered numerous sieges, having been captured by the Spaniards (1581), by the Dutch under Maurice of Orange (1590), by Spinola (1625), again by the Dutch (1632), and twice by the French (1793-95), who were finally driven out in 1813.

Brederode, HENRY, COUNT OF, born in Brussels, in December 1531, was a leader of the

disaffected nobility in the struggle against Spain. He drew up the 'Compromise' of 1566, and headed the deputation to whom the name Gueux (q.v.) was first applied. He was active in organising the fraternity, but the failure of an attempt, in the following year, to raise an armed revolt in Amsterdam, obliged him to flee to Germany, where he died at Recklinghausen, 24th August 1568.

Bree, MATTHIAS IGNATIUS VAN, a Flemish painter, was born at Antwerp in 1773, and in 1797 gained the *prix de Rome* by his 'Death of Cato.' In 1804 he returned to Antwerp, where he became director of the Academy of Fine Arts, and died 15th December 1839. His chief works are the 'Entrance of Napoleon into Antwerp,' the 'Death of Rubens,' in the Antwerp Museum, and the 'Patriotism of the Burgomaster at the Siege of Leyden, 1576,' in the town-house of Leyden.—His brother, PHILIPP JACOB VAN BREE (1786–1871), also acquired some reputation as an historical painter.

Breeches Bible. See BIBLE, p. 127, col. 2.

Breech-loading is the method of introducing the charge into a firearm at the breech instead of the muzzle. The breech is then closed by a block of metal which is held in its place by a hinge and lever, or by a bolt with a bayonet joint, in the case of small-arms, and in that of heavy guns by a screw or a wedge.

Military Small-arms.—The advantages of the breech-loading military rifle are very manifest. It enables a recruit to fire four times as fast as the best-drilled soldier armed with a muzzle-loader, and a cavalryman to load his carbine even at a gallop. The absence of Windage (q.v.) renders the action of the powder stronger and more uniform, thus increasing the range and accuracy of the weapon. The rapidity of fire can be still further increased by the addition of a magazine, as described under RIFLES (REPEATING).

The Prussian needle-gun (1841) was the first breech-loading rifle carried by European troops. Its breech is closed by a bolt carrying a long needle. This is driven by the hammer completely through the powder, and ignites it in front by striking a patch of fulminate placed at the base of the sabot which carries the bullet. The latter is oval, and fits the bore loosely, the sabot taking the grooves and causing it to rotate. The cartridge is of thin paper, and intended to be consumed on discharge, thus avoiding the necessity of extracting the empty case. The French Chassepôt (1866) is also a bolt-action breech-loader firing a paper cartridge ignited at the base.

The Sharp breech-loading carbine, long used by the cavalry in British India, has a similar consumable cartridge. The breech of each of these rifles is ineffectually closed, and the 'spitting' inconveniently great, in spite of an attempt, in the case of the Chassepôt, to prevent it by an india-rubber washer or ring; nor is the cartridge paper always consumed. The metallic cartridge (called by the French *cartouche obturatrice*), which 'obturates' and seals the breech at the moment of explosion, has now been universally adopted to remedy this defect.

The first re-armament (1866) of the British infantry with breech-loading weapons was effected by converting the Enfield rifle on the Snider principle; the result of experiments carried on with fifty different systems in 1864. The breech-action of this rifle is well described by its French name, *fusil à tabatière*. The breech-block is hinged on to the side of the barrel, and contains a piston or striker, by means of which a blow is communicated from the hammer to the cap at the base of the cartridge. After firing, the hammer is raised, and the breech-

block opened like a snuff-box. The block also slides upon its hinge, and when pulled towards the butt, catches the empty cartridge-case and loosens it, so that it can be thrown out.

The Martini breech-action, which superseded the Snider in 1871–74, and which is retained in the new Enfield-Martini rifle issued in 1888 to the British army, is a block and lever system. The lever, *c*, in fig. 1 is hinged behind the trigger-guard, and

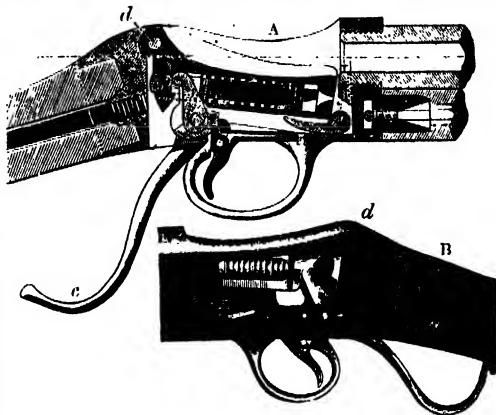


Fig. 1.—Enfield-Martini Breech :
A, in section ; B, with part of side plate removed.

free at the end next the stock. On being pulled down, away from the stock, this lever depresses the front end of the breech-block, hinged at *d*, which contains the striker, opens the breech, and compresses the spring, thus bringing the trigger to full-cock, and extracts the empty cartridge-case. A fresh cartridge being introduced, the block is returned to its place by the return movement of the lever, and the rifle is ready for firing. It can be locked for safety by means of a small bolt at the side.

As an example of the bolt-action, fig. 2 shows the German Mauser rifle. This action has been

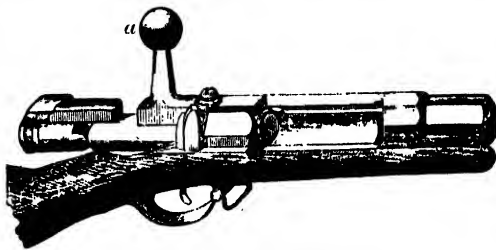


Fig. 2.—German Mauser Rifle.

adopted by all European nations, except Great Britain, as being simpler and more direct. To close the breech, the bolt, *a*, carrying a striker and extractor, is pushed forward and turned down to the right. After firing, the reverse process opens the breech and extracts the cartridge.

Other diagrams of breech-loading small-arms will appear under RIFLES, but all follow the two types above described. Revolvers (q.v.) usually have a breech-action similar to that of sporting guns, the barrels falling, and thus opening the breech and extracting the cartridge-cases.

Artillery.—The difficulty of closing the breech in a simple and effectual manner, especially with heavy guns, the structural complications involved, the impossibility of using a simple time Fuse (q.v.), owing to absence of Windage (q.v.), and the greater

cost, were long the chief objections to breech-loading artillery. Krupp (1812-87), in Germany, always advocated this construction, and in 1859 the Armstrong breech-loading system was introduced into the British service, only, however, to be abandoned in favour of muzzle-loading some six years later. Other nations gradually re-armed their artillery with breech-loaders, and in 1880 breech-loading field-guns began again to be made at Woolwich Arsenal; in 1888 the heaviest guns were being so constructed. The reasons given are chiefly due to

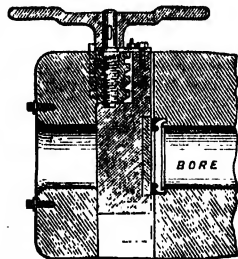


Fig. 3.—Section of Krupp Breech.

fortress and naval requirements. The immense power necessary to pierce modern ships' armour is obtained by using a slow-burning powder, requiring the projectile to be held fast until a pressure of from 1 to 2 tons per square inch is set up in the powder chamber, which can only be done in a breech-loader. The power of the gun is increased by making it longer, and many such guns are placed in turrets, or other confined spaces, where their length prevents their being loaded at the muzzle. The use of the so-called obturator has met the difficulty of satisfactorily closing the breech. The advantages include better cover for the gunners, reduced size of the embrasure, less smoke in the turret or casemate, easier examination of bore, enlarged powder chamber, economy in refining, &c., as against greater first cost, expense of renewing breech-fittings, and their greater liability to injury on service.

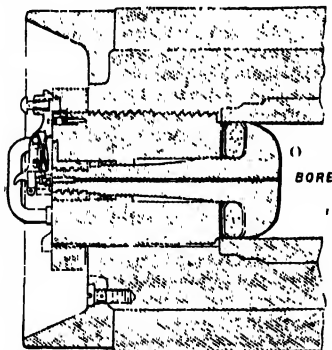


Fig. 4.—Section showing Obturator.

There are practically only three methods of closing the breech of a gun—viz. the *screw*, the *wedge*, and the *interrupted screw*. In the Armstrong screw-gun, shown in fig. 5, the breech is closed

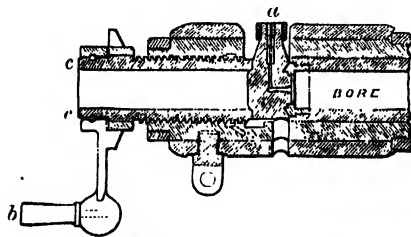


Fig. 5.—Armstrong Breech.

by a 'vent-piece,' *a*, held in its place by a hollow 'breech-screw,' *c*, through which the gun is loaded; the lever, *b*, being used to screw it up firmly. A copper face to the edge of the vent-piece, or a tin cup in front of it, more completely closes the breech, and is the earliest form of 'obturator.' The *wedge* breech-action invented by Lord Armstrong con-

sisted of two wedges sliding on their sides in a slot, and also a heavy sliding handle arranged to act as a hammer, and so tighten the wedges, which, when loose, could be drawn out sufficiently to admit the charge. Very few guns were made with this action.

The Krupp breech system, shown in fig. 3, has a round-backed wedge pushed in from the side, and forced firmly home by a screw and lever handle. Its face carries a removable flat plate, which presses against a Broadwell ring let into the end of the bore. It is axial vented, like all modern heavy breech-loading guns.

The *interrupted screw* system (fig. 6) has been adopted by the French, by the Royal Gun Factories at Woolwich, and the Elswick Ordnance Company (Armstrong, Mitchell, & Co.). It consists of a solid steel breech-block furnished with a screw-thread of the requisite pitch and strength fitting into a similar female screw in the gun. The surface of the block is divided longitudinally into six or eight equal

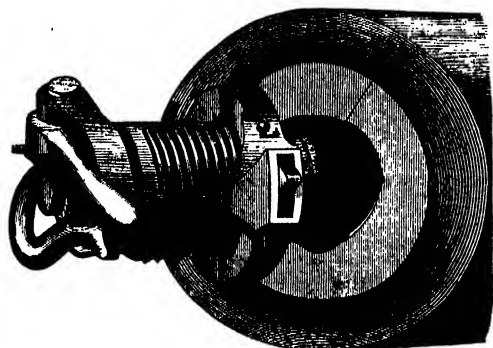


Fig. 6.—Elevation of Breech (open).

parts, and the screw-thread planed away from alternate portions. In the gun the parts corresponding to the smooth portions are left, and those between them slotted away. A turn of one-sixth or one-eighth of a circle enables the block to be drawn out, and a carrier, hinged to the side, swings it clear of the bore. The bearing surface, and consequent strength of the screw, is reduced one-half by this method, but this can be compensated for by increasing its length, which would not appreciably affect the time occupied in opening or closing the breech, or by making it conical, and forming the screw-threads in steps, with the blank spaces on one opposite the screw-threads on the other. Additional mechanism and extra leverage are supplied when the size of the gun requires it.

The obturator, *O* in fig. 4, the invention of De Bange, of the French artillery, is similar in the French, Woolwich, and Elswick guns, but the latter sometimes have a different pattern, called the 'Elswick-cup.' Some safety arrangements, making it impossible to fire the gun until the breech-block is screwed home, are common to all three. See CANNON, FIREARMS, GUN, REVOLVER, and RIFLE.

Breech-loading Sporting Guns are made on a totally different principle, called the drop-down action. Nearly every maker has a patent for different details, but almost all are founded on the Lefauchaux action, invented in 1825. This consists of a piece of steel called the 'lump,' securely fastened to the under-side of the breech end of the barrels, and about 2 or 2½ inches long; the fore end of this lump is hinged by means of a pin to the corresponding part of the breech-piece (*d, c, f*, fig. 7) at *d*, and on this hinge the barrels are moved in opening and shutting the breech. The lump is, in

most guns, cut into two divisions, *c*, which fit into slots in the breech-piece, and both parts have notches, into which an ingenious arrangement called, from the inventor, a 'Purdey' bolt, snaps when shut. An additional grip to add solidity is also generally provided in various forms of an extension of the top rib, *b*. The modern breech-loading sporting gun is generally made hammerless—i.e. without outside hammers, but the locks, which are let into slots in the breech-piece, are usually made, more or less, on the old principle. A main-spring, on the pull of the trigger, explodes the cap in the rear end of the cartridge by means of a hammer, either acting directly through a hole in the breech (as in the Anson and Deeley lock), or by means of a detached rod inserted in the hole.

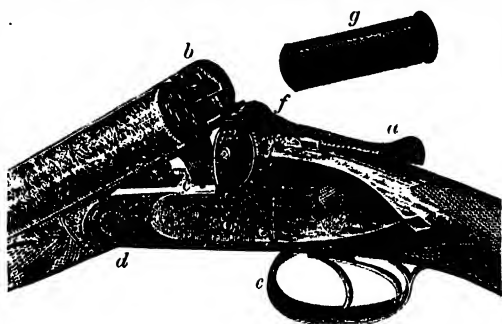


Fig. 7.—Greener's Self-acting Ejector Gun.

Fig. 7 represents one of the many first-class breech-actions, Greener's self-acting ejector gun. A movement of the top lever, *a*, to the right, simultaneously slides the cross bolt from the hole in the extension top rib, *b*, withdraws the double Purdey bolt from the lump, and the barrels tilt over. Swivels attached to either side of the rear end of the lump cock the hammers ready for firing again; a lever at the same time ejects the used cartridge-case. The figure shows the gun as opened after firing the right barrel, from which the cartridge-case, *g*, is being ejected. When the breech is closed, all the bolts snap into their places. There is a safety arrangement on the side of the gun, acting on the trigger, and another automatically obstructing the fall of the hammer, which prevent the gun being accidentally discharged. See GUN; also J. H. Walsh's ('Stonehenge') *Modern Sportsmen's Gun and Rifle* (1882-84); W. W. Greener's *Gun and its Development* (1881), and his *Modern Shot Guns* (1888).

Breed, a term applied to varieties of animals which have been developed more or less directly under human control. Since organisms are liable to change, even the encroachment of civilisation on their old habitats is liable to cause variation. When useful animals are subjugated or tamed by man, when they are brought under the changed conditions of domesticated life, and above all, when their coupling is controlled by human selection, distinct breeds arise. Some breeds have doubtless arisen unintentionally, or as we say naturally, others have from the first been subject to man's purposeful improvement. Some have been formed very slowly and insensibly (e.g. race-horse, greyhound, gamecock, carrier-pigeon), while others have appeared as sudden, more or less abnormal and pathological, variations (e.g. ancon and mawchamp sheep, turnspits, pug-dogs, short-faced tumbler-pigeons). The slowly formed varieties, arising, like most of the species in nature, by steady progress in some definite direction, are more permanent; the more sudden sports and fancy forms are less fixed,

and are more apt to revert to the primitive type, or to vary again in some new direction. From zoological analogies, from the occurrence of reversions, and from definite historical evidence, it is now regarded as certain that very many of the domestic varieties or breeds with which we are familiar have descended from a common stock. The domesticated cattle, dogs, fowls, horses, pigs, sheep, &c., are regarded zoologically as variations of one or a few species. The old notion of a distinct origin for each distinct breed is no longer seriously maintained. Their history in general terms has always been the same: wild forms were domesticated, were allowed to breed among themselves, further variations were selected as more fit, reversions were thrown out, and desired forms stereotyped by controlled coupling.

History.—Domestication began in the early savage state. Only a few animals were tried, because few were capable of taming, few promised direct usefulness, and only a few could endure domestication without loss of fertility. The animals thus domesticated in different localities varied very greatly in their new conditions, and as the fitter variations were selected for breeding, numerous sub-breeds arose, and the variety as a whole came to vary more and more markedly from the original wild forms. In some cases, different wild species—e.g. of dog, ox, pig—were in this way subjugated and changed, and thus we have distinct domestic species. In other cases the same wild species would in its domestication in diverse localities experience different changes, and thus different domestic varieties of the same species occur in various countries. As the animals continued—with increased rapidity indeed—to vary under the manifold influences of domestication, the breeder might set apart one set of variations for one purpose, another set for another, and thus a breed became split up into various sub-breeds. For the detailed history of the different breeds, the reader must consult the various articles dealing with domesticated animals—e.g. CATTLE, DOG, HORSE, SHEEP.—What is true of animals is also true of plants, whether cereals, vegetables, or decorative flowers, though the word breed is not usually extended to vegetable organisms. De Candolle's treatise on the *Origin of Cultivated Plants* (Inter. Science Series, 1884) may be profitably consulted on this subject.

Theory of Breeds.—While the whole subject of domestication will be elsewhere discussed (see DOMESTICATION), some general facts in the formation of breeds must be noticed. (a) The whole process is started by the liability of organisms to change, either (1) in the line of their constitutional tendencies (e.g. increase of fat, hair, decoration, strength, swiftness), or (2) as the direct result of novel external conditions, or (3) in consequence of the increased use or disuse of various structures. (b) The process is sustained by restricting the pairing to organisms of similar constitution. If a variety were allowed to pair with another of a very different tendency, the result would be that the desired variation would in all probability be less marked in the offspring. The secret of breeding is of course to couple those forms from which a continuance of the peculiar features of the breed may be most probably expected. Sexual reproduction, being the mingling of different experiences, is in itself an abundant source of variation, hence the importance of pairing similar forms. To analyse the results of domestication is a complex problem, for the influence of constitutional variability, of restricted or selected sexual range, of changed environment, of altered function, have all to be kept in view. The process of breed-forming is only a special case of what goes on in nature's species-forming, with those important differences,

that the life is artificially conditioned, the habits artificially restricted, the sexual reproduction artificially selected. By artificial, we describe conditions which do not find any accurate parallel in nature when unrestricted by human interference. In drawing analogies between the origin of breeds and the origin of species, it must also be remembered that the number and range of domesticated animals is comparatively small, that the variations desired by man concern for the most part the vegetative or nutritive as opposed to the reproductive system, and that in many cases the domesticated males are only in exceptional forms allowed to become reproductive at all.

Variations of Breeds.—While many of the peculiarities which distinguish the various breeds and sub-breeds are very slight, 'no part of the organisation escapes the tendency to vary.' The skin and its outgrowths of hair, feathers, horns, wattles, &c., vary extremely in form, texture, colour, and degree of development. The wool of sheep, the plumes of fowls and canaries, the horns of cattle, the wattle of the carrier-pigeon, are familiar examples. The webbing of the feet of water-dogs is also an instructive case. The muscular system also varies, especially in response to increased use or disuse. What happens in men following different trades, happens similarly in domesticated animals, such as beasts of burden, when habituated for generations to special services. The drooping of the ears is also an illustration of frequent muscular change. The skeleton, too, varies, as is well pointed out by Darwin in the case of pig, niata ox, rabbit, fowls, pigeons, &c. By attending to such trivial characters as the form of the comb or the plume of feathers on the head, the breeder has given ridges to the skull. The various breeds of short-legged animals (e.g. sheep and dogs) illustrate considerable modifications of the skeleton. The teeth also exhibit many variations in domestic animals. The alimentary system and other internal organs are not such that the breeder can direct much attention to the increase or decrease of their tendencies, but they do vary for all that. The lungs and liver of improved breeds of cattle are found by Professor Tanner 'to be considerably reduced in size when compared with those possessed by animals having perfect liberty.' In the case of the pouter pigeon, the zeal of the breeder for the peculiar form characteristic of that variety of bird, has enormously increased the width of the esophagus. The changed conditions of life frequently render the reproductive organs more or less impotent. Many other modifications of internal structure, even of the brain, have been recorded. For a detailed account of the various direct and indirect influences of man's control of animals, Darwin's work on the *Variation of Plants and Animals under Domestication* must be consulted, and also such works on the structure of our domestic animals as are referred to under special articles. It hardly needs to be pointed out that the characters due directly to breeding—i.e. to intentional control—must be distinguished from those which are simply the secondary results of that change of life which is expressed in domestication.

Practical Breeding.—On this subject works on animal culture must obviously be consulted. The general theory is simple, the practical details numerous. Since many desired variations are still unstable, the breeder has constantly to be on the watch that these do not revert under changed conditions, or become washed out by careless coupling. To preserve a given peculiarity, similar forms must be paired, and yet this 'breeding in and in' may be pursued too far to the degeneration of the stock. Too great attention to non-reproductive characters, in the anxiety to spread and

stereotype some desired feature, may tend to general reproductive impotency. When a variation crops up which is novel and desirable, the breeder has to segregate the varying forms, and by controlling the range of reproduction, manufacture a new sub-breed. That this has been repeatedly done is demonstrated by the history of breeds. It seems tolerably certain, however, that only constitutional variations can be transmitted to the offspring, and not such as may be impressed from without upon the parent. The latter may indeed become part of the hereditary capital if the external condition inciting change persist through a series of generations. When this is so, the externally impressed variation becomes deeply rooted, saturates through the organism, becomes part of the constitution, affects the reproductive elements, and may be then transmitted. See HEREDITY.

The whole subject of breeds is one of immense practical and theoretical importance. Without our existing breeds of domesticated animals, from silkworms to horses, human life would be a very different matter. And while the experimental energy of breeders has in some cases become an enthusiastic craze, this same energy has vastly increased the wealth of those civilised countries where the subject receives most attention. The body of experimental fact now accumulated has raised the practice of breeding from the more or less haphazard affair of earlier days to a practical art, in which skill and patient care can (within certain limits) insure any desired result. To the biologist again, the subject is one of unbounded interest. For, in the annals of breeding, as Darwin's patient investigations first emphatically showed, he has the record of a vast series of experiments on the origin of species. On the problems of variation, of environmental influence, and of hereditary transmission, the facts accumulated by breeders have shed and are shedding a great flood of light. See CANARY, CATTLE, DOG, DOMESTICATION, ENVIRONMENT, FOWL, HEREDITY, HORSE, PIGEON, SHEEP, VARIATION, &c.

Bredé, a river in Cape Colony, rises in the Warm-Bokkeveld, and flows chiefly in a south-east direction through the district of Zwellendam, entering the Indian Ocean at St Sebastian's Bay, about 60 miles N.E. of Cape Agulhas, the most southerly point of Africa. It is navigable for vessels drawing not more than 10 feet of water to a distance of 40 miles, and drains a very fertile district.

Bregenz, a town of Austria, capital of the district of Vorarlberg, is picturesquely situated on the east shore of the Lake of Constance, 6 miles S.E. of Lindau by rail. The opening of the Arlberg Railway (1884) increased its importance. The ancient *Brigantium*, it was an important Roman station, and was for several centuries one of the chief fortified places in Southern Germany. During the Thirty Years' War, the Swedes in 1646 stormed and captured the fortress. Pop. (1880) 4736.

Brehm, ALFRED EDMUND, naturalist, was born 2d February 1829, at Renthendorf, in Thuringia, and was son of the pastor there, Christian Ludwig Brehm (1787–1864), a great ornithologist. Young Brehm travelled five years in Africa, then went to Jena and Vienna to study natural science. He subsequently travelled in Spain, Norway, Lapland, Siberia, and Turkestan, became keeper of the Hamburg Zoological Garden in 1863, in 1867 founded the Berlin Aquarium, and died in his native place, 11th November 1884. His *magnum opus* is the *Illustriertes Thierleben* (2d ed. 10 vols. 1876–79).

Brehon Laws, the name given by the English to the system of jurisprudence which prevailed among the native Irish from an early period till

towards the middle of the 17th century. The *breitheamhuin* (pronounced *brei-hoo-in* or *brehon*), from whom the laws have received their name, are supposed to have been hereditary judges, who administered justice among the members of their tribe seated in the open air, upon a few sods, on a hill or rising ground. The poet Spenser in his *View of the State of Ireland*, written in 1596, describes the Brehon Laws as 'a rule of right unwritten, but delivered by tradition from one to another, in which oftentimes there appeareth great share of equity in determining the right between party and party, but in many things repugning quite both to God's law and man's: as, for example, in the case of murder, the brehon—i.e. their judge—will compound between the murderer and the friends of the party murdered, which prosecute the action, that the malefactor shall give unto them, or to the child or wife of him that is slain, a recompense, which they call an *eric*; by which vile law of theirs many murders amongst them are made up and smothered.' Spenser was ignorant that pecuniary compensation for manslaughter had obtained in the ancient laws as well of England as of most European nations. He was mistaken, too, in believing that the Brehon Laws were an unwritten code. Among numerous portions of manuscript collections of the Brehon Laws still existing in public and private libraries may be mentioned those of the Royal Irish Academy, Trinity College, Dublin, the British Museum, and the Bodleian. These manuscripts are regarded as varying in date from the early part of the 14th to the close of the 16th century. For the laws themselves a much higher antiquity is claimed. Portions of them are referred to in compilations of the 10th century, and it may be, as has been suggested, that the redaction of them in their present form was due to Cormac Mac Cuilleannain (killed 903 A.D.), king and archbishop of Cashel, a man of great learning and energy; but of this there is no actual record. The recension of the code, known as the *Seanchus Mor*, is traditionally ascribed to St Patrick (5th century), who is said to have expunged from the laws all institutions savouring of heathenism; and here again we are met with references to written laws dating from the reign of Cormac Mac Art (3d century). The language in which the Brehon Laws are composed is Ancient Irish, and though in general intelligible enough, it is sometimes rendered obscure by technical and obsolete legal terms, of which the exact meaning is uncertain.

The form of society presupposed by the laws is such as is known to have existed in Ireland in the earliest historic times. The basis of it is the tribe, and the principal occupation is the pasturage of cattle or the tillage of the soil. The whole community is arranged in a graded system of monarchs, provincial kings, chiefs, proprietors, clansmen, and serfs of an alien race. The land seems to have been divided into two parts, one as common pasture ground, the other portioned out among the chiefs and other tribal dignitaries, with the poorer clansmen and serfs holding as tenants under a proprietor. The use of coined money is apparently unknown, as fines and valuations are represented in terms of so many head of cattle.

Every part of life comes within the range of the law; there are regulations for the fostering of the children of the nobles, for their food and education, for their dress and its quality, along with ordinances regulating the holding of courts and the giving of evidence. And in the midst of all this, there survive the remains of a pagan past not yet eradicated by Christianity, such as the laws of marriage and magical ordeals. In 1852 a Royal Commission was appointed 'to

direct, superintend, and carry into effect the transcription and translation of the ancient laws of Ireland, and the preparation of the same for publication.' The commissioners intrusted the transcription and translation of the Brehon Laws to the two most eminent Irish scholars—Dr John O'Donovan, professor of Celtic in the Queen's College at Belfast, and Eugene O'Curry, professor of Irish Archaeology in the Roman Catholic university of Ireland. Four volumes have appeared under various editors—the last in 1885—under the title of *Ancient Laws and Institutes of Ireland*. Along with the Irish text, an English translation is given, accompanied with preliminary dissertations and indexes, and they give a vivid and characteristic picture of the polity and social life of a Celtic people.

Breisach, ALT, a town of Baden, situated on an isolated basalt hill (804 feet) on the right side of the Rhine, 14 miles W. of Freiburg. The *Mons Brisiacus* of Caesar, it was taken by Ariovistus when he invaded Gaul; being regarded as the key to the west of Germany, it figured prominently in the wars of the 17th and 18th centuries. The minster is a 13th century structure, with several old monuments. Pop. (1885) 3106.

Breisgau, a German district which in the middle ages extended along the right bank of the Rhine, from the episcopal territory of Strasburg to Basel, embracing Freiburg and the southern Black Forest. Since 1810 it has been part of Baden.

Breitenfeld, a village of Saxony, 5 miles N. of Leipzig, remarkable for three battles fought in its neighbourhood. In the first, fought on the 17th September (old style, 7th) 1631, Gustavus Adolphus inflicted a decisive defeat upon the imperialists under Tilly, who, as well as his generals, Pappenheim and Fürstenberg, was wounded. The second battle was also a victory of the Swedes under Torstenson over the imperial forces under the Archduke Leopold and Piccolomini, 2d November (old style, 23d October) 1642. The third battle was one act of the great 'Battle of the Nations' at Leipzig, 16th October 1813.

Bremen, one of the three free cities of Germany, is situated on the Weser, 39 miles by rail SSE. of its port, Bremerhaven, and 76 miles NW. of Hanover. Pop. (1875) 102,177; (1885) 118,615, or with suburbs, 130,439, nearly all Protestants. Bremen is divided into the Old and the New Town—the former on the right, the latter (dating from 1620) on the left bank of the river, which is spanned by four bridges. The ramparts and bastions round the old town have been levelled and formed into public promenades, which are laid out with excellent taste. Among the principal buildings, the cathedral (1043-70; reconstructed 13th to 17th centuries; being restored in 1888), the Gothic town-hall (1409), with its famous wine-cellar, said to contain hock of the vintage of 1624, the 'Schütting' or guildhall (1537), the exchange, the museum, the post-office, and the observatory of Dr Olbers, from which he discovered the planets Pallas and Vesta, are remarkable. Its position makes Bremen the emporium of Brunswick, Hesse, and other countries through which the Weser flows. Besides its excellent water-communication, it is connected by railways with the whole of Western and Central Germany. Bremen is an exceedingly thriving place, and now ranks as the second commercial city in Germany. Large vessels stop at Bremerhaven, and only ships not drawing more than 7 feet of water can come up to the town itself; but a comprehensive scheme for the deepening of the river-bed has been prepared, with which some

progress has been made in the neighbourhood of the town since 1885. Bremen carries on an extensive commerce with Great Britain, North and South America, the West Indies, Africa, the East Indies, and China. Its great foreign trade, however, is with the United States, from which alone, in 1885, it imported produce of the estimated value of £7,320,000, exporting in return goods to the value of £4,530,000. Bremen ships about 50 per cent. of all emigrants sailing from Germany, principally to the United States; in 1885 it forwarded 52,000 out of a total of 110,000. The total number of vessels arriving at Bremen in 1885 was about 2500, with a tonnage of above 1,000,000 tons; the tonnage cleared was rather smaller. The number of ships belonging to the port in 1886 was 357, with a burden of 319,213 tons. In 1885 the value of the imports amounted to £24,760,000, exports to £24,000,000; the average for the five years preceding was nearly £2,000,000 higher; whereas in the year 1858 the imports were valued at only £8,237,000, and the exports at about £8,000,000. The chief imports are tobacco, coffee, sugar, cotton, rice, skins, dyewoods, wines, petroleum, timber, and hemp. The exports consist of woollen goods, linens, glass, rags, wool, hemp, hides, oil-cake, colours, and wooden toys. Large quantities of tobacco are re-exported. There are manufactures of woollens and cottons, cigars, paper, and starch, and breweries, distilleries, rice-mills, and sugar-refineries. The cigar and sugar manufactures have of late declined, the former owing to the increase of duty. Bremen is the headquarters of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company (1857), and has steam-communication with all parts of the world.

Bremen first became of historical note in the 8th century, when it was erected into a bishopric by Charlemagne. It soon attained considerable commercial importance, and became one of the principal cities of the Hanseatic League (q.v.). It frequently suffered at the hands of the French, and was in 1810 incorporated with that empire; but recovered its independence in 1813, and by the Congress of Vienna was admitted in 1815 as one of the Hanse towns into the Germanic confederation. In 1867 it became a member of the North German confederation, and now it forms part of the German empire. In 1884 it agreed to a surrender of its privileges as a free port, to take effect from 1st October 1888; but certain new docks and warehouses (the *Freihafen Gebiet*), as well as the Bremerhaven docks, are excepted from this arrangement. The area of the territory is about 100 sq. m.; pop., including the town of Bremen (1885), 165,628. The government is intrusted to a senate of 16 members, 2 of whom are chosen burgomasters, and to a municipal council of 150 burgesses.

Bremer, FREDRIKA, the well-known Swedish novelist, was born at Thoria near Abo, in Finland, 17th August 1801; and was brought up at Arsta, about 20 miles from Stockholm. At seventeen she was taken for her health a tour through Germany, Switzerland, and France. Soon after, the poetry of Schiller set her young imagination aglow, and the restlessness of her temperament drove her to writing—the only outlet for her energy that was open to her. In 1828 appeared the first volume of her *Sketches of Everyday Life*, but the second volume, *The H. Family* (1833; Eng. trans. 1844), first revealed her power. From this time she devoted herself to writing stories that quickly became popular in translations far beyond the bounds of Sweden, and she varied her literary labour by long journeys in Italy, England, the United States, Greece, Palestine, which supplied the materials for her *Homes of the New World* (1853), and *Life in the Old World* (1862), full of

fine descriptions of scenery and vivid pictures of social life, with sound views on political and moral questions. The admirable translations of Mary Howitt had preceded her in America as well as England, and insured her an equally warm welcome on both sides of the Atlantic. On her return to Sweden she gave herself up to philanthropy, but more particularly to the education and emancipation of women, and the consequent propagandist character of her later novels, *Bertha* and *Father and Daughter* (1859), was detrimental in no small degree to their literary value. Her religious views she set forth in her *Morning Watches* (1842). She spent her last years at Arsta, and died there 31st December 1865. Her Life and Letters were edited by her sister in 1868, and were at once translated into English and German. She has been called, and not imaptly, the Jane Austen of Sweden. She resembled the English novelist in delicacy, shrewdness, and love of quiet domestic incident, but fell far short of that subtlety in simplicity which is the secret of her charm, and that marvellous insight into women, if not men, on which depends her power. Of Miss Bremer's stories perhaps the most perfect is *The Neighbours* (1837; Eng. 1844). *The Diary; The President's Daughters; Brothers and Sisters; and Strife and Peace, or Scenes in Dalccurlia*, are only less popular.

Bremerhaven, the port of Bremen, on the east shore of the Weser estuary, nearly 10 miles from the open sea, and 39 NNW. of Bremen. It was founded by Bremen in 1827 on ground acquired from Hanover, and rapidly became a thriving place. A second dock was opened in 1860, a third in 1874; and in 1888 a great port, with docks, was undertaken at Nordleham, on the opposite bank. A dreary place, with its music-halls and beershops, Bremerhaven was the scene in 1875 of a dynamite outrage, the premature explosion of a mail steamship, by which 60 persons were killed. The Geeste separates it from Geestemünde (q.v.). Pop. (1850) 3500; (1885) 14,797.

Brendan, St., of Clonfert, born at Tralee in 484, studied under St. Jarlath of Tuam, and was ordained by Bishop Erc. His name is memorable chiefly for his voyages in search of 'the mysterious land far from human ken.' After seven years' fruitless wandering he returned, but once more, in a ship of wood instead of hides, set sail with sixty friends, and at length after many wanderings reached 'that paradise amid the waves of the sea.' Brendan founded a monastery at what is now Clonfert, and died in 577 in the ninety-fourth year of his age. His festival is on the 16th of May. The *Navigation of St. Brendan* was a very popular book in Western Europe as early as the 11th century, but the two voyages were compressed into one, and many other adventures added. In maps before Columbus' day, 'St. Brendan's country' is placed to the south of the island of Antilia and west of the Cape Verde Islands. See Schröder's *Saint Brendan* (Erlangen, 1871).

Brenner Pass, a pass in the Central Tyrol Alps, on the road between Innsbruck and Botzen, connecting Germany with the north-east of Italy. It is the lowest pass which crosses the main chain of the Alps, the summit being only 4588 feet above the level of the sea. Lofty mountains rise above it, but the scenery is less sublime and less interesting than that of any other of the great passes of the Alps. It is open at all seasons of the year. At the summit of the pass the traveller finds in close contiguity the Eisach, a small stream, which, after growing to be a considerable river, joins the Adige and the Sill, a tributary of the Inn; the

one stream flowing to the Adriatic, and the other into the Black Sea. In 1867 a railway through the pass was opened, and thus a complete line of railway communication was established between Germany and Italy. This work was begun by the Austrian government when Venetia belonged to the Austrian empire. The distance from Innsbruck to Botzen in a direct line is only 52 miles, but frequent windings extend the railway to 78 miles. It passes over numerous viaducts and bridges, and through twenty-seven tunnels, one of which has a length of 935 yards. This line is still the shortest route between the eastern half of Germany and Italy, though it has now a rival in the St Gothard Railway.

Brennus, the Latinised form of a Celtic royal title.—(1) The leader of the Senonian Gauls who, in 300 B.C., crossed the Apennines and overthrew on the banks of the Allia (q.v.) the Roman army. On their entry into Rome the Gauls found that most of the inhabitants had fled save the senators, who, with pathetic heroism, had resolved not to survive the destruction of their homes. Clothed in their robes of dignity or office, and sitting in their curule chairs, they waited the approach of their enemies, and received their death in majestic silence. Brennus plundered the city and besieged the capitol for six months, during which time occurred the famous night-attack, which would have been successful had not the cackling of the geese in Juno's temple awakened the garrison. The Romans were at length compelled to treat with the besiegers. They offered a thousand pounds of gold for their ransom, which was agreed to. To counterpoise the gold, Brennus flung his sword into the opposite scale, crying as he did so, *Vae victis* ('woe to the vanquished'). But Camillus, who had been recalled from banishment and appointed dictator, appeared with his soldiers in the nick of time, at once set on the enemy, and after a desperate struggle cut them off to a man. According to Polybius the Gauls returned home in safety with their booty.—(2) The Gallic chief who invaded Greece, 279 B.C., at the head of 150,000 foot and 20,000 horse. After desolating Macedonia, he forced his way through Thessaly to Thermopylae, and hurried on to Delphi with a view to plunder. The Delphians bravely resisted, and aided by an earthquake and a terrible storm, besides the supernatural help of Apollo, they utterly routed the Gauls, who fled in dismay. Brennus was taken prisoner, and drank himself to death in his despair.

Brenta (*Medoacus Major*), a river of North Italy, issuing from a small lake in the Tyrol, and flowing 120 miles southward and eastward through the Venetian territory, till it falls into the Gulf of Venice at the haven of Brondolo. The old bed of the river was made use of as a canal, which forms the chief communication by water between Venice and Padua; while the Brenta is but little used for navigation.

Brentano, CLEMENS, romanticist, the brother of Goethe's 'Bettina', was born at Frankfort in 1778. Save for the six years (1818-24) that he passed with the 'Nun of Dülmen,' recording her revelations, he led a restless, unsettled life, and showed plain signs of derangement some years before his death at Aschaffenburg on 28th June 1842. In his earliest poems the peculiarities of the Romantic school of his time are carried to excess. His dramatic productions, the best of which is *Die Gründung Prags*, are characterised by great dramatic power, amusing though rather far-fetched wit, and a wonderful flow of humour. Brentano was most successful in his smaller novels, particularly in the *Geschichte vom braven Kaspar*. His

collected works fill 9 vols. (1852-55), and there is a good selection by Diel (1873), who has also written his *Life* (1878). See also ARNIM, LUDWIG VON.

Brentano, LUJO, political economist, was born at Aschaffenburg, in Bavaria, 18th December 1844. He studied at Dublin, and at four German universities; and after attaining a post in the royal statistical seminary in Berlin, went to England to study the condition of the working-classes, and especially trades' associations and unions. The outcome of this was his work *On the History and Development of English Guilds* (Lond. 1870); *Die Arbeitergilden der Gegenwart* (2 vols. Leip. 1871-72). He became professor of his subject at Breslau, and in 1882 at Strasburg. He gave his support to the 'Socialists of the chair' (*Kathedersozialisten*) against the German free-trade school, and has written works on wages (1877), labour in relation to land (1877), and compulsory insurance for workmen (1881), on the English Chartists, on the Christian Socialist movement in England (2d ed. Leip. 1883), and numerous polemical pamphlets.

Brentford, the county town of Middlesex, 10 miles W. of Paddington station, at the influx of the Brent to the Thames, which is crossed here by a bridge leading to Kew. Consisting chiefly of one long irregular street, it has figured in literature, not always creditably. Falstaff disguises himself as a 'fat woman of Brentford.' Cowper and others allude to its 'two kings on one throne.' Thomson calls it 'a town of mud;' Gay has spoken of its 'dirty streets;' and its modern condition is not irreproachable. It has gin-distilleries, a brewery, sawmills, a soap-work, the Grand Junction Waterworks, the terminus of the Grand Junction Canal, and railway docks. There are many market-gardens in the vicinity. Here Edmund Ironside defeated the Danes in 1016, after expelling them from London; in 1558 six martyrs were burned at the stake; and in 1642 the Royalists under Rupert defeated the Parliamentarians under Colonel Hollis. Pop. (1881) 11,808.

Brent Goose, or BRENT BARNACLE (*Bernicla brenta*), a species of wild goose, breeding in the far north, coming south in winter in great numbers, and often shot along British and other coasts. It is common in markets. The head, neck, long wing-feathers, and tail are black, the belly white, the rest slaty gray. It is often called the black goose. It lives on marine plants and small animals. There are twelve other species—e.g. *B. leucopsis* and *B. ruficollis*. See BARNACLE GOOSE, GOOSE.

Brentwood, a market-town in Essex, 10 miles SW. of Chelmsford by rail, stands on an eminence in a well-wooded country. It has a richly endowed grammar-school, founded by Sir Anthony Browne, Chief-justice of England, in 1567. There are remains of an old chapel, dedicated in 1221 to St Thomas à Becket. Pop. (1881) 4653.

Brenz, JOHANN, the Reformer of Württemberg, was born 24th June 1499, at Weil, in Swabia, and went in his thirteenth year to study at Heidelberg. From Luther's visit to Heidelberg in 1518 he became his zealous adherent, and after his appointment as a preacher in the imperial free city of Hall, in Swabia (1522), he openly attached himself to the Reformation. He was at the Marburg Disputation in 1529, and the Diet of Augsburg in 1530, and in 1536 was summoned by Duke Ulrich to Württemberg to lead the Reformation there. For his energetic opposition to the Interim of Charles V. he was forced to flee to Stuttgart, where in 1553 he became 'propst' (or superintendent), and died 11th September 1570. Brenz was co-author of the Württemberg Confession of Faith, and his Catechism (1551) has held the next place to that of Luther in Protestant Germany. Right

volumes of his collected works were published in 1576-90. See his biography by Hartmann (1862).

Brescia, a city of Italy, in Lombardy, 51 miles E. of Milan by rail. It is romantically situated on the rivers Mella and Garza, in a wide fertile plain, at the base of several hills, on the summit of one of which is an old castle formerly known as the Falcon of Lombardy. The city is for the most part regularly built, and besides two cathedrals—the old (dating from the 7th century), and the new (1604-1825)—it has numerous ancient churches, and the Tosi Gallery or Town Museum, adorned with pictures and frescoes, including many by masters of the Venetian school. The old Broletto Palace dates from the 12th century. A valuable public library, the *Biblioteca Quiriniana*, was founded and nobly endowed in 1750 by Cardinal Quirini; it contains 40,000 volumes, with many rare manuscripts. The Temple of Hercules, built by Vespasian, and excavated in 1822, forms a repository for classical antiquities. The cemetery, founded in 1810, is regarded as the finest in Italy. A statue of Arnold (q.v.) of Brescia was unveiled in 1882. Brescia has manufactures of woollens, silk, leather, paper, arms, cutlery, &c., and its wine is of good quality. Brescia, whose old name was *Brixia*, is supposed to have been founded by the Etruscans; it was a town of the Cenomani, and its inhabitants were allied with the Romans when Hannibal crossed the Alps. It was captured by the Huns, and passed through the hands of Lombards, Charlemagne, the Franks, the Germans, and was taken by the French under Gaston de Foix in 1512. The republic of Venice held it till its own downfall in 1797. In March 1849, Brescia, as the only important town opposed to Austrian rule in Lombardy, was besieged by Haynau, and forced to capitulate. The city and province were incorporated with the kingdom of Italy after the war of 1859. Pop. (1881) 43,354.

Breslau, the capital of Prussian Silesia, 150 miles SE. of Frankfort-on-Oder by rail, is situated at the confluence of the Ohlau and Oder, which divides it into two parts, connected by numerous handsome bridges. The fortifications were converted in 1813 into beautiful promenades, and the ditch has been transformed into an ornamental sheet of water. The streets of the new portion of Breslau are spacious and regular, and the houses stately and handsome, affording a pleasant contrast to the sombre, massive structures of the old town. Educational institutions are numerous, including a university founded by the Emperor Leopold I. in 1702, and attended in 1886 by 1436 students. The library contains 300,000 volumes. Besides a cathedral (1148-1680; restored 1875), Breslau has many churches, the most remarkable being the Protestant church dedicated to St Elizabeth, with a steeple 298 feet in height, and a splendid organ; a Jewish synagogue; and a bishop's palace. The other buildings include the Rathhaus, the royal palace, now used as government buildings, exchange, barracks, and court-house. Breslau has many hospitals and charitable institutions. The position of Breslau, in the centre of the manufacturing districts of the province, secures it a large trade, which its railway connection with all the important cities on every side, in addition to the facilities of communication which the Oder affords, enables it to turn to the best account. Linen fairs are held, and it is a great wool-mart. It has manufactures of linen, woollens, cotton, silks, lace, jewelry, machines, earthenware, soap, alum, starch, &c., with many distilleries; and a trade in corn, coal, metals, timber, hemp, and flax. Breslau is a city of Slavonic origin, and was for many centuries occupied alternately by the Poles and the

Bohemians. It afterwards passed to Austria, from which it was taken by Frederick II. of Prussia in 1741. Six years afterwards it was captured by the Austrians after a bloody battle, but retaken by Frederick in about a month. From that time until 1814, when its fortifications were completely demolished, it was frequently besieged. Next to Berlin, it is the most populous city in Prussia, and it is third largest in the German empire. Pop. (1870) 207,997; (1885) 299,405, of whom 108,631 were Catholics, and 17,655 Jews.

Bressay, one of the Shetland Isles, separated from Lerwick by Bressay Sound. It is 6 miles long, 1 to 3 miles in breadth, and 10½ sq. m. in area. The prevailing rocks are Devonian. Flag and roofing stones are quarried for exportation. The coast is rocky, there are several caverns, and the highest point is 724 feet above sea-level. Pop. (1881) 847, chiefly fishermen. Bressay Sound is one of the finest natural harbours in the world, and is a rendezvous for herring-boats, and for all whalers and other vessels proceeding north. In its west centre is the harbour of Lerwick with light-house. East of Bressay, and separated from it by a narrow and dangerous sound, is a rocky isle, called Noss, 6 miles in circuit, girt on all sides by perpendicular cliffs, and rising abruptly from the sea to the height of nearly 600 feet, with a flattish top. A detached rock or holm, on the south-east side, in former years communicated with Noss by means of a cradle or wooden chair run on strong ropes stretched across a yawning gulf, and admitting a man with a sheep to be drawn over at a time.

Brest, a strongly fortified city in the department of Finistère, one of the chief naval stations of France, is situated 389 miles by rail W. of Paris, on the north side of the Bay or Road of Brest. One of the finest harbours in Europe, the roadstead is formed by the promontory of Finistère on the north and Kelerun on the south, and is broken up into various bays formed by the mouths of streams as they enter the bay. The only entrance to the bay is by a narrow channel called *Le Goulet*, which is scarcely a mile wide, and is strongly defended by batteries; the difficulty and danger of access to hostile ships being increased by rocks in the middle of the channel. The roadstead from this entrance to the mouth of the Elon is about 6 miles in length. Under Napoleon III. £600,000 was expended on harbour and fortification works, and a further sum of £1,500,000 between 1883 and 1894. The small river Penfeld flows through the town; on its left bank is the town proper, on its right the suburb of *Recouvrance*, connected by a splendid iron swing-bridge (1861), 65 feet high, and 347 long. Brest is, on the whole, irregularly built on an uneven site, and has steep, narrow, dark, and very dirty streets. In some places, communication between the lower and upper parts of the town can be effected only by stairs. The fine promenade known as the Cours d'Ajot runs along the shore to the south of the town, and is planted with trees. There are an old castle, an exchange, town-house, naval hospital, lyceum, observatory, and public library. The manufactures include leather, wax-cloth, paper, and rope; the exports are chiefly beer, grain, brandy, and fish. Brest has extensive shipbuilding yards, rope-walks, storehouses, &c.; extensive quays, arsenals, and dry-docks; its industry is chiefly confined to the equipment of the navy in its various branches. It has telegraphic communication with America by a submarine cable. The Bagnes or hulks were closed in 1860, and the prison is now used as a storehouse. The splendid position of Brest made it an object of contention to French, English, and Spaniards. The Count of Leon ceded Brest to the first Duke

of Brittany in 1040; it was given up to the English by Duke John IV. in 1372, but again came into the hands of the dukes; it was held by an English garrison till 1397. Again held by the English, it was retaken by the French, to whom it passed on the marriage of Louis XII. to Anne of Brittany. In 1631 Cardinal Richelieu resolved to make it a naval station, and commenced the fortifications, which were completed by Vauban, but have since been greatly extended. In 1694 the English under Lord Berkeley were repulsed here with great loss. In 1794 the French fleet under Admiral Villaret-Joyeuse was defeated off Brest by the English fleet under Admiral Howe. Pop. (1872) 66,272; (1886) 70,778.

Brest Litovsk (Polish *Brzesc*), a strongly fortified town of the province of Grodno (Russian Poland), on the Bug, commands the intersection of several important railways, being 132 miles ESE. of Warsaw, and 682 miles WSW. of Moscow. It has vast magazines and military stores, and has an extensive trade in its cloth manufactures, Russian leather, soap, and wood. Once the occasional residence of the kings of Poland, it is now the seat of a Greek and an Armenian Catholic bishop. Pop. (1883) 37,981.

Bretagne. See BRITTANY.

Brethren. See BROTHERHOODS.

Bretigny, a village in the French department of Eure-et-Loir, 20 miles S. of Paris by rail. Here, in 1360, Edward III. concluded a peace with France, by which John II. of France was released from his captivity in England on agreeing to pay three million crowns for his ransom, whilst England renounced her pretensions to Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, and was confirmed in possession of Gascony, Guienne, and several other parts in France, recently acquired by conquest.

Bréton, JULES ADOLPHE, born in 1827, the son of the Mayor of Courrières, was educated at St Omer and at Douai, and trained as a painter under Félix Devigne at Ghent, and in Drölling's atelier at Paris. The subjects of his earlier pictures, such as 'Misère de Désespoir' (1849), are taken from the French revolutionary period; but he soon turned to the scenes from peasant life which he has treated in a most poetic and suggestive manner, with an admirable union of style with realism. In 1853 he exhibited 'Le Retour des Moissonneurs,' and in 1855 his celebrated 'Les Glaneuses.' He is represented in the Luxembourg by 'La Bénédiction des Blés' (1857), admirable for its rendering of sunlight; 'Le Rappel des Glaneuses' (1859); and 'Le Soir' (1861). His later works are simpler in their component parts and larger in the scale of their figures, and of these 'La Fontaine' is a typical example. Bréton is also known as a poet; and his brother and pupil, Emile Adélaide Bréton, is a distinguished landscape-painter.

Breton de los Herreros, DON MANUEL, Spanish dramatist, was born in 1800 at Quel, in the province of Logroño, and served as a volunteer in the army from 1814 to 1822. Subsequently he held several government offices, but was always losing them—finally in 1840—on account of his expression of Liberal opinion. He died at Madrid, 13th November 1873. His poems fill 5 vols. (Madrid, 1850-52), and a selection appeared at Paris in 1875. He brought out upwards of 150 pieces, partly original, partly adaptations from the older Spanish classics, and partly translations from the Italian and French, most of which have been highly popular. Indeed, Señor Riaño says, 'he was unrivalled in Spain in the comic situations of his plays, in originality, in the delicacy with which he copied the types of the middle classes, the facility with which

he versified his dialogues, and his extraordinary fecundity.'

Bretschneider, HEINRICH GOTTFRIED VON, a satirist, of unsettled life and eccentric habits, born at Gera in 1739, from the Moravian Institute at Elbersdorf passed to the Gymnasium at Gera, and at seventeen entered the army. In 1778 he became librarian to the university of Ofen (Buda), and in 1782 Joseph II. gave him a government appointment. He died in 1810. Of his numerous works, including plays and poems, the chief are his satires, *Almanach der Heiligen auf 1788* and *Walters Leben und Sitten* (1793).

Bretschneider, KARL GOTTLIEB, a distinguished German theologian, born 11th February 1776, at Gersdorf, in Saxony, studied theology at Leipzig, was appointed pastor at Schneeberg in 1807, general superintendent at Gotha in 1816, and afterwards councillor of the Upper Consistory there. He died at Gotha, 22d January 1848. Bretschneider established a reputation as a sound and judicious thinker of rationalistic bias, and his theological writings are admitted to have a permanent value. In 1820 appeared his *Probabilia de Evangelii et Epistolarum Johannis Apostoli Indole et Origine*, an attack upon the Johannine authorship from internal evidence, and in 1824 his *Lexicon Manuale Græco-Latinum in Libros Novi Testamenti*. Another work of importance is his *Handbuch der Dogmatik* (4th ed. 1838). Besides these, Bretschneider wrote on various theological questions and controversies. An autobiography was published at Gotha in 1851.

Bretten, a town of Baden, the birthplace of Melancthon, 16 miles ENE. of Karlsruhe by rail. The house in which the Reformer was born belongs now to a foundation bearing his name for the support of poor students, established in 1861. A monument was erected in 1867. Pop. (1885) 3932.

Bretts and Scots, THE LAWS OF THE (Lat. *Leges inter Brettos et Scotos*), the name given in the 13th century to a code of laws in use among the Celtic tribes in Scotland. The 'Scots' were the Celtic people dwelling in the western and more mountainous districts north of the Forth and the Clyde, who, when it became necessary to distinguish them from the Teutonic inhabitants of the low country, received the names of 'the Wild Scots,' 'the Irishry of Scotland,' and, more recently, 'the Scotch Highlanders.' The 'Bretts' were the remains of the British or Welsh people, who were at one time the sole or chief inhabitants of the region now divided into the shires of Dumbarton, Renfrew, Ayr, Lanark, Peebles, Selkirk, Roxburgh, Dumfries, and Cumberland. This province was for some centuries an independent kingdom, known by the names of 'Cumbria' and 'Strathclyde.' It became about the middle of the 10th century a tributary principality held of the king of the English, by the heir of the king of the Scots. It so continued till after the beginning of the 12th century, when Cumberland having been incorporated with England, the gradual absorption of the rest of the territory into the dominions of the king of the Scots seems to have been imperceptibly completed. The last 'Prince of Cumbria,' named in record was the brother and heir of Alexander I. of Scotland, 'the Earl David,' as he was called, who, on his brother's death in 1124, himself became king of the Scots. No more is heard of Cumbria as a principality; but 'the Welsh' continue to be named among its inhabitants, in the charters of King David's grandsons—Malcolm the Maiden (1153-65), and William the Lion (1165-1214). And they seem to have retained more or less of their ancient Celtic laws until after the beginning of the 14th century. It was not until the year

1305 that an ordinance of Edward I. of England, who appeared then to have reduced all Scotland to his subjection, decreed 'that the usages of the Scots and the Bretts be abolished, and no more used.' It is unknown how far this prohibition took effect. Of the code which it proscribed, only a fragment has been preserved. It was printed by Sir John Skene, in his *Regiam Majestatem* (1609); and by Thomas Thomson and Cosmo Innes, in the *Acts of the Parliaments of Scotland*, vol. i. (1844), where the laws are given in three languages—Latin, French, and English. The French version, which is the oldest, is printed from a manuscript of about 1270, formerly in the public library at Bern, in Switzerland, now in the Register House at Edinburgh. The fragment of the 'laws of the Bretts and the Scots' thus published, is of much the same nature as the ancient laws of the Anglo-Saxons, the Welsh, the Irish, and other nations of Western Europe. It fixes the *cro*, or price at which every man was valued, according to his degree, from the king down to the churl, and which, if he were slain, was to be paid to his kindred by the homicide or his kindred. The *cro* of the king was 1000 cows; of the king's son, or of an earl, 150 cows; of an earl's son, or of a thane, 100 cows; of a thane's son, 66½ cows; of the nephew of a thane, or of an oghthiern, 44 cows and 2½ pence; and of a villain or churl, 16 cows—all persons of lower birth than a thane's nephew or an oghthiern being accounted villains or churls. The *cro* of the married woman was less by a third than the *cro* of her husband. The *cro* of the unmarried woman was as much as the *cro* of her brother. A chapter 'of blood-drawing'—corresponding with the *blod-wyfte* of the English—fixes the fine to be paid for a blow to the effusion of blood, according to the degree of the person wounded and the place of the wound.

Bretwalda, a title of supremacy among the early Anglo-Saxon kings, the exact signification and history of which are highly uncertain. The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* says of Egbert, 'and he was the eighth king that was *Bretwalda*,' and the word only occurs elsewhere in an English and Latin charter of Athelstan in 934, in which that king is styled 'King of the Anglo-Saxons and *Brytæn-wallda* of all the island.' Palgrave attempted to explain the title as 'wielder of Britain,' an honour to which the most powerful king was elected, and which was substantially an assertion of a kind of continuity with the old Roman imperial power within the island. Kemble explained the word as merely 'wide ruler' (*brytæn*, 'broad'), and ridiculed the idea of any kind of federation and elective hegemony among the early English kings. Freeman inclines to 'an intermediate position between Kemble and Palgrave,' but refuses to admit the idea of Roman influence, maintaining that the institution was of purely English growth. See note B to vol. i. of Freeman's *Norman Conquest*.

Breughel, PETER, the founder of a family of Dutch painters, was born in the village of Breughel, near Breda, in 1510 (or, as others say, 1530), and died at Brussels in 1569. After travelling through Italy and France, he fixed his residence at Antwerp, where he was elected to the Academy. He painted chiefly the pleasures of rustic life, which he transferred to his canvas with vivid colouring, and at times unnecessary coarseness. His son, PETER, distinguished by the strange title 'Hollish Breughel'—because he loved to paint scenes in which the leading characters were devils, hags, or robbers—was born about 1559, and died 1637.—JAN, brother of the preceding, usually called 'Velvet Breughel,' from his rich dress, was born in 1569, and died in 1625. He was chiefly a flower painter, but was

also distinguished for his landscapes and for his minute finish of small figures. He painted several works in concert with Rubens, who supplied the chief figures.—Other members of the same family attained to some note, in most cases as painters of still-life.

Breve, a note in Music. The name was originally applied to the shortest of the three notes used in early music, but is now appropriated to the longest note met with, and it occurs but seldom, except in church music, modern music being divided into bars which usually fall short of it in length. It has the time-value of two semibreves, and was formerly written thus, \equiv , now $\text{||}\text{O}\text{||}$ or $\text{||}\text{O}\text{||}$. The expression *alla breve* at the beginning of a piece—also denoted by the vertical stroke through the sign of common time, C —signifies that the time-value of the notes is reduced to one-half.

Breve, or BRIEVE, in the practice of the Scots law, is a writ issuing from Chancery in the name of the crown, to a judge, ordering him to try by jury the points or questions stated in the breve. In ancient times these writs appear to have been the foundation of almost all civil actions in Scotland; but latterly they have been used only in the following cases: (1) Breve of Inquest, now, however, superseded by a petition of service to the sheriff to ascertain the heir of a deceased person. (2) Breve of Tutorry, the purpose of which is the appointment, as guardian to a pupil, of the nearest agnate or person most nearly related through the father, of lawful age. (3) Breves of Idiocy and Furosy, for the appointment, in case of ascertained insanity, of the nearest male agnate, of lawful age, as guardian or curator. Proceedings 2 and 3, however, are much superseded by the appointment of judicial officers. (4) Breve of Terce is to enable a widow to recover her terce or dower. It is issued to the sheriff of the county, who divides the possession of the land between the widow and the heir (see TERCE). (5) Breve of Division amongst heirs-portioners. By means of this breve an heir-portioner—i.e. one of two or more sisters succeeding in equal portions to a landed estate—may have her share of the lands separated or set apart by a judge, who appoints an inquest, or jury of fifteen persons. An arbitration or ordinary action is now more generally resorted to. See HEIRS-PORTIONERS.

Brevet (Fr., 'a writ' or 'warrant'), in the British army, is a promotion of officers by selection to a higher rank irrespective of there being any vacancies in its established numbers. A general promotion by brevet used formerly to be made once in about six years; but more recently it was limited to very special occasions, as a coronation, the birth of an heir to the throne, the termination of some great war, &c., and given only to officers who had some particular claim to promotion. A brevet was determined on by the cabinet, and carried out by the commander-in-chief. It had formed part of the British military system ever since the time of James II.; but it was unsatisfactory, because the flow of promotion caused by it was arbitrary, uncertain, and much liable to abuse. There were brevets in 1837, 1838, 1841, 1846, 1851, and 1854, some of all ranks, from lieutenant-general to captain, receiving promotion. On one of these occasions, 200 colonels were at once made major-generals. The increase of pay following their promotions was in 1837 £11,000; in 1838, £7000; in 1841, £15,000; and in 1846, £21,000, &c.; but it must not be forgotten that death and sales had in the intervals cleared off perhaps an equal number of officers at the higher rates of pay. In 1854 the new major-generals alone involved an additional charge of £18,000 a

year. In that year general brevets were abolished—a fixed establishment of general officers being substituted; but individual brevets were still given to field-officers after five years' service in each rank, and to all officers, except subalterns, for distinguished service in the field. This promotion carried with it the higher rate of pay, but was neither purchasable nor saleable. It has never been given to officers below the rank of captain, and now (1888) is only conferred for distinguished service. The holder retains his place and rank in his regiment if it is alone, but if acting with other troops he will take command of the whole force, provided that he is senior by brevet, or, as it is called, 'army' rank, to the other officers. This rule has been known to cause a change of command in the middle of an operation, which, on active service, is very undesirable. The official title of an officer holding brevet rank is captain and brevet-major, or major and brevet-lieutenant-colonel, or lieutenant-colonel and brevet-colonel, as the case may be; but an officer may have as many as three brevets, and be a captain and brevet-colonel. All colonels are placed on a seniority list for promotion to major-general, so that it is possible by means of brevets to greatly accelerate the promotion of a deserving officer to that rank.

There is no brevet promotion in the navy.

In the United States, brevet rank does not entitle the holder to the higher rate of pay, nor to corresponding rank, except under special circumstances defined by law.

Breviary. By this word Roman Catholics understand the book which contains all the ordinary and daily services of their church except (a) those connected with the celebration of the Eucharist, which are contained in the *Missal*, and (b) those for special occasions, such as baptisms, marriages, ordinations, funerals, &c., which are contained in the *Litural* or *Pontifical*, according as they fall within the sphere of ordinary priests or of bishops. In the Established Church of England, therefore, the breviary would be exactly represented by a Prayer-book containing, after the preface, tables, &c., the morning and evening prayer, litany, Athanasian creed, collects, psalter, and all the lessons for every day in the year, with the addition of a complete set of hymns for the different occasions. What is called a 'Church Service,' with *Hymns Ancient and Modern* bound in, is, in fact, a breviary, only differing from the contents of the Latin one in the fact that it provides only for Sundays and holidays, that the hymns are more or less left to selection, and that it contains the Eucharistic and occasional offices in addition. The word breviary is colloquially applied by Latin-Catholics to the corresponding portion of the services of the Oriental churches—e.g. one may hear the remark that the services of the Greek breviary are very long, or those of the Coptic breviary very unchanging—but the present article deals only with Latin breviaries.

The word itself signifies an *abbreviation* or *summary*, and is used to indicate that the book is a *compilation* designed to obviate the necessity of using several different books in the same service, that is to say, a separate book for the prayers, a hymn-book, a Bible from which to read the lessons and Psalms, copies of the Fathers from which to read their homilies, &c. An Anglican *Church Service* is a compilation on exactly the same principle and for the same object, as well as very similar in contents. The origin of the different hours of prayer during the day, which is undoubtedly older than Christianity, and adopted by the church from the synagogue, is beyond the scope of this article, as are also the changes and modifications which they have undergone. The

compilation called the breviary is believed to owe its origin to Gregory VII. in the 11th century. It underwent several changes under succeeding popes, and in 1536 Francis, Cardinal de Quiñones, a Spaniard, published at Rome a reformed breviary which had the approval of Clement VII. and Paul III. It was, at least in the earlier editions, perhaps too sweeping in its changes, but is of great merit, insuring the reading of the whole Book of Psalms every week, and of almost all the New Testament and a great part of the Old every year. It is upon this work that the daily service of the English Established Church is largely modelled, some parts of the preface being embodied entire in that of the Book of Common Prayer. The use of this breviary was never made compulsory, but while it was permitted as a substitute for the unreformed breviary, it was very widely adopted both for public and private worship. It was, however, considered that its services were both too short and too divergent from ancient custom, and Pius V., in conformity with a decree of the Council of Trent, issued in 1568 a reformed edition of the old Roman breviary, which he imposed absolutely upon all the Latin churches, to the exclusion of the breviary of Quiñones, and of all other breviaries which did not possess an antiquity of 200 years. This breviary was further altered by Clement VIII. and Urban VIII., the latter of whom, with deplorable taste, made a series of changes in the texts of the hymns which has been most disastrous to both the literary merit and the historical interest of these poems. The breviary has since undergone many other modifications, chiefly by the addition to the calendar of great numbers of feast-days in honour of saints, to such an extent that the ordinary service of a week-day became very uncommon. Finally, in 1883 Pope Leo XIII. permitted, though not commanded, the substitution for the week-day service, upon almost every day in the year, of a voluntary office of a festal character according to the day of the week. The state to which the practical use of the breviary has thus been reduced, especially by the virtual abrogation of the weekly reading of the whole Book of Psalms, which is, in theory, its main intention, is now acknowledged on all hands to call for a new and sweeping reform. This reform will probably follow, at least in this respect, the lines of the reformed breviary of Cardinal de Quiñones. It may be regarded as imminent, and had the sittings of the Vatican Council been continued, would very likely have taken place before now.

The exception made by Pius V. would have spared some at least of the old English breviaries, but owing chiefly to the English Roman Catholic clergy being educated abroad in the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries, their use has become extinct. Great numbers of new breviaries were, however, brought into use in France in different dioceses in the 17th and 18th centuries. These are generally works compiled with great care and learning. They are mainly distinguished for an exclusive use of scriptural phrases, an intense nationalism, the substitution for early and medieval hymns of compositions written in imitation of Horace by French scholars, and certain indications of a leaning to the doctrines of Jansenism. They are now almost, if not entirely, extinct, the Roman breviary having been adopted in their stead. The principal Latin breviaries at present in use, other than the Roman, are the Monastic, used by all the male and female disciples of St Benedict—i.e. by all monks and nuns properly so called; the Dominican, used by all disciples of St Dominic; the Ambrosian, in the ecclesiastical province of Milan; and the Mozarabic, the original national rite of Spain, in use in part of the cathedral and city of Toledo.

What here follows will relate only to the Roman breviary. It is to be observed at the same time, that wherever the Roman breviary has been introduced, it has been subjected to additions to the calendar and other changes, so as to give it a local or national colour. In England, for instance, there are about seventy days in the year—without reckoning others within octaves, alterations in importance, or changes of date—upon which the service differs from the text of the Roman breviary.

After the general rubrics, tables to find Easter, calendar, &c., the body of the breviary is divided into five parts. The first of these consists of the Book of Psalms arranged in sections, with the daily prayers and some hymns, for the different services of the day and week. The first of these is *Matins*, which properly belongs to midnight, but is usually said in Italy about 7.30 or 8 A.M. In France, on the contrary, it is usual to forestall it on the preceding evening. It consists of Psalm xev. (*Venite*) and a hymn, followed by one or three sections called *Nocturnæ* or *Watches of the Night*. On Sundays there are three of these, the first containing twelve psalms, and each of the others three. At the end of each is read a lesson, divided into three portions, whence the whole are counted as nine. The first reading is from Scripture, the second from one of the Fathers, and the third from one of the Fathers, on the gospel which will later be read at mass. The *Tc Deum* usually follows. On week-days there is only one *Nocturna* of twelve psalms, and one lesson (three), all from Scripture. The second daily service is *Lauds* or the *Morning Praises*, theoretically proper to sunrise. It consists of four psalms, a Scripture canticle, Psalms cxlviii., cxlix., and cl., a hymn, the *Benedictus* or Thanksgiving of Zacharias (Luke, i. 68-79), and prayers. The succeeding services, or *Little Day Hours*, are *Prime* or the *First Hour* (6 A.M.), *Terce* or the *Third Hour* (9 A.M.), *Sext* or the *Sixth Hour* (noon), and *None* or the *Ninth Hour* (3 P.M.). They are all alike, consisting of a hymn and some sections of Psalm cxix. (Vulgate cxviii.), followed by a prayer. Prime differs a little from the others, being susceptible of some extra and changing psalms, and on Sundays of the creed of St Athanasius, and containing special prayers for the morning; in choirs a lesson is also read at it taken from the Martyrology. *Vespers* or *Evening* is theoretically proper to sunset, and is reckoned to begin the next day, according to the eastern reckoning—'The evening and the morning were the — day.' It consists of five psalms, which vary according to the day of the week, a hymn, the *Magnificat* or Thanksgiving of the Blessed Virgin (Luke, i. 46-55), and prayers. *Completorium* or *Compline*, 'the completing service,' belongs theoretically to 9 P.M., and is a supplication for protection during the night. It is always the same, consisting of the general confession, four unvarying psalms, a hymn, the *Nunc Dimittis* or Song of Simeon (Luke, ii. 29-32), prayers, and a Commemoration of the Blessed Virgin. The unchanging character of this and of the Little Hours conveys no idea of the practical monotony from day to day. This arises from the multiplication of festivals of saints already spoken of. These have, practically speaking, always got special psalms, which are always the same at lauds, and vary very little at vespers and matins. Hence, as a matter of fact, about fifty or sixty psalms are repeated constantly, and the others rarely or never.

The second part of the breviary consists of what is called the *Proprium de Tempore*. This means the whole service for Sundays and week-days as dependent upon Christmas and Easter. It contains the homilies of the Fathers, hymns, &c. for the whole year, as far as so dependent, but is

mainly occupied by the course of daily scripture-reading. This consists of selected extracts averaging about 20 verses a day. Roughly speaking, Isaiah is read in Advent (the three or four weeks preceding Christmas), the epistles of St Paul from the Epiphany (January 6) till Septuagesima (the ninth Sunday before Easter), when Genesis is begun, but broken off at chapter xiv. on Shrove Tuesday. Homilies, not Scripture, are read in Lent, except on feasts of saints, and then the Scripture is special, but Genesis continues to be read on Sundays, and a small portion of Jeremiah and Lamentations in the last fortnight. A week after Easter the Catholic Epistles and Apocalypse are begun and read till Whitsunday. A week after Whitsunday, Samuel and Kings are begun, and read till the beginning of August. At that date Proverbs are begun, and followed by Ecclesiastes, Wisdom, Ecclesiasticus, Job, Tobit, Judith, Esther, both books of Maccabees, and the rest of the Prophets. The weakness of this arrangement, besides the scantiness and scrappiness of the extracts, is in the omission of so much, including entire books and the greater part of the Pentateuch. It forms, however, a kind of imperfect epitome of scriptural history, and a limited course of scriptural reading.

The third part of the breviary consists of what is called the *Proprium Sanctorum*, or special offices of saints. This consists of whatever is special to any day fixed by the day of the month. The greater part of it as regards bulk is occupied by summaries of saints' lives, exactly like articles in a biographical dictionary. This is certainly the weakest part of the breviary, and is accordingly always selected as the point for controversial attack. Although sometimes drawn up with care, and often altered—as has been done by Leo XIII. among others—to keep them abreast of historical criticism, the biographical notices are open to the charge of occasional inaccuracies in matters of fact. A notion sometimes obtains among Protestants that Roman Catholics are obliged to believe these biographies. This is wholly baseless. No such idea exists even as a superstition. As these notices embrace the lives of a very great number of persons of religious eminence, of all nations, ages, and conditions, they form a sort of imperfect epitome of church history, just as the Scripture readings form one of Scripture.

The fourth part of the breviary is called the *Commune Sanctorum*. These are a series of twelve offices for festivals of saints according to the class to which he or she may belong. They are for (1) the eves of apostles; (2) the feasts of any martyrs, including apostles, within the season from Easter to Pentecost; (3) apostles and evangelists; (4) a single male martyr; (5) a group of several martyrs; (6) a canonised bishop not a martyr, technically styled *confessor*, as having confessed Christ before men, though not by death; (7) a confessor not a bishop—i.e. a priest or layman; (8) doctors of the church—i.e. certain eminent theologians, but this differs little from 6 or 7; (9) virgins, divided into martyred and not martyred—the latter are mainly canonised nuns; (10) other women; (11) dedication festivals of churches; (12) the Blessed Virgin Mary. The *Commune Sanctorum* is the most used of any part of the breviary. In fact, the service from day to day usually consists of 4, 6, 7, and 9, with occasional changes to 2, 3, 5, and 12. All these have special psalms, which differ little, 6, 7, and 8 being absolutely the same, as also 9, 10, and 12, and 2 having the psalms of 3, 4, or 5. The festal office is a good deal shorter than others, a circumstance which probably accounts for a good deal of its multiplication. There are three *Nocturnæ* at matins, with only three psalms in each. At the

end of the first are read the lessons from Scripture, which are usually those of the day from the *Proprium de Tempore*, as only festivals of some importance have special Scripture lessons; at the end of the second is read the biographical notice; at the end of the third, a homily on the gospel. These lessons of the third Nocturn, which are often most striking and powerful passages from the greatest writers of the early church, vary a good deal, and form, along with those of the *Proprium de Tempore*, a sort of imperfect epitome of theology, as those of the first Nocturn do of Scripture, and those of the second, of church history.

The fifth part of the breviary consists of extra services, the principal of which are the vespers (*placbo*), and matins, and lauds (*dirge*) of the dead, and the Little Office of the Blessed Virgin Mary. None of these extra services are ever obligatory, except that of the dead on All-Souls' Day. It is funeral in character, and is mainly used at funerals, anniversaries of deaths, &c. The Little Office of the Blessed Virgin is a sort of abbreviated festal office of the Blessed Virgin, with only one Nocturn. It contains 31 psalms daily, with 4 canticles, hymns, prayers, &c., and is very widely used by itself among the laity and the active religious orders.

Notwithstanding the weaknesses of its scriptural course of reading and its biographical notices, and the practical monotony caused by the multiplication of festal offices, the breviary forms a marvellous mine of powerful and tender religious thought, amassed by the devotional experience of ages. It must be remembered that at every separate service, nearly all, or by far the largest part of the matter used, is the language of Scripture, a circumstance which invests the office with great grandeur and vitality. The readings form a sort of storehouse, albeit imperfect, of scriptural, historical, and theological knowledge. Exquisitely chosen quotations or adaptations of Scripture also enter largely into what are among the most striking passages of the breviary—viz. the *Invitatories* or exhortations to worship joined to the *Venite*, the *Antiphons* or anthems attached to the psalms and canticles, the *Short Responses* which precede the prayers at the little hours and compline, and above all, the responsories by which each section of the lesson at the end of each nocturn is followed. These are always poetical, generally beautiful, and not unfrequently rise to the sublime.

The rules for arranging the service for every day, and especially for uniting and harmonising the *Proprium de Tempore* with the *Proprium Sanctorum*, are contained in the general rubrics, and fill 37 chapters. Being printed in black, with the quotations and technical words in red, these pages present a motley appearance, which has obtained for them the technical name of the *Pica* or *Pie* (cf. *magpie*, *piebald*). The rules are so complicated that it would be almost impossible for any one to find the service for himself upon the spur of the moment, upon any given day. This difficulty is accordingly met by the publication in every separate country or diocese of a sort of annual almanac, called the *Ordo Recitandi Divini Officii*, which contains under every day, clothed in a mass of technical contractions, minute directions as to what is to be read.

The breviary is sometimes to be met with in one bulky volume, in which case it is called a *Totum*; sometimes, especially in Spain, in two; but most frequently in four, for spring, summer, autumn, and winter, in which case each volume contains the Psalms, a quarter of the *Proprium de Tempore*, about a third of the *Proprium Sanctorum*, and the whole of the *Commune Sanctorum* and the additional matter.

The duty of publicly joining in or privately reading aloud—i.e. so as to utter every word with the lips—the whole of the breviary services every day, is incumbent upon all clerks in holy orders, all members of religious orders, male or female, and every person holding a benefice (such as a prebend) to which attendance in choir is normally attached. The serving brethren or sisters in religious orders, and the members of active religious orders, such as sisters of charity, form an exception, but these are always bound to some shorter substitute, such as the Little Office of the Blessed Virgin, a similar office in praise of the Blessed Sacrament, or the like. In all properly conducted cathedral and collegiate churches, the service is performed publicly every day with surpliced choir, &c., as in similar institutions in the English Established Church; the ceremonial is also similar, except that, if the service is choral, incense is offered during the *Benedictus* and *Magnificat*. For this purpose the services are usually massed together, as matins and lauds at 7.30 or 8 A.M., prime, terce (after which high mass is sung), sext, and none, at 9.30 or 10, and vespers and compline at 4. The time consumed varies, principally according to the amount of music used. A person reading alone and pronouncing rapidly can read the whole of the services of the day through in about two hours, or even less. In the cathedral of Seville, on the other hand, where the entire daily service is sung with the utmost pomp and solemnity, and with the addition of generally two, often three, and sometimes four high masses, as many as eight hours are often spent in choir.

The use of the breviary as a book of private devotion by laymen has become rare since the invention of printing has led to the multiplication of devotional works of different kinds, but at present seems to show some tendency again to increase, and it has always been a common custom to sing vespers or compline, at least on Sundays, in parochial and other public churches. For this reason, most Roman Catholic manuals of devotion contain compline and the more common psalm of vespers. Spanish prayer-books usually contain the ordinary forms of all the services except matins; and in that country the singing of such services in the parochial churches, and the participation of the laity in them, is more common than elsewhere. This seems to have been the case in England before the Reformation, the laity also habitually attending matins. The Parisian breviary of 1737 was translated into French under the title of the *Breviaire Français*; and there is likewise a French version of the Roman breviary. The latter has also been translated into German; and an English version was published by Lord Bute in 1879.

Brevipennes (Lat., 'short-winged'), a name applied by Cuvier to the running-birds like ostrich, rhea, and emu, in which the wings are rudimentary, and not used in flight. The term is no longer in use. See RATITÆ, RUNNING-BIRDS, OSTRICH, &c.

Brewer, JOHN SHERREN, born at Norwich in 1810, graduated with classical honours at Queen's College, Oxford, in 1833, took orders, and was appointed professor of English in King's College, London, in 1841. For nearly twenty years he laboured in the Record-office, editing the *Monumenta Franciscana* (1858); the *Opus Tertium* and *Opus Minus* of Roger Bacon (1859); vols. i.-iii. of *The Works of Giraldus Cambrensis* (1861); the *Calendar of the Carew Papers* (1861), with the aid of Mr Bullen; and vols. i.-iv. of the *Calendar of Letters and Papers, Foreign and Domestic, of the Reign of Henry VIII.* (1862-72). As an editor, Brewer possessed patient industry and a rare sense

of order, besides marvellously sound judgment and extensive knowledge. His essays and reviews in *English Studies*, edited by Dr Wace, with a brief biography (1880), reveal his vast knowledge and his broad sympathies, as well as a delicacy of touch and a fineness of literary insight seldom found in the laborious student. Brewer was elected Honorary Fellow of Queen's College in 1870, and in 1877 was presented to the living of Topplefield, in Essex, where he died February 16, 1879.

Brewing. See BEER, and LICENSING SYSTEM.

Brewster, Sir David, an eminent Scottish natural philosopher, was born at Jedburgh, December 11, 1781. From the early age of twelve he was educated for the Church of Scotland at the university of Edinburgh, where he highly distinguished himself. A constitutional nervousness disinclining him for a clerical life, he became editor in 1802 of the *Edinburgh Magazine*, and in 1808 of the *Edinburgh Encyclopædia*, to which he contributed many important scientific articles. Previous to this he had entered deeply on the study of optics, with which his name is now enduringly associated. The beautiful scientific toy called the kaleidoscope was invented by him in 1816, and many years after he improved Wheatstone's cumbrous stereoscope by the introduction of lenses, and produced the lenticular instrument now in use. In 1819 the *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal* took the place of the *Magazine*; and in 1831 Brewster was one of the chief originators of the British Association. In 1815 he was elected a Fellow and Copley medallist of the Royal Society; in 1816 he received half the prize bestowed by the French Institute; in 1818 the Royal Society awarded him the Rumford gold and silver medals for his discoveries on the polarisation of light; in 1825 he became corresponding member of the Institute of France; in 1832 he was knighted, and had a pension conferred upon him; in 1838 he was appointed principal of the united colleges of St Salvador and St Leonard, St Andrews; in 1849 he was elected one of the eight Foreign Associates of the French Institute; he was also a member of the academies of St Petersburg, Berlin, Copenhagen, and Stockholm. In 1859 he was chosen principal of Edinburgh University, and filled this post until within a few months of his death at Allerly, Melrose, February 10, 1868. He made important discoveries in every branch of the great subject of polarisation, and in most departments of optics, dealt with optical illusions, the colour of mother-of-pearl, fringes of colour, the optical properties of innumerable substances, biaxial crystals, dichroism, the absorption of light, phosphorescence, fluorescence, photography, and the value of combinations of lenses. The most immediate practical result of Brewster's discoveries was the introduction to British lighthouses of the dioptric system, the honour of having elaborated which he shared with Fresnel. He resolutely maintained his own theory of the three primary colours, and never fully accepted the undulatory theory of light. It has been said that he wrote with the calm decision of a philosopher, the vivid imagination of a poet, and the fervour of a preacher. In 1822 he edited Legendre's *Geometry*, translated by Thomas Carlyle. His *Life of Newton*, first published in 1828 in the Family Library, was issued in a totally new and greatly enlarged form in 1855. Among his other works are his interesting *Letters on Natural Magic*, addressed to Sir Walter Scott; *More Worlds than One* (1854); his treatises on the Kaleidoscope and on Optics (*Cabinet Cyclopædia*); his *Martyrs of Science*; and his treatises in the 7th and 8th editions of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* on Electricity, Magnetism, Optics, the

Stereoscope, &c. He also contributed largely to the *Edinburgh* and *North British Reviews*, and communicated hundreds of papers on scientific subjects to the transactions of learned bodies and to scientific journals. See *Home Life of Brewster*, by his daughter, Mrs Gordon (1869).

Brezowa, a market-town of Hungary, 20 miles NW. of Leopoldstadt. Pop. 5549.

Brian, a famous king of Ireland, the Brian Boromhe or Born ('Brian of the tribute') of the old Irish historians. He succeeded his elder brother as chief of the Dal Cais, on the murder of the latter in 976, and after much fighting, made himself king of Cashel two years later. After establishing his rule over all Munster, he marched into Leinster, and was acknowledged as king by its chiefs in 984. King Brian supported a rude but princely state at his chief castle at Conn Coradh, near the modern town of Killaloe, and he had also seats at Tara and Cashel. He formed an alliance with Maelsechlainn Mac Domhnaill, chief king of Ireland, crushed with his help an outbreak of the Leinster men in 1000, next made terms with the Danes of Dublin, and with their help overpowered his late ally, compelled him to give him hostages, and thus made himself chief king of Ireland. He next carried his conquering sword to the west, subdued the Connaughtmen, and in their turn the men of the north. After marching from Meath to Armagh, he made a circuit of Ireland, taking hostages from all the territories through which he passed. Thus he had become Ardriagh na Erenn, chief king of Ireland, and such he remained until his death. In 1013 war broke out again with the Danes of Dublin, who found some Irish allies. The great struggle took place at Clontarf, on the north side of Dublin Bay. The Danes were routed with great slaughter, never again to recover their strength in Ireland; but the aged hero perished in the battle, April 23, 1014. In his lifetime he had defeated the Danes in no less than twenty-five battles.

Brianchon, Charles Julien, French mathematician, was born at Sèvres in 1785. Besides some important papers contributed to French mathematical journals, he has left small treatises on lines of the second order (1817), and the application of the theory of transversals (1818). He is best known by a theorem, the correlative of Pascal's, which he published in 1806. The theorem is, If a hexagon is circumscribed to a conic, the straight lines joining the three pairs of opposite vertices are concurrent. He died in 1865.

Briançon (ancient *Brigantium*), a town in the French department of Hautes-Alpes, 162 miles NNE. of Marseilles by rail, on the right bank of the Durance, which is here spanned by a bridge of a single arch 130 feet wide. It is the highest town in France, being situated at an elevation of 4330 feet above the sea-level. As the principal arsenal and depôt of the French Alps, it is so strongly fortified as to be deemed impregnable. Pop. (1886) 3360.

Briansk, a trading town of Russia, on the Desna, 77 miles W. of Orel by rail, with iron and glass works, &c. Pop. (1883) 16,403.

Briar. See ROSE.

Briare, a town in the French department of Loiret, on the Loire, 102 miles SSE. of Paris by rail. The Canal de Briare (35 miles long), which unites the Loire and the Seine, was the first constructed in France (1642). Pop. (1886) 5034.

Briareus (also called *Egeon*), in Greek Mythology the son of Uranus and Gæa, who, like his two brothers, had a hundred hands and fifty heads. He fought for the gods against the Titans (q.v.).

Briar-root, a fine hard wood obtained from the roots of a species of very large heath (*Erica arborea*) which grows in the Pyrenees, in Corsica, and in Algeria. It is largely used for tobacco-pipes. The name is a corruption of the French *bruyère* ('heath'), and has nothing to do with *briar*.

Bribery, as a system affecting all social relations, is best exemplified among oriental nations and in Russia. It forms a serious difficulty for government in the latter country. In Great Britain, although the system of commissions and promotion-money has been carried to great lengths, it cannot be said that there is any general corruption in either private or public life. Formerly, however, and especially during the 18th century, parliamentary corruption was a serious abuse. Developed in the reign of Charles II., when king and ministers and opposition alike received bribes from Louis XIV., it was reduced to a system by Sir Robert Walpole, in whose day the votes of electors were regularly bought, and often those of members of parliament. Indirect considerations also, though not always expressed in money, seriously prejudiced appointments to the public service and the administration of justice. In all these matters, however, there is now something approaching to purity. Statutes were passed in 1720, 1809, 1842, and 1854. The committees of parliament never did justice to the petitions against returns obtained by bribery and other corrupt practices; and accordingly in 1868 the jurisdiction in such cases was given to the judges of the Superior Courts with the best results. The Ballot Act tended further to starve out the coarser forms of bribery, because of the uncertainty whether the money produced any result. Convictions of agents of good standing, and severe sentences upon them, and the wholesale disfranchisement of constituencies proved to be specially corrupt, had a wholesome influence in the same direction. The heaviest blow, however, directed against bribery was Sir Henry James's Corrupt Practices Act of 1883, the most important part of which limits the legal expenditure of the candidate and his agents to a certain sum calculated on the number of electors, and visits with heavy penalties any authorised expenditure beyond this limit, or any unauthorised expenditure of any description; and this altogether irrespective of the purpose for which the expenditure was incurred. Bribery may be committed before, during, or after the election, if the payment can be connected with the election. Bribery may consist of a promise to give refreshment, to pay travelling expenses, to procure an office, to supply money for any of these purposes, or indeed to give or offer any valuable consideration for the purpose of corrupting the mind of the elector. Loans and large charitable payments, the employment of electors, even giving a holiday to workmen without deducting wages, may, in certain circumstances, amount to bribery. If it appears that the candidate or any of his agents have been guilty of bribery, or that bribery (though not traced to any one) has taken place on a large scale, the election is void, and the persons guilty may be punished by imprisonment or fine, electoral incapacity, and incapacity to be elected to parliament or any public office. The imprisonment is limited to one year, and the fine to £200. The civil incapacity lasts for seven years. If bribery is brought home to the knowledge of the candidate, he may be declared incapable of ever representing the particular constituency; and bribery by agents will exclude the candidate from that constituency for seven years.

BRIBERY IN MUNICIPAL ELECTIONS.—By the Corrupt Practices (Municipal Elections) Act, 1884, the offence of bribery in England is put on the

same footing as in parliamentary elections. This does not apply to municipal elections in Scotland, but the common law applies to these and all other elections, such as those of parochial boards.

BRIBERY OF CUSTOM-HOUSE AND EXCISE OFFICERS.—By the Customs Consolidation Act, the 16 and 17 Vict. chap. 107, sect. 262, every person who shall give or offer any bribe, or make any collusive agreement with any officer of Customs or Excise, or other person employed for the prevention of smuggling, in order to induce him to neglect his duty, shall forfeit the sum of £200. A former act, passed in 1827, still in force, specially enacts in the case of the Excise, that persons in such service taking money or reward, or entering into any collusive agreement contrary to their duty, shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of £500, and be incapable of serving the crown in any office or employment; and any person giving or offering money or reward to Excise officers, in order to corrupt and prevail upon them, shall forfeit the like sum of £500, but simply and without any further penalty of disqualification.

BRIBERY OF JUDGES.—There is no statute in England against bribery of judges, but the punishment inflicted on Lord Bacon—viz. fine of £40,000, imprisonment during the king's pleasure, incapacity to be employed, and exclusion from parliament—shows how the offence is regarded. The same severity is traceable in the cases of Lord Middlesex, Lord Macclesfield, Lord Melville, and to some extent in that of Lord Westbury. This offence in the old Scots law was called *Barratry* (q.v.).

Brice, St., Bishop of Tours in the beginning of the 5th century, is commemorated as a confessor. *St Brice's Day*, in 1002 (in the reign of Ethelred II.), is notorious in old English history for a great massacre of the Danes. It was believed that it was a concerted attempt to exterminate all the Danes in England; but failing of its bloody purpose, it led to reprisals by the Danish king Sweyn.

Brick. The earliest examples of this branch of the ceramic art were doubtless the sun-dried bricks of Egypt, Assyria, and Babylonia. Remarkable to say, many of these, which, in a northern climate, the frosts of a single winter would destroy, have been preserved for some 4000 years by the dry, warm atmosphere of those countries. Sun-baked bricks of ancient date are also found in the mud walls of old towns in India. They are still much used for walls of houses in Persia, but are there faced either with burnt bricks or with plaster of Paris. Kiln-baked bricks must have been the products of a later time; but they are found in all the chief ruins of ancient Babylonia, where they were often used to face or bind together walls of sun-dried bricks, and occasionally they were even ornamented with enamelled colours. Burnt bricks were employed in the foundations of the Tower of Babel (q.v.). These ancient bricks, whether baked by the sun or by fire, were all made of clay mixed with grass or straw. Most of the great ruins in Rome are built of brick, and the Romans appear to have introduced the art into England. Interesting historical information has been obtained from the impressions on Roman, and especially on Babylonian bricks. Bricks of the modern or Flemish make were used in England in the 13th century. For the unburnt bricks of Texas, Mexico, and Central America, see **ADOBE**.

Manufacture of Bricks.—Clay suitable for the manufacture of common bricks is an abundant substance, but there is a great difference in the nature and quality of the clays found in various localities. The basis of clay consists of hydrated silicate of alumina, with a varying proportion of other mineral

matters, chiefly free silica (sand), iron, lime, magnesia, and potash. Great advantage is derived from digging clay in autumn, and exposing it all winter to the disintegrating action of frost. The next process is that of tempering or mixing the clay into a homogeneous paste, which is sometimes done by the spade, but more commonly in the pug-mill (see fig. 2). In making bricks by the old hand process, the shape is given by a mould either entirely of wood, or of wood faced with metal, and without top or bottom. A 'plane' is used to press in the clay, and to smooth the upper and lower surface of the brick.

Although hand-made bricks are still very common, yet machinery is now largely employed to

produce them. Brick-making machines are of two leading kinds; one class of them being constructed to work the clay in a wet plastic state, the other class requiring it to be in a dry or semi-dry condition. Of the two sorts, the wet-clay machines are the simpler, but the dry-clay machines, by forcing the clay into moulds by strong pressure, shorten the process, as no time is required for drying them. The bricks so made, too, are not only of a more perfect shape, but they can be moulded into any form, and may even be made ornamental at a very slight additional cost.

Fig. 1 will convey a good idea of the general plan on which most of the wet-clay machines work. The machine is driven by steam, and the clay is fed by a hopper into the pug-mill, A, on the central shaft of which strong pugging blades are placed in a spiral manner. These prepare and force the clay out at the bottom, whence it passes over the carrying rollers, C, to the pressing rollers, PP, which force it through a die at D, in a rect-

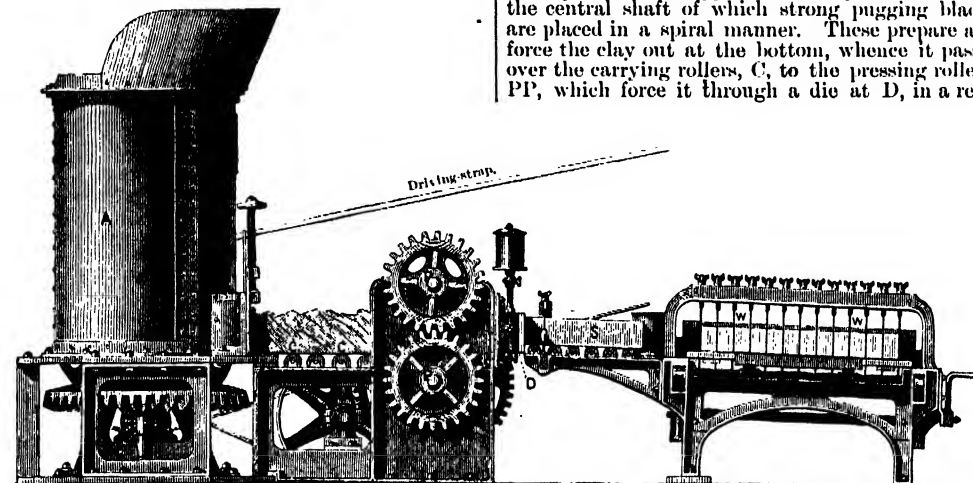


Fig. 1.—Brick-making Machine.

angular stream, S, so exactly shaped to the required size that nothing more is necessary than to cut it into single bricks by the wires, W. These are set in a rocking frame, which can be so adjusted as to cut the bricks on the square or at an angle; the one plan being adopted when the clay is at rest, the other while it is in motion. The figure shows what is called a single-ended machine. Some of these machines are provided with a pair of powerful crushing rollers, which reduce any hard lumps or stones before the clay enters the pug-mill. Hollow bricks and drain tiles are made by the same kind of machinery, with peculiarly constructed dies.

Fig. 2 shows a dry-clay machine by Messrs Bradley & Craven, Wakefield, which is considered an excellent one. The figure is a simplified diagram (vertical section) with only the principal parts shown. The machine comprises a mixer (not shown), a pug-mill, MM, a circular rotary moulding table, TT (more darkly shaded than the other parts), and a powerful press, P, worked by an eccentric, and moving in slides. The rotary table may have from twelve to twenty-four moulds round its periphery. In operation the clay is carried forward through the inclined mixer to the pug-mill, from which a pair of moulds (one only seen in figure at B) is directly under the operation of the pug-mill, the blades of which by their screwlike action com-

press the clay into the moulds. At each partial rotation of the table two pugged bricks are lifted out of the moulds (one seen at B'). These bricks are ejected by the lever, L, acting on the mould-pistons, X'. Self-acting gear (not shown) delivers the two bricks under the press, one of which is seen at B''. One of the dies of the press, which are kept hot by steam, is shown at D ready to

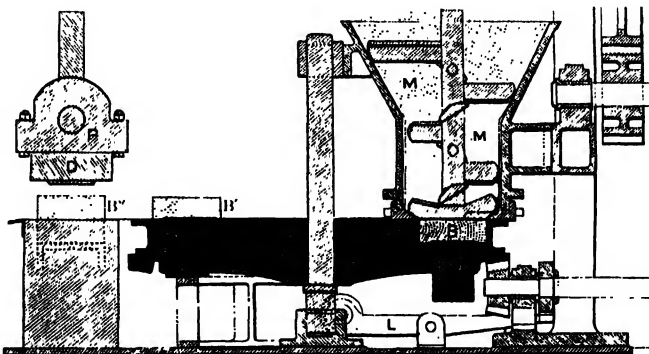


Fig. 2.

descend upon one of the bricks. After being pressed they are taken to the kiln. For brick-making machines in the United States, see Gillmore, in the Reports on the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876.

The green bricks, after being carefully dried, either in the sun or by artificial heat, are usually

baked in a kiln with a suitable arrangement of fires and flues. Kilns are of different forms, but Hoffman's is considered a great improvement on the older kinds (see POTTERY). In it the waste gases from the main firing are utilised to partially burn newly-made bricks. The time required for firing in ordinary kilns varies from 40 to 60 hours for common red and white bricks, while for some fire-bricks 150 hours are necessary. Where kilns are not used, bricks are burned in clamps, the clay requiring to be mixed up, in the process of tempering, with a quantity of ground coal sufficient to burn them. A good test of the character of a clay is obtained by the result of firing. The average contraction in the kiln for prepared clays is $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. If a brick contracts much more than this, the clay is too fusible.

All brick clays contain iron, and the colour of a burnt brick almost entirely depends on the amount of it which is present; thus clays containing less than 1 or $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of iron, change in the kiln to various shades of cream colour and buff, whilst those containing more than 2 per cent. range in colour from yellowish-fawn to dark red. Blue bricks are made from the same clay as the red by controlling in a peculiar way the supply of air in firing, and by carrying the heat slightly further. It is asserted by some that the red is changed to the black oxide of iron in the process.

London Stock Bricks.—This is the common kind of brick used in and about London. Fine-sifted ashes and coal are mixed with the clay in its manufacture. It is of a yellowish colour, and very serviceable; but it is only the best qualities of it that are fit for the fronts of buildings.

Rubbers.—Norfolk and Suffolk red and white bricks are largely used for facings in the metropolis and elsewhere. Some kinds of these, as well as some 'Malm stocks,' are soft enough to be rubbed true on the faces and beds for fine work, and they can even be carved.

Staffordshire Bricks. For fineness of texture and uniformity of colour many bricks made in the pottery districts of this county are the best in England.

Glazed Bricks.—These are made of any desired colour on the face, which is imparted to the glaze. They are highly useful, not only for decorative purposes, but for passages, stables, and other places which require frequent cleaning.

Slate-bricks are made from the debris of slate-quarries. It has been ascertained that bricks composed of powdered slate are among the strongest kinds known.

Fire-clay Bricks.—Refractory clays are abundant in the coal-measures, some of fine quality being found about Newcastle and Glasgow, but the most celebrated is that of Stourbridge. The kinds containing least oxide of iron and alkaline substances make the best, because the most infusible fire-bricks. Gannister bricks are of the most refractory description. They are made of a highly siliceous fire-clay, and used for steel furnaces (see FIRE-CLAY).

Composition Bricks.—In districts where the carboniferous formation occurs, excellent building bricks are made of a mixture of fire-clay, shale, and common clay.

Dinas Fire-bricks.—These Welsh bricks are almost pure silica, and were long supposed to stand the high and long-continued heat of metallurgical and other furnaces better than any other known brick. They must not be placed near alkaline substances.

Bauxite Bricks, the most refractory of all fire-bricks, named from *Bauxite*, a clay from Baux, near Arles in France. They have been recently introduced, and are composed chiefly of alumina and oxide of iron, with a little silica. The iron

is reduced to the metallic state by the addition of a little plumbago.

Floating Bricks.—A diatomaceous earth called fossil meal, and consisting largely of silica, is used to make these curious bricks which float in water. They are made in Tuscany, and are very refractory, but wanting in coherence. A similar earth has been found in the Isle of Skye, and one or two other places in Scotland.

American Bricks.—In the United States, bricks are as a rule of excellent quality. The face bricks of Philadelphia and Baltimore are equal to any made in other countries.

The duties formerly levied on bricks in Great Britain were wholly repealed in 1850.

Bricklaying. In some countries, and in large provinces or over extensive areas of others, brick is the only available material for house-building. Not unfrequently brick has to be resorted to even where stone abounds, if, owing to its hardness, the cost of working it is excessive, or if it be of a perishable nature, or has other faults which render it unfit for building purposes. Most of the towns of southern England, of Holland, and of North Germany, are largely or almost entirely built of brick.

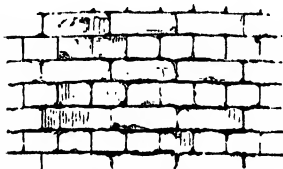
The standard size of English bricks being 9 inches by $4\frac{1}{2}$, the thickness of walls is regulated thereby. They are either half-brick, 1 brick, $1\frac{1}{2}$, 2, 3, or 4 bricks in thickness. In moderate-sized modern English houses, the inside partition-walls are usually half-brick, the outer walls, 1 or $1\frac{1}{2}$. Modern brick houses are, for the most part, far less substantial than those erected by our forefathers. Building leases being usually granted for ninety-nine years, at the expiration of which term the whole property reverts to the freeholder, the object of the builder is merely to make a house that shall stand for that period, and not to expend any money for the sake of further stability. In laying the foundations of walls, the first courses should be thicker than the intended superstructure, and the projections thus formed, usually of quarter brick on each side, are called 'set-offs' (see FOUNDATION).

Mortar composed of lime and sand is the common cement for brickwork. It should be equally and carefully applied; and the bricks wetted, in order that the mortar may adhere more firmly, by being absorbed into their pores (see CEMENTS).

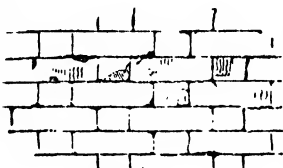
The most important thing in bricklaying is to see that the wall is properly bonded. The bricks of every course should cover the joints of the course below it, or, to use the bricklayer's phrase, the work must 'break bond.' A layer or stratum of bricks is called a *course*. Bricks laid with their lengths in the direction of the course, and their sides to the wall face, are called *stretchers*; those laid transversely, with their ends forming the wall face, *headers*; a layer of headers, a *heading course*; of stretchers, a *stretching course*.

The two kinds of bond almost exclusively used in England are the English and Flemish bond. English bond consists of alternate stretching and heading courses; Flemish bond, of a stretcher and header laid alternately in each course (see figures); English bond is the strongest; Flemish bond, the more ornamental; and they are used accordingly. There are two other kinds of bond occasionally used for thick walls. In both, the centre of the wall is filled up with bricks laid diagonally, by what is called in the one case raking courses, and in the other herring-bone work. In order to strengthen the bond, bands of hoop-iron, tarred and sanded, are sometimes laid flatwise between the courses. This 'hoop-iron bond' has superseded the old practice of using bond-timbers. Walls of brick are frequently built hollow, and these dry quicker and perhaps more thoroughly than those

built solid. In such walls there is a thin outer and inner face of brick with hollow spaces between. Different ways are adopted for bonding or tying these walls. Hollow bricks are also used for walls, partitions, floor arches, and other work. Neat pointing of the joints often gives a very pretty appearance to brick-work.



Old English Bond.



Flemish Bond.

Bricks of the ordinary rectangular shape are often used for arches, leaving the gaping interstices at the upper ends to be filled with mortar, or chips of brick. Such an arch cannot be strong. As the joints radiate to a centre, the arch bricks should be made of or cut to the proper form, just as arch stones are cut to the right shape. In all kinds of bricklaying the walls should be built up level throughout, in order that the *settlement* may be equal, and evidently they should be quite vertical.

Bricklaying is measured by the rod or by thousand. A rod contains 272 square feet of standard thickness—that is, $1\frac{1}{2}$ brick. This is equal to 306 cubic feet, and will, on an average, require 4500 bricks, allowing for waste. A cubic yard contains 384 bricks, and on an average 373 will weigh a ton.

Bricklaying in Frosty Weather.—The British Foreign Office issued in 1887 a very interesting report by Consul-general Michell on the building of brick walls in Norway in winter. For twelve years previous to 1887 building during frost has been practised at Christiania, and in that time a great many houses and some public buildings have been erected of brick either partly or entirely during weather which was frequently from 14° to 9° F. below freezing-point. It is still an open question to what limit of temperature such work can be carried on. The buildings hitherto erected have stood well. Building during frost is also executed to some extent in Berlin. Mr Paul Due, a leading architect in Christiania, says: 'In the use of unslaked lime lies the whole art of executing brickwork in frosty weather.'

Coloured bricks, as a means of external ornament, have been extensively and most effectively used in North Italy and Germany, and in England specially by Butterfield—e.g. in Keble College, Oxford. The works of Mr Ruskin, Mr Gally Knight, Webb's *Continental Ecclesiology*, Street's *Brick and Marble of the Middle Ages*, and Ferguson's *Handbook of Architecture*, and especially Gruner's *Terra-cotta Architecture of North Italy*, may be consulted for illustrated examples of these.

Chromatic brickwork is now becoming very extensively used in England, especially by architects who are endeavouring to revive the style of architecture called by themselves English Gothic, and by some others Venetian Gothic, in which the pointed arch, formed of coloured bricks, forms one of the prominent features (see *TERRA-COTTA*).

Bride (A.S. *brȳd*) alone denotes the newly-married woman; with the addition of the word *groom* (a corruption of A.S. *guma*, 'a man,' allied to Lat. *homo*), the newly-married man (A.S. *brȳd-guma*). The *r* in *-groom* is intrusive, as in *part-r-idge*, *vag-r-ant*, *co-r-poral* for Fr. *caporal*, *cart-r-idge* for Fr. *cartouche*, and *hoa-r-se*. *Bride*

has cognate forms in the other Teutonic tongues; *bridegroom* has parallels in Dutch *bruidegom*, Danish *brud-gom*, Ger. *bräutigam*. *Bridal*, the marriage-feast, again, is for *bride-ale* (the latter being a common name for a feast, seen in *lect-ales*, *scot-ales*, *church-ales*, *clerk-ales*, *bid-ales*, and *bride-ales*). Originally it meant merely the carousal or drinking in honour of the bride, and indeed *bride-ale* is still in the Cleveland dialect of Yorkshire the name given to the draught presented to the wedding-party on its return from church. See *WEDDING*.

Bride, St. See *BRIDGET*.

Bridewell, a well between Fleet Street and the Thames, dedicated to St Bride, which has given its name to a palace, parish, and house of correction. Bridewell was a formidable castle in the days of William the Conqueror, and a residence of our early sovereigns. A palace described as 'a stately and beautiful house,' was rebuilt here in 1552 by Henry VIII. for the reception and accommodation of the Emperor Charles V. and his retinue; and King Henry himself also often lodged here, as, for instance, in 1525, when a parliament was held in Blackfriars. In 1553 Edward VI. gave it over to the city of London to be used as a workhouse for the poor, and a house of correction 'for the strumpet and idle person, for the rioter that consumeth all, and for the vagabond that will abide in no place.' Queen Mary having confirmed the gift, it was formally taken possession of in 1555 by the lord mayor and corporation. The chief portion of the palace was destroyed in the great fire of 1666. The bridewell was afterwards used for other persons than the class above named, and at last became a place of punishment till its removal in 1864. See *CORRECTION*, *HOUSE OF*.

Bridge (A.S. *brycg*; Dutch *brug*; Ger. *brücke*) is a structure raised over a river, lake, canal, road, valley, chasm, or other impediment, to connect the opposite sides, and form a passage across. To speculate on the absolute origin of bridges is unprofitable. The simplest, and no doubt the earliest, form of bridge is that by which a stream was crossed by laying a tree on two piles of stones, or on the banks, at opposite sides. The next step was probably a development of the simple log into a system of cantilever bridge, which afforded means of greatly increasing the span, as has for centuries been practised by Japanese bridge-builders. For spanning a stream of considerable width, they would lay two balks of timber, imbedding one in one bank, and the other in the other bank, with their ends projecting over the stream, so as to form two cantilevers, and would then add a centre balk reaching across from one to the other. A good bridge of this kind was one constructed across the mountain-stream flowing through Nikko, which, although it was built two hundred years ago, is known as the 'temporary bridge,' to distinguish it from the more elaborate structure crossing the stream near it, which has its approaches closed against all but imperial and aristocratic travellers. There is an ancient Indian cantilever bridge across the Sutlej, the side beams of which, 100 feet in length, are imbedded to the extent of 50 feet in the masonry of vertical abutments, leaving 50 feet projecting. On their ends rest a centre beam, with which the span is made up to about 200 feet.

But the skilful and intelligent construction of a permanent bridge, with a large number of blocks of stone, in combination, held together mainly by the force of gravitation, was a problem of another order: apparently outside the scope of the Greek forms of constructive design, when the people of Athens crossed the Cephissus by wading or ferrying. But it was thoroughly grasped

by the practical genius of the Romans, to whom, by general consent, the adoption of the arch as a constructive feature in works of architecture and of engineering is attributed. The Roman bridges generally consisted of a level road supported on one or more semicircular arches, exemplified in the Ponte de Rotto, or Senators' Bridge (fig. 1), erected

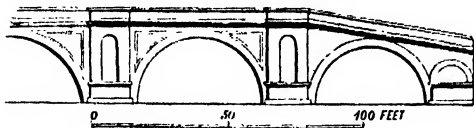


Fig. 1.—Ponte de Rotto.

by Caius Flavius, 127 B.C.—probably the first instance of the application of the arch in bridge design. The most remarkable bridge of antiquity was built by Trajan across the Danube, near Warkel, in Hungary, 4500 feet in length, 60 feet wide, consisting of twenty arches having a span of 170 feet, and 150 feet high from the foundations, constructed of squared stones. It was afterwards destroyed by Adrian, moved by jealousy probably, on the pretext that it would afford a passage for the barbarians into the empire. Some of the piers remain visible. The next considerable Roman work of this kind is the Pont du Gard, built in three stages, serving the double purpose of a bridge over the Gardon, and of an aqueduct for supplying the population of Nîmes with water. The bridge is 465 feet in length, and consists of six arches, which support a second series of arches, eleven in number, continued at each end to join the sloping sides of the mountains; and over these a third series, of thirty-five arches, much smaller than the lower arches, 850 feet in length, supporting a canal on a level with the mountains, 190 feet above the river. This unique structure was built with very large stones, worked with perfect accuracy to the required forms, and held together by iron cramps, without cement. It continues in a good state of preservation.

The semicircular arches of the ancients were succeeded by pointed arches, generally of small span; whilst in those of modern date the arches have generally been segmental—i.e. a segment of a circle less than a semicircle—or semi-elliptical. The segmental and elliptical forms are in general much the more suitable, as they combine wide spans and free waterway with moderate elevation. But they incur a much greater lateral thrust on the piers and abutments than the semicircular arch, which must of course be provided for in proportioning the form and mass of the supporting elements.

The Gothic 'triangular' bridge of Croyland, more



Fig. 2.—Croyland Bridge in 1790.

properly 'trefoil' or three-way bridge (fig. 2), now usually called 'Trinity Bridge,' was built appar-

ently about 1380 by the then abbot of Croyland in Lincolnshire (q.v.). It was erected at a point where a branch from the main stream of the Welland (1½ mile distant) divided into two smaller branches; and its three arches provided for three watercourses and three roadways. But it could never have been intended for heavy traffic, as it is too steep and too narrow for any vehicle. In 1854 the stream passing beneath, then become a common sewer, was arched over; and the bridge is now high and dry. On three piers or abutments arranged in a circle at the apices of an equilateral triangle, three semi-arches rise and meet in the middle—every two semi-arches balanced by the third. The longest bridge built in England in medieval times, was that over the river Trent, at Burton in Staffordshire, erected in the 12th century, of freestone, consisting of thirty-six arches, and 1545 feet long. It was superseded by a new bridge in 1864.

One of the most interesting bridges in the world is the bridge over the Taff, on the road from Llantrissant to Cardiff and Merthyr, which crosses the Taff at the village of Newbridge. It is named the 'Pont-y-tu-Prydd,' or Pontypridd, which means literally 'bridge by the earthen house,' derived from a mud hut that stood near the site. It was first determined to erect a bridge at a spot lower down the river; and William Edwards, a country mason, undertook the work, which was commenced in 1746. The bridge consisted of three arches; but two years and a half after it was finished, it was swept away during one of the great floods to which the Taff, like other rivers in mountainous districts, is subject; the water rising to so great a height as to flow over the parapet. Edwards, to guard against the danger which led to the destruction of the first bridge—the obstruction of the channel by the piers—conceived the bold design of spanning the river with a single arch of 140 feet span. The second bridge had barely been completed, when by another, but very different accident, the bridge fell like its predecessor. The quantity of material in the centre of the arch was so limited in proportion to that laid over the spandrels or haunches, that the deadweight on the haunches forced up the crown of the arch; and, again, the whole was reduced to ruins. After this second failure, most men would have relinquished the attempt. Not so with Edwards, who, persevering and ardent, determined on a third effort to overcome the difficulty. He rebuilt the bridge in conformity with the second design of a single arch; and profiting by experience, he adopted the precaution of greatly reducing the deadweight on the haunches, by making in each spandril three through transverse cylindrical openings, from face to face of the bridge; and, in addition, he filled the internal spaces between the faces with charcoal, a material weighing not more than one-fourth of rubble stone, bulk for bulk. By this means, a permanent structure, finished in 1750, was reared, which has now lasted nearly 140 years. The arch is a segment of a circle; it measures 140 feet wide between the abutments, as already stated, and has a rise of 35 feet. The arch is not parallel faced, but is 14 feet 5 inches wide at the crown, widening to about 16 feet wide at the springing, or the abutments. This expanding form is an element of stability. The roadway is 11 feet wide at the crown. From the great rise of the arch, the roadway over it was uncommonly steep and even dangerous; and about 1830, the roadway was raised at each end, and the surface was paved. But even now it is so steep—the inclination being at the rate of 1 foot rise in 4 feet horizontally—that it is found necessary to use a chain and drag, so that when

a carriage reaches the centre of the bridge, one end of the chain is attached to the hindpart of it, the other end being secured to the drag, upon which a boy generally places himself, so that as the carriage descends upon one side, the drag is pulled up on the other side, and thus relieves the horse in descending. Edwards erected several other bridges in South Wales. With the occupation of a mason he combined that of a Methodist minister, having preached for upwards of forty years at White Cross Chapel, in his native parish.

The nature of the arch, with definitions, has already been noticed in the article ARCH. Each stone of an arch is acted on by three forces, one of which, its proper weight plus the weight of the load above it, is vertical. The second and third, the pressure of the two contiguous stones upon it, are perpendicular to the surface of contact with these stones. The nature of the stress everywhere is essentially compressive—that is to say, every individual stone acts and reacts by simple pressure—the result of gravitation. When every portion of the arch is equally stressed, no part tending to yield before another, it is in a perfect state of equilibrium. But, as says the old proverb, 'an arch never sleeps'—always ready for a fall—and if too great a load be placed on the crown of the arch, it will open outwards at the haunches, and sink inwards at the crown. If, on the contrary, there be a deficiency of weight at the crown, the crown will open upwards, and fall in at the haunches, as happened in the case of the second Pontypridd.

It is readily conceived that the higher the rise of the arch in proportion to the span, the less intense proportionally is the stress in its component parts, the less injurious is any slight inaccuracy of workmanship or design likely to prove, and the easier is the work of construction. But the inconvenience of the steep slopes resulting from a great proportionate rise of the arch, in situations where the approaches are low, has enforced the adoption of the lowest practicable rise and a low elevation of the roadways of bridges—segmental or semi-elliptical in form, as before stated.

The celebrated Grosvenor Bridge over the river Dee at Chester (fig. 3) supplies a fine example of a segmental arch of large span, the second largest span of a stone bridge in the world, the arch over Cabin



Fig. 3.—Grosvenor Bridge.

John Creek, in the Washington Aqueduct, being the largest, 220 feet. The old bridge connecting Chester with a suburb, Handbridge, first noticed in the 13th century, is recorded to have fallen down or been carried away twice. The third erection was of stone, in 1280, consisting of seven arches, pointed Gothic, supported on huge piers or buttresses. The old bridge has been aptly described by Ormerod, as 'a long fabric of red stone, extremely dangerous and unsightly, and approached by avenues to which the same epithet may be safely applied.' The new bridge was designed by Mr Harrison, a local architect. It consists of one arch of 200 feet span, and 42 feet of rise—a segment of a circle of 140 feet radius. The total length is about 345 feet, and the clear width of roadway is 33 feet. It is below the old bridge, and stretches from the rock below Chester Castle towards the village of Overleigh. The abutments are founded on the

solid rock, except where a fault occurs from the rock dipping almost vertically, at the back part of the north end, and where filling was necessary. So soft was the material with which the fissure was filled, a kind of quicksand, that the piles went down 5 or 6 feet at a blow for a considerable depth. A floor of stone was laid on the head of the filling, and the abutment was built upon it. The arch stones are 4 feet deep at the crown, and gradually increase to 6 feet at the springing. The radiating courses of stones on the principle of the arch is carried through the abutments, even down to the foundations; and the rock itself becomes the actual abutment as shown in fig. 4. The bridge was constructed of native sandstone, excepting the faces of the abutment and the first two courses of the arch, which are of granite.

The centering (fig. 4) on which the stupendous arch was raised consisted of six ribs in width of fir timber. The span of the arch was divided into four spaces by means of three nearly equidistant piers

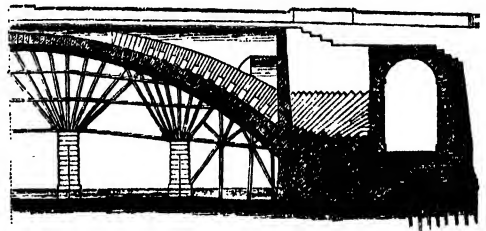


Fig. 4.—Centering of Grosvenor Bridge—Half Length.

of stone built in the river, from which the timber spread fan-like towards the soffit or under face of the arch, where they were bound together with thick planking bent round to the curve of the arch. On the rim thus formed, the lagging or covering to form the bed on which the stones were laid was supported over each rib by wedges, by means of which the bed could be adjusted to the true curve, and which were driven out when the bridge was completed in order to remove the centering. The framing of the centering was composed entirely of whole and half timbers, from 22 to 36 feet in length; and, in all, the centre used up 10,000 cubic feet of timber. The effectiveness of the system adopted was proved by the circumstance that half of the arch was turned before the centre was finished; and that on its removal, the crown of the arch sank only from 2½ inches to 2⅞ inches, the joints remaining perfectly close, and no derangement of form, or of 'spanching' or cracking being perceptible. The cost of the centering did not exceed £500.

The Grosvenor Bridge was constructed in the course of five years, and was opened in 1832. The total cost of the work was £49,900, which included a sum of £7500 for the embankment forming the approaches, or £145 per lineal foot.

John Rennie led the way to the adoption of semi-elliptical bridges. His first important bridge—across the Tweed, at Kelso—opened in 1803, consists of five semi-elliptical arches of 72 feet span, with a rise of 28 feet, and four piers 12 feet thick, with a level roadway 23½ feet wide between the parapets, and 29 feet above the ordinary surface of the river. The foundations were laid on solid rock. The piers and abutments are ornamented with three-quarter columnar pilasters of the Roman-Doric order, surmounted by a plain block-cornice and balustrade of the same character. Kelso Bridge, as Dr Smiles observes in his *Lives of the Engineers*, may be regarded as the model of the greater work by the same engineer—Waterloo

Bridge. It was, he adds, one of the first bridges in this country constructed with a level roadway, contrasting vividly with the old-fashioned bridges, sloped like the roof of a house, as, for instance, the Pontypriid already noticed.

Waterloo Bridge, across the Thames, designed by John Rennie, has a level roadway, carried on nine equal semi-elliptical arches, of 120 feet span each, and 32 feet rise, leaving a clear height of 30 feet above high-water spring-tides. It was built of granite, in a style of solidity and magnificence previously unknown. Inverted arches were built between the elliptical arches in order to counteract the lateral pressure. The elliptical arch was carried to a greater extent of flatness than in bridges previously built. Isolated cofferdams upon a great scale, in a tidal river, with steam-engines for pumping out the water, were employed in the building of this bridge, for the first time, it is believed, in Britain. The length of the bridge between the abutments is 1380 feet, and the width between the parapets is 42 feet 4 inches. The long inclined approach on the Surrey side is formed by a series of thirty-nine semicircular arches of 16 feet span, besides an elliptical arch, of 26 feet span, over the Narrowwall Road, and an embankment 165 yards long, on an inclination of 1 foot rise in 34 feet of length. The total length of the bridge, with approaches, is 2456 feet, or nearly half a mile.

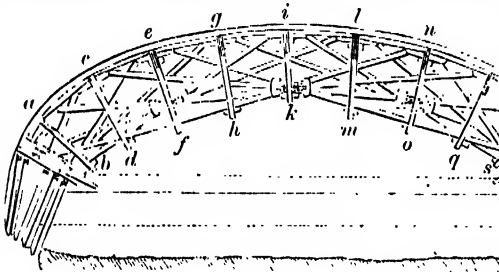


Fig. 5.—Centering of Waterloo Bridge.

The bridge was finished in 1817. The centering employed in the erection of the arches is illustrated by fig. 5, and is an excellent example of centering supported at the piers. It may be observed that the loads on the upper face of the centering are resisted by oblique struts passing to the right and to the left, finally taking their bearing on the base of the piers. At each of the points *c*, *e*, *g*, &c. a pair of oblique struts is placed to take the thrust, one of them resting on a pier, the other lodged in the central shoe, *k*, and opposed by the corresponding strut from the other half of the arch. When the centres were struck, the sinking of the arches did not exceed from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches at the crown.

New London Bridge (fig. 6), across the Thames, was built 180 feet higher up the river than the old bridge. It consists of five semi-elliptical arches, the least of which is wider than any other elliptical arch ever before erected. The centre arch has 152½ feet span, with 37½ feet rise; the next two arches are of 140 feet, and the two abutment arches

are of 130 feet span. The roadway is 52 feet wide. The clear waterway at all times of the tide is 692 feet, or 60 feet more than the old bridge afforded at high-water. The whole length of the bridge is 1005 feet. At the City side the bridge is carried

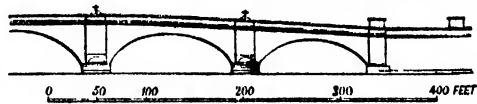


Fig. 6.—London Bridge—Half Length.

over Thames Street on a dry arch. At the Borough or south side the approach is formed on an inclined plane, supported on a series of brick arches, with a large dry arch facing Tooley Street. This bridge deserves further remark for the difficulty of the situation in which it was built, above the old bridge, in a depth of from 25 feet to 30 feet at low-water, on a soft alluvial bottom, covered with large, loose stones, scoured away by the force of the current from the foundations of the old bridge. The whole of these stones had to be removed by dredging before the cofferdams for the piers and abutments could be commenced; otherwise it would have been extremely difficult, if not impracticable, to have made them watertight. The difficulty was further increased by the old bridge being left standing, to accommodate the traffic whilst the new bridge was building, and the restricted waterway of the old bridge occasioned such an increased velocity of the current as materially to retard the operations of the new bridge. At times the tide threatened to carry away all before it; and it was found expedient that two of the small arches of the old bridge on each side should be thrown into one, to compensate for the additional obstruction which the water occasioned to the navigation. The piers and abutments stand upon platforms of timber, the floors of the cofferdams resting upon piles about 20 feet long. The masonry is from 8 feet to 10 feet below the bed of the river. The great magnitude and extreme flatness of the arches, of which the keystones are 4 feet 9 inches long, demanded unusual care in the selection of the materials, which were of the finest blue and white granite from Scotland and Devonshire, as well as great accuracy of workmanship. The new bridge was opened for traffic in August 1831, the period occupied in its erection, from the time of driving the first pile for the dam of the south pier, being seven years, five months, and thirteen days.

The centering employed for the new London Bridge is worthy of notice. It consisted of trussed timber girders, supported at the piers. The striking plates and wedges, by which the centre was lowered after the completion of the arch, were strong beams suitably notched, one of which, the wedge, was kept in its place by cross wedges. When the centre was to be lowered, the cross wedges were knocked out, and the main wedge driven back.

In the following table are given the leading dimensions of the largest stone arches that have been built for common roads, from 150 feet of span upwards:

Name.	River.	Form.	Span.	Rise.	Keystone.	Date.	Engineer.
Claira (Grenoble).....	Drac	Circular	feet. 150	feet. 54	ft. in. 3 1	1611	
Gloucester.....	Sovere	Elliptical	150	35	4 6	1827	Telford.
London.....	Thames.....	Elliptical	152	37½	4 9.	1831	Rennie.
Tournon.....	Doux.....	Circular	157	65	1545
Verona.....	Adige	Elliptical	160	59	1354
Lavaur.....	Agout	Elliptical	160	65	10 9	1775	Saget.
Glynnac.....	Hérault.....	Elliptical	160	44	6 5	1798	Grappuy.
Vieille-Brionde.....	Allier.....	Circular	178	69	5 3	1454	Grenier and Estone.
Chester.....	Dee.....	Circular	200	42	4 0	1832	Hartley.
Washington Aqueduct	Cabin John Creek.	220	Meigs.

The development of the railway system, with command of plenty of capital, has afforded opportunities for the construction of bridges on a grander scale than for common roads. The largest railway bridges usually cross rivers or canals, the smaller single-arch bridges over or under local roads, and for field communication. The number of these is surprising. There are no fewer than 63 such bridges under or over the railway on the 30 miles between Liverpool and Manchester. There are 160 bridges over and 110 under the London and Birmingham line; on the South-Eastern line there are 141; and between London and Gosport, on the South-Western line, there are 188; making a total of nearly 600 bridges on 287 miles of railway, or over two bridges per mile.

The brick bridge over the Thames at Maidenhead, on the Great Western Railway, designed by Mr I. K. Brunel, supplies a remarkably daring instance of wide spans, combined with a low rise of arch. It consists of a central pier and two main arches, flanked at each end by four openings for the passage of flood-water. The main arches are elliptical, 128 feet span, with a rise of 24½ feet only. The land arches are semicircles, 28 feet in diameter. The central pier stands in the middle of the river upon a shoal which provided a good foundation, whilst the deep waterway was left free for the navigation. The low rise of the arches was imposed by the condition of the gradients.

With the railway system, nevertheless, the semicircular stone arch has been revived in bridges as well as in viaducts. One of the most imposing structures of this class, forming part of the Glasgow and South-Western Railway, is the Ballochmyle stone viaduct (fig. 7), over the river Ayr, which

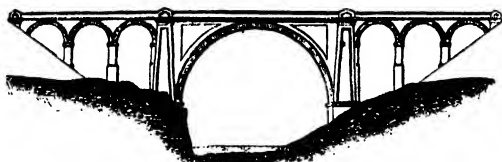


Fig. 7.—Ballochmyle Bridge.

spans the river by a semicircular arch of 180 feet span, founded on rock—the largest span of railway masonry in Britain or elsewhere—with six auxiliary arches of 50 feet span. The arch stones of the central arch are 4½ feet broad. The centering of timber erected for the construction of this arch was a masterpiece of carpentry, well worthy of careful study. Its principal members were composed of 14-inch square balks, carried up from the bed of the river, well braced by diagonals, especially transversely, as the height was very great in proportion to the width. Rails were laid at the upper part of the framing to carry the traversing cranes employed in the construction of the arch. The highest point of the centering stood 157 feet 4 inches above the bed of the river. The level of the rails on the viaduct is 167 feet high.

The Congleton Viaduct, on the Manchester and Birmingham Railway, is amongst the longest in Britain. It is of stone, 1026 yards, or more than half a mile in length, and 106 feet high. It cost £113,000, or £113 per lineal yard. The Dane Viaduct, on the same line, is of brick, 572 yards long, 88 feet high; and it cost £54,000, or £95 per lineal yard, having 23 arches of 63 feet span. On the railway lines entering London and other large cities and towns, there are miles of brick viaducts, extending often as far as the eye can reach. On the Vincenza and Venice Railway there is a viaduct (1845) of stone and brick, by which the

Laguna Veneta is crossed, consisting of 222 arches, and 12,000 feet, or more than two miles long. Thus is Venice, the ocean city, chained to the mainland.

Timber bridges, or frame bridges, as they are occasionally called, are now almost unheard of in Britain—particularly on railways, by reason of their want of durability; and such railway bridges as have in earlier times been built of timber in Britain, have for the most part been reconstructed of stone, brick, iron, or steel. Nevertheless, timber bridges are in some situations, in new and poor countries, practically the only works available where timber is abundant and cheap. It may be proper to place on record the frame bridge constructed at East Linton, on the North British Railway (fig. 8), as a masterpiece of construction, having stone abutments and timber arching, the timber being so disposed as to combine a perfectly stiff, unyielding platform with free circulation for air and economy of material.

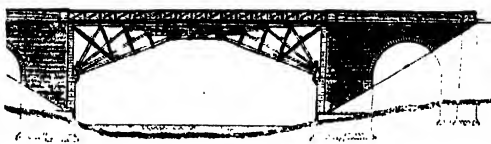


Fig. 8.—Frame Bridge at East Linton.

The main timbers are all in compression; there is nothing in tension, and struts are inserted by which the inclined timbers are firmly combined and stiffened to resist the compressive stress. It may be explained that this bridge, which is over the Haddingtonshire Tyne, was built originally with a stone arch, which fell and was replaced by the timber structure. A viaduct, having timber arches of long span, was erected on the line of the Manchester and Sheffield Railway over Dinting Vale, and opened in 1844. This viaduct consists of 16 arches, 5 of which are of Memel timber, each of 125 feet span, with 25 feet rise. There are four laminated main ribs in each arch, each 4½ feet deep, 18 inches wide, consisting of 3-inch planks laid longitudinally, firmly stayed together. The remaining 11 arches are of brick, of 50 feet span.

It is to the United States of America that we must look for examples of high-class timber bridges and viaducts on a large scale. The 'inflexible arched truss,' introduced by Mr D. C. McCallum, has probably been in more general use in the States than any other system of timber bridge. It is illustrated in fig. 9, showing one-half of a railway

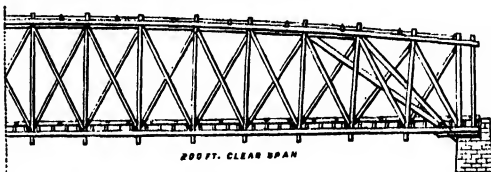


Fig. 9.—Inflexible Truss Bridge—Half Length.

bridge of 200 feet span, 15 feet wide in the clear for a single line. The depth of the truss is 26 feet at the centre, 21 feet at the ends. Its cost is said to be from £6 to £8 per lineal foot.

Cast-iron Bridges.—Towards the close of the 18th century, some bridges were erected, the arches of which were constructed mainly of cast-iron. The first of these structures was the bridge over the Severn, near the town of Ironbridge, erected by Mr Darby, of Coalbrookdale Ironworks, in 1779.

The bridge consisted of a single arch, nearly semi-circular, of 100 feet span. The most celebrated bridge of cast-iron is Southwark Bridge, across the Thames, designed and erected by Mr Rennie, opened in 1824. It consists of 3 cast-iron arches, with stone piers and abutments. The arches are flat circular segments, the central arch having 240 feet span, with a rise of 24 feet, and springing at a level of 6 feet above high-water of spring-tides. The two side arches are of 210 feet span, with a rise of 18 feet 10 inches. The piers are 24 feet wide at the springings. There are 8 arched ribs in the width of the bridge. The arches are 2½ inches thick, and from 8 feet deep to 6 feet deep at the crown; they are in 13-foot lengths, bolted together and joined by transverse plates of the same depth. The roadway is 42 feet wide. The weight of the central arch is 1605 tons, and that of each side arch 1460 tons, making a total of 4585 tons of metal. The rise of the arch due to expansion by heat was observed to amount to 1¼ inches for 50° rise of temperature. The bridge is 718 feet long between the abutments.

Two railway bridges of a composite character, combining a cast-iron arch with plate-iron horizontal members, were designed by Sir John Fowler for the Coalbrookdale Railway, and the Severn Valley Railway, crossing the river Severn. Each bridge has a span of 200 feet, with a rise of 20 feet, consisting of 4 ribs for supporting a double line of way.

The high-level bridge over the deep ravine through which the Tyne flows between Newcastle

most striking features of the bridge. It is suspended from the upper or railway roadway. There are 4728 tons of cast-iron in the bridge, and 321 tons of wrought-iron. The bridge cost £243,000, or, say, £176 per lineal foot. It was opened by the Queen in 1849. The first difficulty in building the bridge was to secure a good foundation for the piers. The first pile was driven to a depth of 32 feet in four minutes; and as soon as one was placed, the traveller hovering overhead presented another, and down it went, like a pin into a pin-cushion. When the piles had been driven and the cofferdams completed, the water was pumped out. But though powerful engines were employed, it forced itself through the bed of quicksand as fast as it was removed. Every effort was made for months to overcome it, but without success, until at last a bed of cement-concrete was laid in, a foundation was made, and the piers were built.

This bridge is historically interesting, as it shows a transitional form intermediate between the arch and the girder—between cast-iron structures and wrought-iron structures. See NEWCASTLE for an illustration.

Wrought-iron Bridges.—The unsuitability of cast-iron as a material for bridges of very large span—long-span bridges as they are called—raised the question of the sole employment of wrought-iron as the material for the crossing of the Conway and the Menai Strait, on the line of the Chester and Holyhead Railway, involving spans of 400 feet and upwards. The maximum existing

span in cast-iron—that of Southwark Bridge—did not exceed 240 feet; and for the greater spans Mr Robert Stephenson conceived the idea of wrought-iron tubes for crossing the Conway River and the Menai Strait in large spans, through which railway trains were to be conducted. Sir William Fairbairn devised and conducted the preliminary course of experiments required for the purpose of testing by models the strength of such a structure, with others of elliptical and rectangular section for comparison. Rectangular tubes had the advantage in point of strength, and a model beam accordingly was constructed, to a scale of one-sixth of the proposed bridge. It bore the test most satisfactorily, and showed that the proposed tube could be made self-supporting over the desired span of 460 feet. Arrangements were accordingly made for the erection of the colossal structure

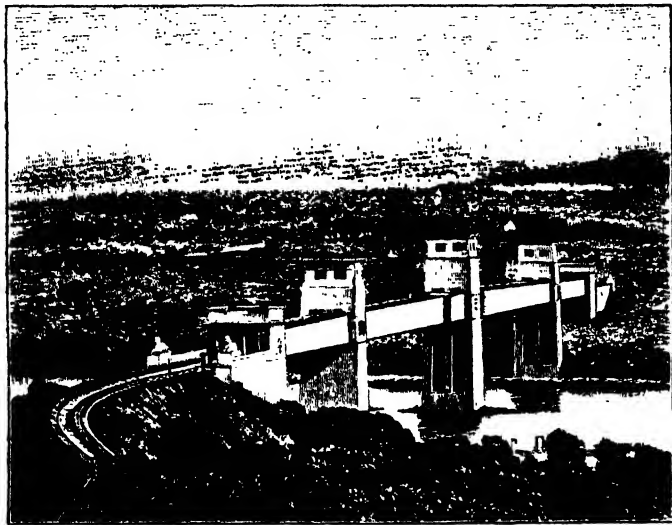


Fig. 10.—Britannia Bridge.

and Gateshead is a unique structure in cast-iron, a fine example of the bow-string arch. It formed the junction between railways from York and from Berwick, then separate (now the North-Eastern main line). It was proposed by Mr Hudson, the railway king, and designed by Mr Robert Stephenson and Mr T. E. Harrison. There are two roadways—one for carriages and foot-passengers, level with the Castlegarth, and the other, 22 feet above it, for railway traffic. The bridge consists of six spans of 125 feet each; the piers, 16 feet thick, being of masonry, the arched ribs of cast-iron, and the ties of wrought-iron. The soffit or under side of the roadway is 83 feet above high-water. The total height of the piers is 131 feet from the foundation. The carriage-road is 1380 feet in length—about a quarter of a mile. It forms one of the

itself. The Britannia Bridge (fig. 10), so called after the Britannia Rock on which the central pier rests, was built across the Menai Strait. It consists of two independent continuous wrought-iron tubular beams, 1510 feet in length, weighing 4680 tons each, independent of the cast-iron frames inserted at their bearings in the towers. They rest on two abutments and three towers of masonry at a height of 100 feet above high-water. The middle, or Britannia tower, 230 feet high, is built on a rock in the middle of the strait. The bridge is thus in four spans, of which there are two spans of 460 feet over the water, and two spans of 230 feet over the land. The weight of one of the longer spans, single tube, is 1587 tons, and that of one of the shorter spans 630 tons. The average weight of a single tube is over three tons per lineal

foot of advance. A transverse section of each tube is shown by fig. 11. The chief mass of the material is placed at the top and the bottom, represented by the upper and lower flanges or tables of an ordinary beam, the two sides serving to connect the top and the bottom. Constructed of plate-iron, the top requires more metal than the



Fig. 11.

bottom, in order to resist the buckling stress to which it is subject. But, instead of putting the metal into one thick plate, or into several plates laid one on another, it is constructed to form a set of small tubes or cells, which give additional stiffness and strength to the whole tube. The floor, in like manner, contains cells. Each tube is straight on the lower face, and slightly curved on the upper face, inasmuch that the height of the tube externally is 30 feet at the middle in the Britannia Tower, and 26 feet internally, and 22 feet 9 inches and 18 feet 9 inches at the extremities in the abutments. The width of each tube externally is 14 feet 8 inches, and 13 feet 5 inches clear inside. The side plates are from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in thickness; the top plates are from $\frac{3}{8}$ inch to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch, for resisting compression; and the bottom plates are from $\frac{1}{8}$ inch to $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, for resisting extension. The tubes repose solidly on the centre tower, but on the land towers and abutments they repose on roller beds, thus permitting free expansion and contraction according to the temperature. The daily variation of length is from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to 3 inches for the whole length of the tube, the extremes of the movement being attained at about 3 P.M. and 3 A.M. The effect of sunshine in deflecting the Britannia Bridge, as observed by Mr Edwin Clark, is very curious. A short spell of sunshine on the top of the tube raised it on one occasion nearly an inch in half an hour, with a load of 200 tons at the centre, the top plates of the bridge being expanded by increase of temperature, while the lower plates remained at constant temperature by radiation to the water beneath them. In like manner, the tube was drawn sideways to the extent of an inch by the sun shining on one side, and it returned immediately to its normal position as clouds passed over the sun. The tubes sometimes move as much as 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches vertically or horizontally when the sun shines on them. The tube is in fact a most delicate thermometer, in constant motion, both vertically and laterally. The Britannia Bridge was opened in March 1850 by the passage through it of three powerful locomotives with tenders. The second experimental train that went through consisted of twenty-four heavily laden coal-wagons, aggregating 300 tons weight. The train was drawn through the tubes at leisurely speed. During the passage a breathless silence prevailed, and when the train emerged at the other end the event was announced by great cheering, mingled with the reports of pieces of ordnance. One can imagine the relief from intense anxiety to the engineer. 'Often at night,' said Mr Stephenson, 'I would lie tossing about, seeking sleep in vain. The tubes filled my head. I went to bed with them, and got up with them. In the gray of the morning, when I looked across Gloucester Square, it seemed an immense distance across to the houses on the opposite side. It was nearly the same length as the span of my tubular bridge.'

A similar tubular bridge across the Conway, on

the line of the Chester and Holyhead Railway, was designed and erected by Mr Stephenson. It consists of two tubes, each of one span of 400 feet, and was opened for traffic in May 1848.

The Victoria Railway Bridge (1854-59) over the St Lawrence River, at Montreal, Canada, is tubular in design, like the Britannia Bridge. It is 9144 feet, or nearly 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, in twenty-four spans of 242 feet, and a central span of 330 feet. The total length of each of the tubes is 6592 feet; and there are 9044 tons of iron in the tubes, or about 1 ton per lineal foot. There is a total painted superficies equal to 32 acres. The river is 8660 feet, or about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide at the crossing, where it descends at the rate of 7 miles per hour. The bridge is remarkable chiefly for its ice-breaking piers, which are constructed with large bows at the up-river ends to resist the enormous pressure of the ice in spring. The rails are 60 feet above the level of the river.

Although tubular bridges are not likely to be constructed in the future, it should be remembered that it was in tubular bridges that the first attempt was made to introduce wrought-iron in long spans upon railways. This was done by Mr Stephenson at a time when perhaps it would not have been in the power of any other man to influence the introduction of wrought-iron in such structures. The experience of the tubular bridge, nevertheless, has led to a development of plate-iron girder bridges, in which the cellular principle of the tubular bridge has been applied in the designing of the longitudinal girders or beams between which the roadway is carried. The early forms for such girders are typified in the wrought-iron girders of the Torksey Bridge, Lincolnshire, erected in 1850. The bridge is constructed of two spans of 130 feet each. The girders are of uniform depth—10 feet. The upper boom or member of each girder is cellular, being the form best adapted to resist compression, and is constructed of plates $\frac{3}{8}$ inch and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in thickness. The lower boom is not cellular like the top, as it is exposed only to tensile stress, and is constructed of plates $\frac{3}{8}$ inch and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, riveted together. The two side plates, inclosing a hollow space, are made of $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch plates.

Lattice-girder Bridges.—The iron lattice bridge—so called from having sides constructed with cross-bars, like lattice-work—is the natural outcome of the tubular bridge for long spans, developing equal strength with considerable economy of material and labour.

Lattice bridges of timber were first used in America, where timber is cheap. The first lattice-girder in iron was designed by Sir John MacNeill, and erected in 1843 on the line of the Dublin and Drogheda Railway, near Dublin, of 84 feet span.

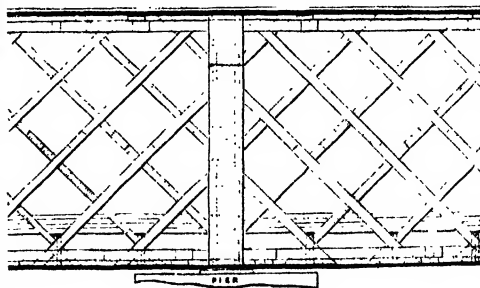


Fig. 12.

Lattice-girders are now almost universally adopted for iron bridges for long spans. Amongst the earliest of them is the lattice bridge forming a

portion of the Boyne Viaduct on the line of the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway, near Drogheda, completed in 1855. It has three large openings, of which the middle span is 264 feet long, and the side spans 138 feet. There are two side girders 26½ feet deep, 24½ feet apart, connected by cross girders of lattice-work above and

below—forming a rectangular inclosure, within which, on a platform, two lines of rails are laid on which the trains run. Each of the lattice-bars is crossed by six others at the angle 45 degrees, forming squares (fig. 12).

The Charing Cross Bridge across the Thames, on the line of the South-Eastern Railway (fig. 13), is

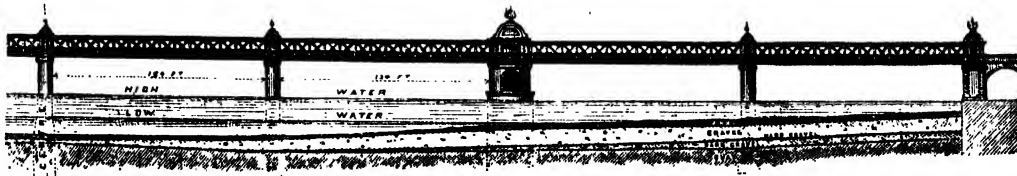


Fig. 13.—Charing Cross Bridge—Half Length.

a lattice bridge of a different order, having a total length of 1365 feet, over a quarter of a mile. It consists of nine spans, six of which are 154 feet clear, and three are 100 feet clear. In the superstructure of each opening of 154 feet there are two main girders, 49 feet 4 inches apart transversely between their central lines, connected beneath by transverse girders, carrying four lines of rails, and projecting at each side to carry a footpath. The main girders are 14 feet deep. The sides are constructed of top and bottom booms of plate-iron, and are in panels divided by vertical bars, each panel containing two diagonal bars, crossed at the angle 45 degrees, and fastened to the booms by means of large round pins or bolts from 5 inches to 7 inches in diameter. The weight of one main girder is 190 tons. The bridge was built on the site of Brunel's old Hungerford Suspension Bridge, the two brickwork piers of which were utilised for the present bridge. The piers

for the spans of 154 feet, other than the brick piers, are cast-iron cylinders, 10 feet in diameter above ground, and expanded to a diameter of 14 feet in the ground, thus supplying a very wide base for each cylinder. Each pier consists of two such cylinders (fig. 14), one for supporting each main girder. The piers are formed of segmental cast-iron plates bolted together, and they were sunk

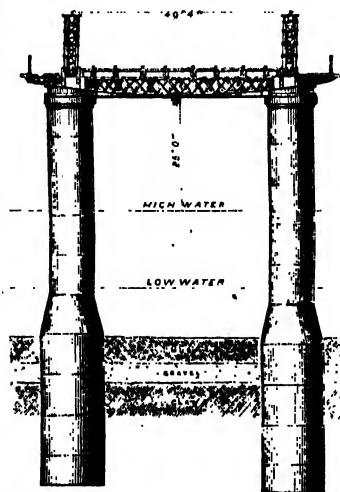


Fig. 14.

Charing Cross Bridge: one of the Piers.

to a depth of 62 feet below high-water mark, by excavating the material from the inside by divers armed with helmets, until they became bedded on the London clay. They were weighted with 150 tons of load, to overcome the friction of the soil on their sides, and to sink them to their destined depth. They were filled with concrete and brickwork, capped with granite bearing-blocks. Under a load of 700 tons, the cylinders thus filled sunk a

further depth of 4 inches into the clay. Altogether there are nearly 7000 tons of metal in the bridge. The total cost of the bridge, including the abutments, was £180,000, or £131 per lineal foot. The bridge thus at first constructed has recently been doubled in width to meet the development of traffic.

American Quadrangular Girder Bridges.—One of the best examples of American long-span iron-bridge construction (fig. 15) is the bridge across the Kentucky River on the Cincinnati Southern Railway, designed by Mr C. Shuler Smith—noteworthy for the economical design and comparatively light weight. The ironwork of the bridge is 1138 feet in length, and it consists of three spans of 375 feet each. It crosses a limestone

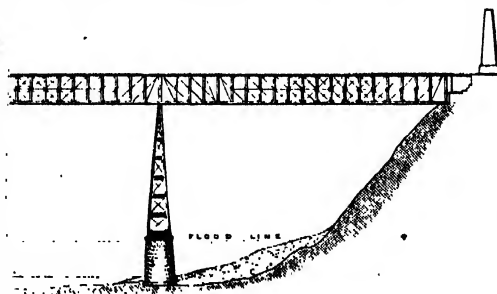


Fig. 15.

Bridge across the Kentucky River—Half Length.

cañon at a height of 280 feet above the bed of the stream. The piers are of stone to a height of 60 feet, to clear the highest recorded floods; and they are about 34 feet thick at the flood-level. Above the stonework the piers are of iron. The truss or girder is rectangular in section, 37½ feet high, 18 feet wide, consisting of top and bottom pairs of booms, forming the corners, united by panels or frames at intervals of 18½ feet longitudinally, stiffened and bound with diagonal tie-rods. The booms each consist of flat plates placed vertically, riveted together. The piers consist of hollow pillars of plate-iron riveted together in box form. The diagonal rods are 'pin-connected'—that is to say, they are connected to the framework with cylindrical pins, a form of connection much practised in the States. The bridge was completed in February 1877. The expansion and contraction of the bridge operate each way from the centre, bending the tops of the piers correspondingly towards or from the shores; the greatest observed movement being half an inch either way. The ends of the girder rest by means of rollers on the abutments, and

they have a maximum of 3 inches of travel resulting from variation of temperature. The ironwork of the bridge weighs 1634 tons, or 1.43 tons per lineal foot—less than half the weight per lineal foot of the tubes of the Britannia Bridge.

Cantilever Bridges—The Forth Bridge.—The principle of the cantilever bridge has already been noticed as applied primitively in Japan and India, and in China also. A cantilever is, as Mr Baker says, a bracket. It is a structure overhung from a fixed base. The bridge in course of construction across the river Forth (fig. 16), on the North British Railway system, will be, when completed, the largest and most magnificent bridge in the world. The engineers are Sir John Fowler, K.C.M.G., and Mr Benjamin Baker. The site of the bridge is at Queensferry. At this place, the estuary of the Forth is divided by the island of Inchgarvie into two channels, whose depth, as much as 200 feet, precluded the construction of intermediate piers. Hence, two large spans of 1700 feet each were adopted. Between these, the central pier is founded on the island midway across, and is known as Inchgarvie pier. There are two other main piers—shore-piers—known respectively as the Fife pier and the Queensferry pier. On these three piers respectively three double lattice-work cantilevers (fig. 17), like scalebeams,

cylindrical columns of masonry 36 feet high, each 49 feet in diameter at the top, and 55 feet at the bottom, founded on rock or on boulder-clay. To make assurance doubly sure, the superstructure is bolted down to each column with forty-eight steel bolts $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter and 24 feet long.

The piers were founded by means of Cofferdams



Fig. 16.—General View of the Forth Bridge (looking up the river).

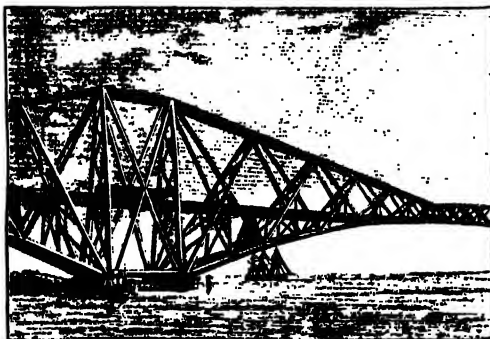


Fig. 17.—One of the Cantilevers of the Forth Bridge.

1360 feet, or a quarter of a mile in length, are poised in line, reaching towards each other, and connected at their extremities by ordinary girders 350 feet long, by which the two main spans are completed. The bridge consists of two main spans of 1700 feet, or nearly one-third of a mile each; two of 675 feet each, being the shore-ends of the outer cantilevers; and 15 spans of 168 feet each. The total length of the viaduct, including piers, is 8296 feet, or a little over $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles, of which almost exactly 1 mile is covered by the great cantilevers. The clear headway under the centre of the bridge is 152 feet at high-water, and the highest part of the bridge is 361 feet above the same level. Each of the three main piers consists of a group of four

(q.v.) for shallow depths under water, and Caissons (q.v.) worked with compressed air for the deep water at Inchgarvie and at Queensferry. At Inchgarvie, two caissons constructed of wrought-iron plates, 70 feet in diameter, were sunk, the rock being excavated from below the lower edge of the cylinder, to a depth of 72 feet below the waves of the Forth. The operations were conducted under the pressure of compressed air in a mining-chamber 7 feet high, lighted by electricity, at the lower end of the caisson. A striking incident served to impress the reality of the high pressure of the air in this chamber. A flat-sided spirit-flask was taken down and emptied. The bottle of course was filled with compressed air, of a pressure of 33 lb. per square inch, and was corked. Under this pressure it exploded when passing through the Air-lock (q.v.) into the open air. At Queensferry, four caissons like those employed at Inchgarvie were sunk to depths of from 71 to 80 feet below high-water. The bed of the river was of soft mud, through which the caissons were sunk into hard boulder-clay. The mud, after having been diluted with water, was blown out by the compressed air supplied to the mining-chamber. The caissons were gradually filled with concrete as it was required, to steady them, and at the same time to drive them down by deadweight through the clay. When they were sunk to the required depth, the bottom or mining-chamber was cleared out and rammed with concrete, grouted up under pressure. No subsidence took place after this final operation, the boulder-clay being very hard. But independently of this consideration, it is readily seen that by in this way substituting the whole area of the immense circular caisson for the mere circular cutting-edge at the bottom to take a bearing on the clay, the bearing surface, and with that the resistance to a vertical load, was almost indefinitely increased. When the concrete was filled to the water-level, the piers were carried up with massive stones laid in cement, the whole pier becoming one solid mass.

The bridge is taper in plan, each span narrowing from a width of 120 feet—the distance apart of the lower members of each cantilever—at the pier, to a minimum of 31½ feet at the extremities of the cantilever, giving an outline, in a vertical view of it, like a truncated triangle, in order to confer a degree of stiffness laterally, for resisting irregular stresses, wind-pressure in particular. The metal columns above each pier, forming the basis of the cantilever, are 12 feet in diameter. The members under compression are tubular, those in tension are of open braced forms. The wind-pressure is assumed from calculation at a maximum of 56 lb. per square foot. The maximum possible stress on any member of the bridge is calculated to be at the rate of 7½ tons per square inch of sectional area, leaving a plentiful margin of strength, since the steel of which the bridge is constructed is capable of resisting a tensile stress of from 30 to 33 tons per square inch, and compression to the extent of from 34 to 37 tons per square inch. Between the two main girders a double line of way is to be carried on an internal viaduct supported by trestles and cross girders. The whole of the metal-work of the superstructure is of Siemens steel. The way will consist of heavy bridge-rails laid on longitudinal sleepers bedded in four steel troughs, into which the wheels will drop in case of derailment, when they will run on the sleepers.

In the piers there are about 120,000 cubic yards of masonry, and in the superstructure 44,500 tons of steel. The bent steel plates which go to make the tubes and struts would, if placed in a line, end to end, stretch a distance of 42 miles. There are 20 acres of surface to be painted. The contract was let for the sum of £1,600,000, or £215 per lineal foot. An impression of the great magnitude of the bridge is derived from a comparison with the largest completed railway bridge in England—the Britannia Bridge, which has spans of 460 feet—little more than one-fourth of the spans of the Forth Bridge. The best proof of approval is imitation. In this connection mention should be made of the fine organisation of labour secured by Mr Arrol, of Taiterred, Arrol, & Co., the contractors, and of the ingenious special tools designed by him for carrying out the work of construction. Since the first publication of the design for the Forth Bridge, nearly every new long-span bridge throughout the world has been built on the principle of that design.

For comparison with the largest bridge in the world, the following particulars of a few mammoth railway bridges are given :

	Length. Feet.	Greatest Span. Feet.
Forth Bridge.....	8206	1700
Brooklyn Bridge.....	5989	1595
Niagara Bridge.....	..	821
Britannia Bridge.....	1510	460
Victoria, Montreal.....	9144	330
Boyne Viaduct.....	1700	264
Tay Bridge.....	10,780	245
Charing Cross Bridge.....	1365	154
Crumlin Viaduct, Monmouthshire.....	1800	150
High-level Bridge, Newcastle-on-Tyne.....	1380	125
Ana-Daria Bridge.....	6804	..

The last, on the Transcaspian Railway between Merv and Bokhara, was first crossed by a train on 18th January 1888.

Suspension Bridges.—These are bridges in which the roadway is suspended from chains, links, or ropes, passing over piers or towers, and fixed or anchored at their extremities. Another line of evolution had its origin in the principle of suspension. The simplest form, if possible, is a rope, traversed by a pulley, ring, or grooved block of wood, from which a rude car is suspended, or, in some cases, only a loop, in which the passenger sits, and either works himself across with his own hands, or is drawn from side to side by a smaller line

attached to the car. Such elementary bridges have been in use from the earliest ages. More than a hundred and thirty years ago, Don Antonio de Ulloa described them as commonly used in the mountainous districts of South America. Structures of a more bridge-like character were erected by the Peruvians. Six strong cables are suspended across the river, four of which carry the platform, consisting of sticks laid across them, and branches of trees laid longitudinally upon the sticks. The two other ropes are considerably higher than the platform, and are connected with it. They serve as rails for the security of the passenger. Ulloa observes that 'the appearance of the bridges, which move with the wind, and are agitated by the movements of every passenger that crosses them, is very frightful at first.' They cross chasms hundreds of feet deep, through which cataracts of water, derived from the melting snow, rush, lashed into irresistible fury.

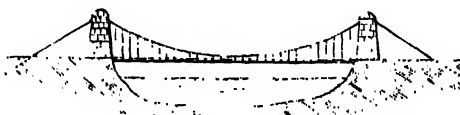


Fig. 18.—Suspension Bridge.

Fig. 18 is a typical illustration of a modern suspension bridge. When the weight of the roadway is known by the stress on the suspending links, the problem of statical equilibrium assumes the simplest form, and the conditions of strength and stability are readily determined. But when there is a shifting or rolling load on the roadway, which is heavy in proportion to the weight of the bridge, as, for example, a railway train, the conditions are involved. When the train occupies, say, only one-half of the bridge, the chain is depressed on that side, and is raised on the other side. Thus an undulation is produced in the bridge, which, especially if the train be moving rapidly, may seriously disturb the equilibrium, and even endanger the stability of the bridge. Various combinations have been devised to overcome this difficulty. The simplest and probably the best course is to stiffen the roadway, so that the stress of the passing load may be distributed over a considerable length of the chain. In this manner large railway bridges have been constructed in America—for example, the Roellings bridge (1855) over the Niagara, 2½ miles below the falls, having a span of 822 feet, and being 245 feet above the level of the stream. A hundred yards higher up is a new cantilever railway bridge (1883).

The Menai Suspension Bridge, designed and constructed by Thomas Telford, was as great a step, in its own time, as its neighbour the tubular railway bridge of Robert Stephenson. After various abortive designs were proposed and abandoned, Telford put forward his plan for crossing the straits by a suspension bridge of one large span, 100 feet high above the water-level. The roadway is suspended from four cables, each consisting of four tiers of bars, making in all sixteen chains, having a drop of 57 feet, or about one-tenth of the span. There are two carriage-ways, each 12 feet wide, with a footpath between them, 4 feet wide. The chains consist of flat bars on edge, 10 feet long, 1 inch thick, and 3½ inches wide, connected to each other by round bolts. The total length of the bridge is 1710 feet, or about one-third of a mile; and the distance between the points of suspension is 579 feet. The total weight of iron used for the structure was 2187 tons. The bridge occupied six years in construction, and was opened in 1825. The

total cost, including the embankment and about half a mile of new line of road, was £120,000.

The success of the Menai Suspension Bridge having been assured, one of a still larger span, 870 feet, at an elevation of 167 feet above the river, was constructed at Freiburg, which crosses the valley of the Sarine, in Switzerland. The bridge was suspended by wire-ropes, each consisting of eighty wires, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, tied together by coils at intervals. The bridge was constructed in 1833-34, and cost £24,000. It is the largest suspension bridge in the world.

The Clifton Suspension Bridge (fig. 19) has an interesting record. In 1753 William Vick, a Bristol alderman, bequeathed the sum of £1000, to accumulate at compound interest until it reached £10,000, and then to be used in constructing a stone bridge at or near the site of the present Clifton Bridge. This sum was augmented by contributions, and in 1830 an act was obtained for the construction of the bridge, to the design of Mr Telford, having a central span of 400 feet. The work subsequently passed into the hands of Mr I. K. Brunel, a man of large ideas, who made a new design for a single span of 702 feet, at a height of 250 feet above high-water level. The new design was proceeded with in 1836, and the abutments and piers were completed; but, for want of funds, the work was arrested until 1860, when advantage was taken of the removal of the old Hungerford Suspension Bridge, to make room for the Charing Cross Railway Bridge. The chains were bought at a low cost, and in 1861 the works of the Clifton Bridge were resumed, in which the old chains were utilised. In the new bridge there are three chains on each side, supporting longitudinal stiffening girders of wrought-iron, with open-work cross-girders to carry the floor of the bridge. The hand-railing was also ingeniously utilised with lattice-work as a girder to co-operate in stiffening the platform. The span of the bridge, measured between the centres of the piers or towers, is 702½ feet; the width is 31 feet, including 20 feet of roadway defined by the distance apart of the chains, and two footways, one at each side. The roadway is not on a dead level, but between the piers has a rise or arching of 2 feet. The chains, passed over the piers on cast-iron saddles or rollers, are carried downwards to land-saddles at a distance of 196 feet from the piers, bedded on brickwork set upon the solid rock. Sixty feet further the chains are carried down at an angle of 45 degrees to the anchorage-plates, bedded in a mass of brickwork in the form of an arch abutting on the solid rock far below the surface of the ground. All the links were proved with a stress of 10 tons per square inch. The platform is suspended by vertical rods from the chains, and that the stress on the rods may be adjusted and equalised, they are fitted each with a double adjusting screw at the lower end. The roadway is of creosoted timber 5 inches in thickness. The footways are laid with timber of half this thickness. The weight of the chains between the piers is 554 tons; and yet they are subject to a tensional stress of 680 tons at the middle, by their own weight. The suspension-rods, girders, flooring, &c., weigh 440 tons, making, with the chains, a total weight of nearly 1000 tons. It is calculated that, if the bridge be loaded all over

the platform at the rate of 70 lb. per square foot, which is estimated as the maximum weight of a crowd, the final stress on the chains at the middle would amount to 2094 tons, or 4½ tons on each square inch of section of the chains. In order to provide for the effects of expansion and contraction and other causes of disturbance, the two ends of the roadway are furnished with hinged flaps 8 feet long, which give perfect freedom of movement vertically as well as horizontally.

The Brooklyn Suspension Bridge across the East River, between New York and Brooklyn, opened in 1883, is built of steel. It has a central span of 1595½ feet, and two land spans of 930 feet each;

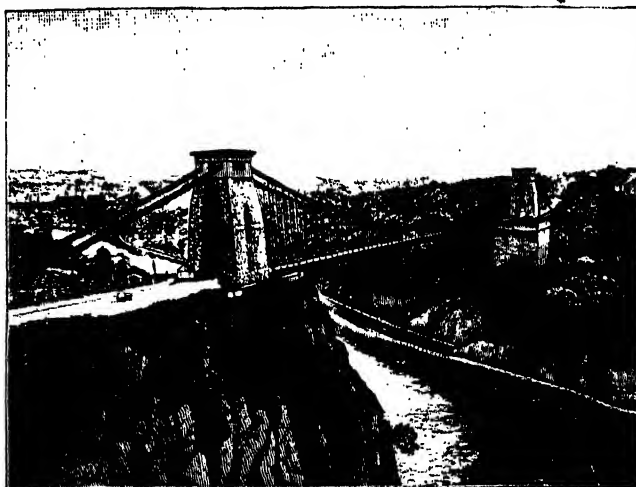


Fig. 19.—Clifton Suspension Bridge.

making, with the approaches, a total length of 5989 feet, or about one mile and one furlong. The anchorage at each end is a solid cubical structure of stone, measuring 119 feet one way, by 132 feet the other, rising to a height of 90 feet above high-water mark, weighing 60,000 tons each. The towers are 276 feet high. The weight of the whole structure suspended between the towers is nearly 7000 tons. The stress of suspension is borne by four cables, of 5000 steel wires each, 15½ inches in diameter. The foundations of the towers were laid by means of caissons and compressed air, at a level of about 80 feet below high-water mark. The roadway presents five parallel avenues, of an average width of 16 feet each. The two outmost avenues, 19 feet wide, are devoted to vehicles; the central avenue, 15½ feet wide, for foot-passengers; and on the two intermediate avenues are laid tramways for car-traffic. For illustration see BROOKLYN.

Movable Bridges.—Movable bridges are usually required in the neighbourhood of rivers, docks, wharves, canals, and like situations, for the passage of ships and boats. They are variously designed and adapted to particular situations, and may be classified as: (1) Bascules or drawbridges, (2) swing bridges, (3) traversing bridges, (4) lift bridges, (5) pontoon bridges.

Bascules or Drawbridges.—The bascule bridge is such as is raised by turning, in one piece or in two pieces, round one or two horizontal axes or hinges. The most ancient form of the bascule was that of one flap of framed timber used to cross the moat or ditch of a fortress or castle, and capable of being drawn up by means of chains from the inside. For large dimensions it is convenient to construct the bridge in two halves, lifting from each side, and

abutting together at the middle. An excellent bascule bridge, erected in 1839, on the North-Eastern Railway, across the river Ouse, gives a clear waterway of 45 feet. The bridge is opened by two men, one at each leaf, in about one minute and a half, and is opened about eight times every day. The largest bascule bridge is that at Copenhagen, which was opened for traffic in 1867, giving a free passage-way of 56 feet 8 inches. The bridge is counter-weighted with 57 tons load at the end of the tail, which is $13\frac{1}{2}$ feet from the centre of the hinge.

The Tower Bridge, a bascule bridge, constructed in 1888, across the Thames, at the Tower of London, is designed on such a scale as to be the largest bridge in the world of the bascule class. It is illustrated by fig. 20. The bridge may be



Fig. 20.—The Tower Bridge.

described as a compound suspension and bascule bridge of three spans, of which the centre opening is fitted with a bascule or drawbridge, shown lifted in the figure. The bascule is carried by two massive Gothic towers, from which the chains or links are suspended, and in which provision is made for the machinery required for opening and closing the middle span. Lifts at both sides, as well as internal staircases, are provided for the use of foot-passengers. The lifts communicate immediately with the upper footway connecting the towers, so that the foot-traffic is never interrupted. The leaves of the drawbridge, when open, will be flush with the towers, allowing the largest shipping to pass through. When the bridge is closed, there will be sufficient height at high-water for the ordinary traffic of the river to pass under. The bridge is being built of gray granite for the lower portions, hard red brick for the upper portions of the towers. The opening of a passage for vessels, and the closing of the bridge, will be accomplished in the course of four or five minutes. Of the three spans, the clear centre opening for shipping is 200 feet, the side spans are each 270 feet, and the total length between abutments is 800 feet. The headway of the centre span when closed is $29\frac{1}{2}$ feet above Thames high-water, and that of the side spans is 27 feet. The height of the foot-bridge across the centre span is 135 feet above high-water. The approach-roads and the foot-bridge are 60 feet wide. The parliamentary estimate cost of the bridge, including land, is £750,000, or about £940 per lineal foot. The late Sir Horace Jones was

the architect, and Mr J. Wolfe Barry is the engineer.

Swing Bridges.—Swing bridges are by far the most commonly employed of movable bridges. The large rivers to be crossed in America have demanded swing bridges of great span, with excellent contrivances for minimising friction and insuring steadiness when closed. The swing bridge over the Raritan, in New Jersey, U.S., allows two free passages, each 216 feet wide. It is what is known as a double-swing bridge—the bridge being balanced on a central pivot assisted by a system of rollers—opening and closing two passages at once, and affording two passages instead of only one, as in the earlier bridges, which were generally made in two leaves to cross single passages. The Kansas City Bridge crosses two passages, each 160 feet wide. The total moving weight is 303 tons. The bridge is opened by steam-power in about one minute and a half, or by manual power in two minutes. From two-thirds to three-fourths of the moving weight rests on the central pivot.

Traversing Bridges.—Movable bridges, sometimes called telescope bridges, capable of being rolled horizontally backward, or in an oblique direction, are occasionally employed. The bridge across the Arun, near Arundel, on the South Coast Railway, is 144 feet long. It is traversed on wheels, and acts as a sliding cantilever, the overhanging portion resting on the opposite abutment when in place.

Lift Bridges.—These are not common. There appear to be only two—one erected over the Surrey Canal, which is lifted by the four corners; and another over the Royal Canal, Dublin. In the second case, a branch railway crosses the canal at an angle of 25 degrees. The bridge first made for the situation weighed 14 tons, and was balanced by a counterpoise consisting of a tank filled with water, the counterpoise, empty, being 1 ton lighter than the bridge, and when loaded with 2 tons of water, 1 ton heavier. The bridge could thus be raised and lowered with the aid of a man at a winch. The lift of the bridge was $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet, which gave a headway for barges equal to that of the adjoining stone bridge. The supply of water for working the bridge was taken from an adjacent lock. At the four corners rams worked into cylinders, which admitted water from the lock to enter through small holes, and fill the cylinders as the rams were drawn up in the raising of the bridge, acting as a check in case of accident. The bridge has been reconstructed for a greater lift.

Pontoon or Floating Bridges—Bridges of Boats.—Bridges of boats are made of boats laid over with planks, fastened across the stream by means of anchors or stakes. The bridge at Rouen is 300 yards long, paved with stone for the passage of carriages and horses. The so-called 'flying bridge' is rather a ferry than a bridge of boats (see FERRY).

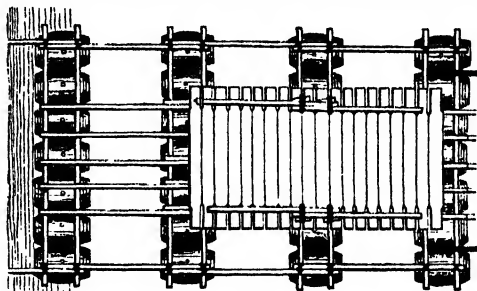
A well-known pontoon bridge was designed by Mr Mallet to cross the Royal Canal at the Broad-

stone terminus of the Midland Great Western Railway of Ireland. The general idea is that of a pontoon or flat-bottomed boat of iron. When the bridge is in place, water is admitted until it settles down firmly on timber wall-plates. To open it the water is drawn off by a movable siphon, which is connected with a fixed pipe, having a considerable vertical fall. A smaller branch pipe is set at an angle to the exhaust-pipe, and through it a strong jet of water is allowed to issue. This operation, on a well-known principle of hydrodynamics, sucks away the air from the siphon and causes it to act. The bridge then floats, and is drawn into a recess, leaving the passage clear along the canal.

The longest floating bridge in the world, probably, is the pontoon bridge across the river Hooghly, at Calcutta, designed and constructed by Sir Bradford Leslie. The bridge is 1530 feet long between the abutments, and is carried on 14 pairs of pontoons, which are held in position by means of chain-cables, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick, and anchors weighing 3 tons each, laid on the up-stream and down-stream sides, 900 feet asunder. By their great length, the cables afford the necessary spring to allow for the ordinary rise and fall of the river, the stress on each cable varying from 5 tons to 25 tons, according to the state of the weather and of the tide, the maximum velocity of which is 6 miles an hour. The pontoons are rectangular iron boxes, having rounded bilges and wedge-shaped ends. They are each of the great length of 160 feet, made of such considerable length in order to obviate pitching motion in rough weather, with a beam of 10 feet, and depth of from 8 to 11 feet, presenting a side of from 3½ to 4 feet above water, according to the state of the traffic. For perfect safety, each pontoon is divided by bulkheads into 11 compartments. They are made of iron plates $\frac{1}{4}$ inch and $\frac{5}{8}$ inch in thickness, riveted together. The platform of the bridge is supported by tressel-work on the pontoons at a clear height of 27 feet above the water—a convenient height for boat navigation. The roadway platform is of 3-inch planks of teak-wood from Burma, forming a roadway 48 feet wide, with a footpath at each side, 7 feet wide. An opening 200 feet wide, for the passage of ships, is made by removing, when occasion requires, four of the pontoons with their superstructure, and sheering them clear of the opening. The portion so removed is in two divisions, which are separately secured, right and left, and when in place, are connected by draw-bridges with the fixed portions of the bridge. Before launching, the pontoons were ballasted sufficiently to make them float upright; and were afterwards coupled in pairs by the cills of the main trusses, when the ballast was removed. The floating bridge is connected with the shore at each end by adjusting ways hinged to the shore. The ordinary time taken to open the bridge is 15 minutes; and to close it, 20 minutes. It is only opened twice a week. The bridge cost £182,000, or about £120 per lineal foot.

MILITARY BRIDGES are temporary constructions to facilitate the passage of rivers by troops, to restore a broken arch, or cross a chasm of no very great width. Those over a river are either floating or fixed. The former are made of pontoons (q.v.), boats, casks, rafts of timber, or anything that will give sufficient buoyancy, and the latter of piles, tressels, or other timber work. Spars, ropes, and planks are used in a variety of ways for spanning narrow chasms. The pontoon bridge is the only one which is carried with an army. Enough material for 100 yards of length accompanies each army corps. All military bridges have their *roadway* formed in the following manner: five to nine *road-bearers* of stout timber support *chesses* or flat planks 10 feet long, held in position so as to

form a level surface, by two *ribands* placed above them and over the outer *road-bearers*, to which they are fastened by *rack-lashings*. The *road-bearers* are supported by the pontoons, casks, boats,



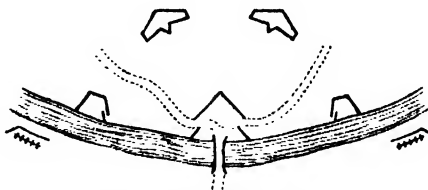
Military Bridge.

tressels, or piles, which form the piers, usually 10 to 15 feet apart, or by transoms on the ropes in the case of suspension bridges. To prevent injury to the boats, balks of timber are built up along the keel of each for the road-bearers to rest upon. A *saddle* on pontoons and *gunnels* on casks answer the same purpose, and in the latter case keep the casks together by being lashed to them. The maximum loads such bridges are usually calculated to bear are, for infantry, 5 cwt. per lineal foot; for cavalry, 2 cwt.; for field artillery, with two horses per gun only, 4½ cwt. Heavy guns are better warped across on specially constructed rafts. A *flying bridge* is a boat or raft anchored by a long cable up-stream, and carried across by the action of the current acting obliquely against its side, which should be kept at about an angle of 55 degrees with the current.

Of the rock formations called *Natural Bridges*, the most remarkable is the natural bridge over Cedar Creek, in Virginia, U.S., 125 miles W. of Richmond. The mass of siliceous limestone through which the little river passes is presumably all that remains of a once extensive stratum. The cavern or arch is 200 feet high and 60 feet wide. The solid rock walls are nearly perpendicular, and the crown of the arch is 40 feet thick.

See Edwin Clark, *The Britannia and Conway Tubular Bridges* (1850); James Hodges, *Construction of the Great Victoria Bridge in Canada* (1860); Samuel Smiles, *Lives of the Engineers* (1862-68); J. Gwilt, *An Encyclopedia of Architecture* (1867); J. A. L. Waddell, *Iron Highway Bridges* (1884); C. B. Bender, *Design of Metallic Bridges* (1885); Henry Law and D. K. Clark, *Civil Engineering* (1881); J. Claxton Fidler, *A Practical Treatise on Bridge Construction* (1887); and the *Minutes of Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers*.

Bridge-head, or *TÊTE-DU-PONT*, is an arrangement of defensive works on the far bank of a river which runs at right angles to the line of advance



Bridge-head Defence Work.

of an army. It consists of a central work immediately covering the bridge or bridges, and a line of detached redoubts, on a wide arc, at some distance from it. Thus, the enemy's artillery fire is prevented from reaching not only the bridge itself,

but also the wide space behind the redoubts upon which the troops can deploy without molestation after crossing the river. The ground in front of the redoubts is swept by batteries placed on the higher bank, and therefore a bridge in the centre of a re-entering bend of the river is well placed for such defence.—A double bridge-head has a similar system of works on each bank. It is necessary when, the course of the river being in the same direction as the line of advance, it is desired to retain the power of manœuvring on either bank.

Bridgenorth. See BRIDGNORTH.

Bridge of Allan, a beautiful village on Allan Water, 3 miles N. of Stirling by train. Sheltered by the Ochils, it owes its prosperity partly to the mineral saline wells of Airthrey, and partly to its delightful situation and mild climate, which render it a favourite resort of invalids, especially in spring and autumn. There are excellent hotels, abundance of good lodgings, four churches, and the Macfarlane Museum (1887). Pop. (1861) 1803; (1881) 3005.

Bridgeport, a city and port of entry of Connecticut, U.S., at the mouth of the Pequannock, which empties itself into an inlet of Long Island Sound. It is 53 miles SW. of Hartford, and 57 NE. of New York. Bridgeport is connected by railways both with the interior and with several important towns on the seaboard. It has a safe harbour for small vessels, a considerable coasting trade, several fine public parks, and a system of street railways. The city is modern and well built, and the streets are shaded by trees; the elevation, called Golden Hill, commanding fine views of the sound and shore, is covered with good residences, many of the inhabitants belonging to New York. Its manufactures are extensive, particularly of carriages, harness, machinery, metallic cartridges, and sewing-machines. Pop. (1870) 18,869; (1880) 27,643.

Bridget, St (properly *Birgitta*, afterwards transposed to *Brigitta*), a famous Roman Catholic saint, was born at Finslad, in the district of Upland, in Sweden, in 1302 or 1303. Her parents were of the blood-royal of Sweden. When only fourteen she married Ulf Gudmarson, afterwards 'Lagman' (provincial judge) of Nerike, a youth of eighteen, by whom she had eight children. She was for some years mistress of the royal household, and afterwards made pilgrimages to the shrines of St Olaf at Trondhjem, and of St Jago de Compostella in Spain. On their return, Ulf died in 1344, and Bridget founded about the same time the monastery of Wadstena, in East Gothland. Sixty nuns and seventeen monks, with eight lay-brothers, were its first inmates. They received the rule of St Augustine, to which St Bridget herself added a few particulars. They constituted a new order, sometimes called the order of St Bridget, sometimes the order of St Salvador, or the Holy Saviour, which flourished in Sweden until the Reformation, when it was suppressed. The order has had no fewer than seventy-four establishments scattered throughout Europe, from Finland to Spain, but has now only a few representatives in Spain, Bavaria, and Belgium. In 1349 St Bridget went to Rome, where she founded a hospice for Swedish students and pilgrims. After having made a pilgrimage to Palestine, she died at Rome on her return, 23d July 1373. Her bones were carried to Wadstena, and she herself was canonised in 1391 by Pope Boniface IX. Her festival is on the 8th of October.—Her daughter Catharine, born about 1335, died in 1381, and was canonised in 1489. She is distinguished as 'St Catharine of Sweden.' The *Revelationes St Brigittæ*, written by her confessors, was keenly attacked by the celebrated Gerson, but

obtained the approval of the Council of Basel, and has passed through many editions, of which the earliest appeared at Rome in 1474, and the best at Lübeck in 1482. Besides the *Revelationes*, there have been attributed to this saint a sermon on the Virgin, and fifteen discourses on the passion of Jesus Christ. See Hammerich, *Den Hellige Birgitta og Kirken i Norden* (1863).

Not to be confounded with this Swedish saint is the Irish St Brigit, or Bride of Kildare (453-523). It is tolerably certain that she was the daughter of one Dubtach at Fochart Muirthemne, in Leinster, entered a monastery at Meath in her fourteenth year, through her extraordinary piety and beneficence gained great fame and influence, and founded four monasteries, the first and chief of these at Kildare, where, after her death, she was buried, and a perpetual fire was kept up in her memory. The rest of her traditional history is a mass of astonishing miracles, and it is supposed that many of these, along with the sacred fire (which was abolished by the bishop of the diocese in 1220), were transferred to St Brigit from the heathen goddess Ceridwen, the Celtic Ceres, on the ruins of whose chief sanctuary the monastery at Kildare was built. In many old legends and hymns she is celebrated as the 'Materia Hibernorum,' and in the *Officium St Brigide* (Paris, 1622) as 'Altera Maria.' Her day falls on the 1st of February. She was regarded as one of the three great saints of Ireland, the others being St Patrick and St Columba. She was held in great reverence in Scotland, and was regarded by the Douglasses as their tutelary saint. The earlier Lives of St Bridget are collected in Colgan's *Trius Thaumaturgi* (1647). See *Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy*, iii. 75, and Dr J. H. Todd's *Book of Hymns of the Ancient Church of Ireland* (Dublin, 1855).

Bridgeton, a city and port of entry in New Jersey, U.S., on both sides of Cohansey Creek, navigable up to this point, 38 miles S. of Philadelphia. The town contains the West Jersey Academy, South Jersey Institute (1870), more than a dozen churches, a public library, several newspaper offices, an iron-foundry, a rolling-mill, a nail-factory, a glass-work, and has manufactures of woollen goods, leather, carriages, machinery, and canned fruits. The surrounding region is well cultivated and fertile. Pop. (1870) 6820; (1880) 8729.

Bridgetown, the capital of Barbadoes (q.v.), is situated on the west coast of the island along the north side of Carlisle Bay, which forms its roadstead. The inner harbour is protected by a breakwater known as the Mole Head. Founded in 1628, the town took the name Indian Bridge, and later its present appellation, from a rude aboriginal structure which spanned a neighbouring creek. The town was almost destroyed by fire in 1666, and again in 1766. In 1831 a part of Bridgetown was destroyed by a hurricane, and in 1845 it again suffered severely from fire. It is the residence of the Bishop of Barbadoes, has a college, several high-class schools, town-hall, government buildings, hospital, water-works, and jail. To the south are the barracks, with parade-ground and arsenal. A railway of 23 miles in length to the parish of St Andrew was completed in 1882. Pop. (1881) 21,385.

Bridgewater, FRANCIS EGERTON, third DUKE OF, the 'father of British inland navigation,' was born in 1736, and succeeded his elder brother as duke in 1748. In 1758-71 he constructed, after the plans of the celebrated Brindley, the earliest canal in England, 42 miles long, uniting Worsley with Manchester and Runcorn on the Mersey above Liverpool. The canal crossed the

Irwell by an aqueduct 39 feet high and 600 feet long. The duke exhausted his credit to the utmost on his undertaking, nobly restricting himself to the simplest fare for the sake of his idea, but his far-sightedness was equal to his public spirit, and great wealth ultimately flowed in upon him. The success of this canal gave an impulse to the internal navigation of England, and led to the extension of the canal-system throughout the kingdom. In 1873 the Bridgewater Canal was purchased from Lord Ellesmere for £989,612, including the plant, valued at £150,000; and in 1887 it was resold to the Manchester Ship Canal Company for £1,710,000. The duke took little part in politics, but belonged to Pitt's party. He died unmarried, March 8, 1803, and with his death the dukedom became extinct.

Bridgewater. FRANCIS HENRY EGERTON, EARL OF, son of John Egerton, Bishop of Durham, grandnephew of the first Duke of Bridgewater, was born 11th November 1758, and succeeded his brother as eighth earl, October 21, 1823. Educated for the church, he had previously been prebendary of Durham. He died unmarried, February 11, 1829, and the title became extinct. By his last will, dated February 25, 1825, he left £8000, invested in the public funds, to be paid to the author of the best treatise 'On the Power, Wisdom, and Goodness of God, as manifested in the Creation,' illustrating such work by such arguments as the variety and formation of God's creatures in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, the effect of digestion, the construction of the hand of man, and by discoveries, ancient and modern, in arts, sciences, and the whole extent of literature. The then president of the Royal Society of London, Davies Gilbert, to whom the selection of the author was left, with the advice of the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of London, and a friend of the earl, resolved that the money should be allotted to eight different persons for eight separate treatises. The earl also left upwards of £12,000 to the British Museum, the interest to be employed in the purchase and care of MSS.

The BRIDGEWATER TREATISES are: (1) *The Adaptation of External Nature to the Moral and Intellectual Constitution of Man*, by Thomas Chalmers (1833); (2) *Chemistry, Meteorology, and Digestion*, by William Prout, M.D. (1834); (3) *History, Habits, and Instincts of Animals*, by Kirby (1835); (4) *Geology and Mineralogy*, by Dean Buckland (1837); (5) *The Hand, as evincing Design*, by Sir Charles Bell (1837); (6) *The Adaptation of External Nature to the Physical Condition of Man*, by J. Kidd, M.D. (1837); (7) *Astronomy and General Physics*, by Whewell (1839); (8) *Animal and Vegetable Physiology*, by P. M. Roget, M.D. (1840). All these works were afterwards republished in Bohn's Scientific Library.

Bridgman. LAURA. This famous blind-mute was born in Hanover, New Hampshire, U.S., on the 21st December 1829. She was a bright, intelligent child, but at two years of age was seized with a violent fever, which utterly destroyed sight, hearing, and sense of smell, while her sense of taste was also impaired. For a time this so shattered her system that there seemed no hope of recovery; but she rallied, and soon learned to find her way about the house and neighbourhood, and even learned to sew and to knit a little. At the age of eight Dr Howe of Boston undertook her care and education at the Perkins Institution for the blind. The first attempt was to give her a knowledge of arbitrary signs, by which she could interchange thoughts with others. Then she learned to read embossed letters by the touch; next, embossed words were attached to different

articles, and she learned to associate each word with its corresponding object. Thus far, however, the work was only an exercise of imitation and memory; but at last the truth flashed upon her, that by this means she could communicate to others a sign of what was passing in her own mind. Her whole being seemed changed. The next step was to procure a set of metal types, with the letters cast at the ends, and a board with square holes for their insertion, so as to be read by the finger. In three months she could write down the name of most common objects, and in two years had made great bodily and mental improvement. She grew happier, and enjoyed play like other children, amusing herself with imaginary dialogues. Her touch grew in accuracy as its power increased; she learned to know people almost instantly by the touch alone. In a year or two more she was able to receive lessons in geography, algebra, and history; and learned to do needlework and various household duties. She received and answered letters from all parts of the world, and was always employed, and therefore always happy. She learned to write a fair, legible, square hand, and to read with great dexterity, and at last, even to think deeply on religious and other subjects, and to reason with good sense and discrimination. She afterwards became skilful as a teacher of the blind and deaf and dumb. Dickens gives an account of her in *American Notes*; and see a work on her life and education by her teacher, Miss Lauson (Boston, 1878).

Bridgnorth (formerly *Brug* or *Bruges* = Bridge), a municipal borough of Shropshire, 19 miles S.E. of Shrewsbury. The Severn divides it into the upper or 'High Town,' and lower or 'Low Town.' The former is built on a red sandstone rock rising 180 feet above the right bank of the river. This rock was formerly crowned by a royal fortress, a huge leaning fragment being all that now remains of the keep. The walk round the castle-hill was said by Charles I. to be 'the fairest in his dominions.' Bridgnorth has two parish churches, a grammar-school existing in Henry VIII.'s reign, carpet, worsted, and tanning industries, and agricultural trade. Until 1868 it sent two members, and until 1885 one member, to parliament. The Danes wintered here in 896, and the site of a Saxon castle, built by the princess Ethelfleda, is still distinctly marked. Early in the 12th century, Robert de Belesme (a kinsman of the Conqueror) built the Norman castle, and unsuccessfully defended it against Henry I. It was also besieged by Henry II. and Edward II. According to Shakespeare (*Henry IV., Part I., III. iii.*), Bridgnorth was the meeting-place of the royal forces before the battle of Shrewsbury; and, according to Clarendon, before the battle of Edgehill. The castle was demolished by the Parliamentarians after a three-weeks' siege, during which the 'High Town' was destroyed by fire, one of the few houses surviving being the fine old Tudor mansion, still standing, in which Bishop Percy was afterwards born (1728). To recompense the inhabitants, Charles II., by proclamation, authorised them to make a special collection in every church throughout the kingdom. Baxter began his ministry here. Pop. (1861) 5876; (1881) 5885.

Bridgwater, a municipal borough and sea-port town of Somersetshire, on both sides of the Parret, 6 miles in a direct line, and 12 by the river, from the Bristol Channel, and 29 miles S.W. of Bristol. It stands on the border of a plain between the Mendip and Quantock Hills, in a well-wooded country. It is chiefly built of brick, and an iron bridge connects it with the suburb of Eastover. St Mary's Church has a remarkably graceful

spire, and contains a fine altar-piece. The Parret admits vessels of 700 tons up to the town; it rises 36 feet at spring-tides, and is subject to a bore or perpendicular advancing wave, 6 or 8 feet high, often causing much annoyance to shipping; a canal gives water communication with Taunton. Bath or scouring bricks, of which Bridgwater has a monopoly, are made here of a mixture of sand and clay found in the river, and there are carriage-works and potteries. Coal, grain, wine, hemp, tallow, and timber are imported; while bath-bricks, earthenware, cement, and agricultural produce are exported. The Conqueror granted the manor to one Walter de Douay, and its name thereupon became *Burgh-Walter*, of which *Bridgwater* is a mere corruption. A castle was built here in the reign of John, and an Augustinian abbey about 1230. Admiral Blake was a native of this town, which suffered severely in the civil wars, when it was besieged for a whole week by Fairfax, and ultimately forced to surrender, the castle being dismantled by the conqueror. The battle of Sedgemoor (q.v.) was fought in 1685 near Bridgwater, whose corporation had proclaimed the Duke of Monmouth as king. Bridgwater formerly returned two members to parliament, but was disfranchised in 1870. Pop. (1851) 10,317; (1881) 12,007.

Bridle and Bit, that part of a horse's harness which is attached to the head and mouth, by means of which he is governed and restrained. The proper biting of horses has been a matter of much study in England, and innumerable kinds of bits have been introduced for the purpose. It will be sufficient for our purpose, however, to describe only a few of those most generally used. The ordinary single riding-bridle, with a snaffle-bit, is shown in fig. 1. The driving-bridle is similar in principle, with, generally, the addition of *blinkers*—i.e. pieces of leather fastened to the cheek-pieces of the headstall to prevent the horse seeing in any direction except straight forward; the theory being that he would be startled by anything catching his eye from behind.

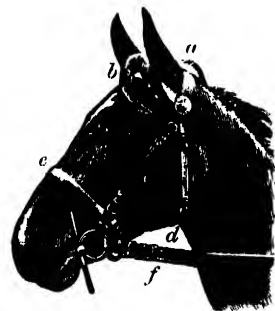


Fig. 1.

a, headstrap; b, front; c, cheek-piece; d, throat-band; e, nose-band; f, reins.

There are several forms of the snaffle-bit. The common riding form (fig. 2, a) is a round smooth bit, jointed in the middle, attached at either side to straight bars or cheeks, which prevent the bit being pulled through the horse's mouth, and with rings to which the reins and cheek-pieces of the headstall are fixed. The twisted snaffle has the mouthpiece twisted or fluted, increasing its severity on the horse's mouth. The ring snaffle is made without cheeks; and the rings for headstall and reins are not fixed, but work loose in holes at the ends of the mouthpiece. Another form which is very generally used, especially in driving, is the double-ring snaffle (fig. 2, b), having two rings at either end, one working within the other, to one of which the reins are fastened, and to the other the headstall. The snaffle being jointed, its action is to press on the sides or *bars* of the lower jaw, and not on the tongue, while its shape prevents anything like severity.

The double or Weymouth bridle is generally used in the hunting-field and often for ordinary purposes.

It has two separate bits, the snaffle and curb, or bridoon and bit, each having separate headstalls and reins. The snaffle or bridoon is like the plain ring snaffle already described. The bit or curb (fig. 2, c) has a fixed unjointed mouthpiece having



Fig. 2.

an upward curve, or *port*, of varying size, in the centre, which answers the same purpose as the joint in the snaffle of confining the pressure of the bit to the *bars*, where it is most effective. Hooks are fixed to the upper end of the cheeks, on which the curb-chain is hung, and which is passed round the chin-groove under the horse's under-jaw. To the lower end the curb-reins are attached: the other reins are fastened to the bridoon-rings. One advantage of the double bridle is that its action can be raised according as the curb or snaffle rein is tightened or relaxed. Military bridles are double, and generally similar to that just described, except that the cheeks are made in the form of the letter S, and other ornamentation added.

The Pelham is an extensively used modification of the double bridle. It consists of a single bit (fig. 2, d) similar in form to the curb-bit of the double bridle, but with the addition of rings fixed to the cheeks at either end of the mouthpiece to which reins are attached, in addition to those fixed to the lower end. The curb-chain is adjusted as in the double bridle. The running martingale is an arrangement applicable to any bridle, by which a pair of reins run through rings at the ends of two straps attached to the horse's girth to prevent him throwing his head up.

In connection with driving-bridles, two questions have in recent years caused considerable discussion—viz. *bearing-reins* and *blinkers*. The bearing-rein, in its simple form, is intended as a support to the horse's head, and consists of a strap buckled to the ring of the bridoon-bit of a double bridle, passed through a swivel on the throat-band, and fastened to a ring on the saddle-pal. In its severe form, known as the 'gag,' it is attached to the headpiece, passes through the bridoon-ring, through a swivel on the throat-band, and then to the saddle. The effect is to cramp the horse's neck, and prevent him throwing his nose forward, but it is supposed to improve his appearance in a carriage. The opponents of the bearing-rein complain of the torture unnecessarily inflicted on the horse, and hold that nature supplies all the support necessary for the head. The blinker question is not so important, and consists of a difference of opinion as to whether a horse would or would not be more easily startled with his eyes uncovered.

In European nations and in North America, the bridles used are generally similar to those described; but among the Arabs and in South America and some parts of Mexico and Texas, a heavy, old-fashioned, and terribly cruel curb-bit is used. On the other hand, the stockmen of the Australian bush employ the plain snaffle-bridle alone, with which they manage their powerful and usually half-broken horses easily, an equal tribute to the

sufficiency of the snaffle and their own horsemanship.

It is interesting to know that in the representations of harnessed horses in the Assyrian sculptures the bridle generally shown is apparently almost

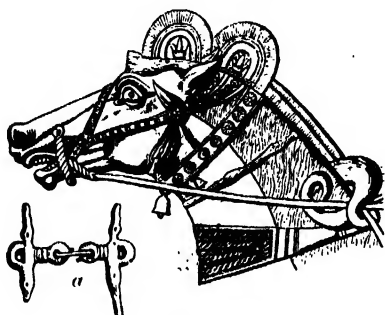


Fig. 3.

identical with the modern snaffle: Fig. 3 represents a chariot horse with bridle (Koyunjik); a, a bronze bit from Nimroud. See Major Dwyer's *Scots and Saddles, Bits and Bitting*; Stonehenge's *Horse in the Stable and Field*. See also HORSE, RIDING and DRIVING.

Bridlington, or BURLINGTON, a town in the East Riding of Yorkshire, 6 miles SW. of Flamborough Head, and 23 SSE. of Scarborough. An old-fashioned place, with narrow irregular streets, and with a considerable trade in corn, it is supposed to have been the site of a Roman station. From 1664 till 1753 it gave title of Earl of Burlington in the peerage of England to the Boyle Earls of Cork. An Augustinian priory of immense wealth, founded in the reign of Henry I., is represented by the nave of its splendid church, which, mixed Early English and Perpendicular in style, was restored by Sir Gilbert Scott in 1857. On Bridlington Bay, a mile to the south-east, is Bridlington Quay, the port of the town, which has risen into repute as a watering-place, has fine sands, a parade, ornamental gardens, a chalybeate mineral spring, and hot and cold baths. The bay has good anchorage, and the harbour is inclosed by stone piers. In 1643 Henrietta, queen of Charles I., landed here from Holland with arms and ammunition bought with the crown-jewels, when Bridlington was cannonaded for giving her refuge. Bridlington is noted for its chalk-flint fossils. Hundreds of windbound vessels may sometimes be seen in Bridlington Bay, stretching north to Flamborough Head, which affords good shelter and anchorage. Pop. (1861) 5775; (1881) 8363.

Bridport, a municipal borough of Dorsetshire, at the confluence of the Asker and the Brit, 2 miles from the English Channel, and 16½ W. of Dorchester by rail. It stands on an eminence surrounded by hills, and consists chiefly of one spacious street running east and west, and of another stretching towards the sea. It has a town-hall (1785), and a good cruciform parish church (restored in 1865). Till 1867 Bridport returned two members to parliament; and till 1885, one. The chief manufactures are ropes and cordage (a 'Bridport dagger' was proverbial for a halter in Ireland's day), besides twine, shoe-thread, fishing-nets, and sailcloth. Bridport was a considerable town before the Norman Conquest, and had a mint for coining silver. Vessels of 250 tons can enter the harbour, which is 1½ mile below the town; and there is some foreign and coasting trade, timber, coal, and flax being imported. Pop. (1861) 7719; (1881) 6790.

Brief, or BREVE, PAPAL (from Lat. *brevis*, 'short'). The word breve was originally used in

the Low Latin of the middle ages for ecclesiastical documents of various kinds—e.g. for inventories of church goods. It now signifies such papal documents as are issued without some of the solemnities proper to bulls, and which assumed a recognised name and form in the 15th century. They were introduced in order to lighten the work of the papal chancery. The brief is written on a sheet of thin white parchment, of greater breadth than height, in current Latin characters. It has a stamp of red wax bearing the impress of the fisherman's ring—i.e. a figure of St Peter hauling in his net, surmounted by the name of the pope. The name of the pope also appears on the first line of the brief, then follows 'Dilecte fili (or the like), salutem et apostolicam benedictionem,' 'In perpetuum,' &c., being sometimes added as in bulls. It ends with the words 'given at Rome at St Peter's under the ring of the fisherman,' followed by the day of the month (not as in bulls according to the old Roman, but according to the modern mode), the year of the Christian era and of the pontificate. It is subscribed by the secretary of briefs. A comparison with the article BULL will show the difference between the two kinds of documents, which has been considerably lessened by the legislation of Pope Leo XIII.

Brief, in the practice of the English bar, is the name given to the written instructions on which barristers advocate causes in courts of justice. It is called a brief because it is, or ought to be, an abbreviated statement of the pleadings, proofs, and affidavits at law, or of the bill, answer, and other proceedings in equity, with a concise narrative of the facts and merits of the plaintiff's case, or the defendant's defence. Probably, when pleadings were entirely oral, nothing was handed to counsel except the brief or writ originating the action. The brief is often called 'observations' in Chancery proceedings. In Scotland, the corresponding term is *Memorial*. *Breve* (q.v.) in Scotland has a different meaning. This paper should be confined to the statement of facts without argument or quotation. —*Kings' Briefs* were royal mandates ordering collections to be made in chapels for building churches, relieving sufferers by fire, refugees, and suffering Protestants abroad. See Walford, *Kings' Briefs* (1882).

Brieg, a town of Prussian Silesia, on the left bank of the Oder, 27 miles SE. of Breslau by rail. The principal building is the 13th-century church of St Nicholas, with a splendid organ, and with towers added in 1844-85. Brieg is a thriving town, its manufactures including machinery, ironwares, thread, fringe, sugar, leather, and tobacco. The battlefield of Mollwitz (q.v.) lies a little to the west. Pop. (1871) 15,367; (1885) 18,899.

Briel, or BRIELLE, sometimes THE BRILL, a fortified seaport town of South Holland, situated on the north side of the island of Voorne, near the mouth of the Maas. It contains a government arsenal and military magazines, and possesses a good harbour. The tower of St Peter's Church serves as a lighthouse. Pop. (1883) 4562, chiefly engaged as pilots and fishermen. Briel may be considered as the nucleus of the Dutch republic, having been taken from the Spaniards by William de la Marck in 1572. This event was the first act of open hostility to Philip II., and paved the way to the complete liberation of the country from a foreign yoke. The celebrated admirals De Witt and Van Tromp were natives.

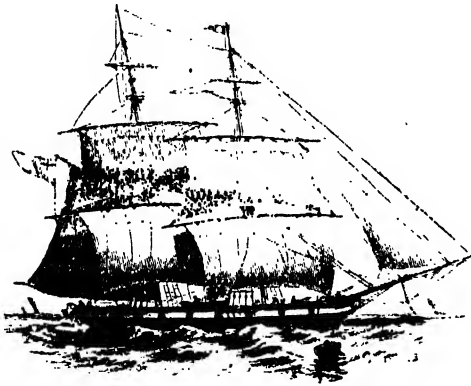
Brienne-le-Château, a town of 1800 inhabitants in the French department of Aube, on the right bank of the river Aube, 35 miles ENE. of Troyes. At the military school here (suppressed in 1790) the great Napoleon spent five years. Here,

too, he was defeated by the allies, after a desperate struggle in the last days of January 1814. This victory opened the way to Paris, and led to the fall of the empire.

Brienz, a Swiss town, beautifully situated at the foot of the Bernese Alps, on the north-east shore of the lake of the same name, 30 miles ESE. of Bern. Pop. (1880) 2758.—The lake of Brienz, which is 8½ miles long and 1½ in breadth, is an expansion of the river Aar, and is believed to have been at one time united with Lake Thun. It lies 1857 feet above the sea, is 859 feet deep at one point, and is surrounded by lofty mountains, the principal of which is the Rothorn. The Giessbach Cascades, a series of fine falls, are now rendered accessible by a cable tramway. A small steamer plies on the lake.

Brierly Hill, a town of Staffordshire, 2½ miles N.E. of Stourbridge. It is a place of much activity, the district abounding in coal, iron, and fireclay; and there are here numerous collieries, large iron-works, glass-works, brick-works, and potteries. Pop. (1871) 11,046; (1881) 11,546.

Brig, Brigantine. A brig is a square-rigged vessel with two masts. A brigantine, or hermaphrodite brig, is a two-masted vessel, with the mainmast of a schooner and the foremast of a brig.



Brig.

A brig's mainsail is the lowest square-sail on the mainmast, whereas the mainsail of a brigantine is a fore-and-aft sail like that of a schooner.

Brigade, in its proper military sense, is a tactical group of regiments or battalions acting together under one commander, called a Brigadier-general (q.v.). In most European armies an infantry brigade consists of two regiments, each of three battalions; but in the British army it has only three battalions. There are three regiments of cavalry in all cavalry brigades. A brigade in this sense has no existence during peace in Great Britain or the United States, except at camps of exercise, such as Aldershot (q.v.), and temporarily for drill purposes; but the word is applied to a group of Batteries of Artillery (q.v.), for administrative purposes, to the household troops, Life-guards, Horse-guards, and Foot-guards, which are sometimes called the *Household Brigade*, and to the four battalions of rifles, called the *Rifle Brigade*. In India there are 28 brigade commands. These are territorial—the officers in charge, who are colonels, having under them all the troops quartered in their districts, whose numbers and nature may vary from time to time. In the United States the brigade consists of two regiments, each of two battalions.

Brigade-major is a military staff-officer who exercises duties, in a brigade, analogous to those of the adjutant of a regiment. When regiments or battalions are brigaded, a brigade-major is appointed as staff-officer to the brigadier. He superintends all correspondence, having a regular office and staff of clerks, issues orders from the brigadier, keeps the rollster or roster of duties, inspects guards and pickets, and directs exercises and evolutions. In the British army he is either appointed for five years, as at the camps of exercise, or holds the appointment only so long as the troops are brigaded, afterwards reverting to regimental duty, as is the case on active service and during autumn manoeuvres.

Brigadier, or BRIGADIER-GENERAL, is the commander of a Brigade (q.v.). His rank in the United States army is next below major-general, but in most foreign armies and in the British army when on active service it is that of major-general. The infantry brigades at Aldershot, the troops at Chatham, the Curragh, and Belfast, are also under major-generals holding the rank of brigadier-general. But when battalions are temporarily brigaded, the command is often given to the senior colonel, who becomes the brigadier for the time being, and reverts to the command of his battalion when the brigade is broken up. In India, the sub-districts called brigade commands are under colonels with the temporary rank of brigadier-general, which they hold for a term of five years, or until promoted to major-general.

Brigandine, a coat of mail worn during the middle ages, made of small plates of iron, sewed upon quilted linen or leather, and covered with a similar substance to hide the glittering of the metal. The brigandine was named after the *Brigands*.

Brigands (Ital. *brigante*, from *briga*, 'an intrigue or quarrel'), a name originally given to the mercenaries who held Paris during King John's imprisonment (1358), and who made themselves notorious for their ill-behaviour. It was applied by Froissart to a kind of irregular foot-soldiery (see BRIGANDINE), and from them was transferred to simple robbers; it is now used especially of such of these as live in bands in secret mountain or forest retreats. In this sense, the pest has been common to most countries, by whatever name the robbers may have been known—whether the escaped slaves and gladiators of Rome, the pre-Islamite brigands of Arabia, English outlaws and highwaymen, German robber-nobles, the later banditti of Mediterranean countries and of Mexico, American stagecoach robbers, Australian Bushrangers (q.v.), or the dacoits and hill-robbers of Asia. It has ever flourished under weak or corrupt governments, and patriotism at times has swelled its ranks, always largely recruited from those disposed readily to join in any political movement, and has transformed them into guerilla companies, who have carried on a bitter warfare against the invader. Such Spanish bands harassed the French during the Peninsular war; in Italy, the Austrian troops were frequently engaged in expeditions against the banditti led by the daring Bellino ('Il Passatore'); and in Greece, the Klephts rendered brave and worthy service in the war of independence. In Cuba, in 1888, political discontent was made the excuse for the brigandage then rampant in the island, where four provinces were on this account declared in a state of siege. Religious persecution also has encouraged brigandage; in Bosnia, which has always produced the most perfect specimens of bandits, it was formerly very common, the unhappy Christians, who were reduced by the Turks to the condition of serfs, frequently taking to the mountains in despair, and thence wreaking vengeance on their oppressors. Gener-

ally speaking, in countries with a notably scanty population, which is yet in many districts as notably overcrowded, brigandage will be found still in existence. Vigorous steps have been taken during the last fifty years to repress the practice, and in some countries with signal success. In Greece, organised companies of brigands, as distinguished from bands of highway robbers fortuitously collected, have disappeared; and in Italy, the chiefs with whom princes made treaties are found only in history. Nevertheless, brigandage is by no means obsolete. In Hungary, where it has flourished from time immemorial, and where even the free towns in the 15th century enrolled companies for organised rapine, and thus raised it to the height of an institution, it has found a stronghold in the shades of the Bakony Forest, whose swineherds are said to be in league with the *betgyars*, and even to do an occasional stroke of business on their own account. In Sicily it is to be feared that this is still the only trade which really prospers in the island (see *MAFIA*); and the bands that infest the Turkish frontier are notoriously dangerous to the wayfaring merchant and the defenceless tourist. In 1887 special attention was attracted by the boldness of brigands in the Pyrenees, Tuscany, Servia, Macedonia, Asia Minor, and Mexico; and from the United States several cases of train-robbery were reported.

Brigantes, the most powerful of the old British tribes, inhabiting the country between the Humber and the Roman wall. See *BRITANNIA*.

Brigantine. See *BRIG*.

Briggs, HENRY, a distinguished mathematician, was born in 1561, at Warley Wood, near Halifax, Yorkshire, and studied at St John's College, Cambridge. He took the degree of B.A. in 1581, that of M.A. in 1585, and obtained a fellowship in 1588. In 1592 he was appointed reader of the Physic Lecture founded by Dr Linacre, and in 1596 first reader in geometry at Gresham House (afterwards College), London, and in 1619 first Savilian professor of Astronomy in Oxford. This office he retained till the time of his death, which took place at Oxford, January 26, 1631. Briggs made an important contribution to the theory of logarithms, of which he constructed invaluable tables. Napier the inventor had in 1614 published a table of the so-called natural logarithms, when Briggs observed that another system, in which the logarithm of 10 should be taken as unity, would afford great facilities of calculation. In 1616 he visited Napier at Edinburgh to discuss the suggested improvement, and again in the following year, when Napier admitted the improvement on his own system. He published his *Logarithmorum Chilias Prima* in 1617, containing the first thousand natural numbers calculated to eight decimal places. He was also the author of a tract on the *North-west Passage to the South Seas*, by way of Virginia and Hudson Bay (1622); and in 1624 he published his *Arithmetica Logarithmica*, the fruit of many years of unwearying application, and giving the Logarithms (q.v.) of 30,000 natural numbers to fourteen places of figures, besides the index. His system of logarithms is that now commonly adopted. He next employed himself on a Table of Logarithms of sines and tangents, carried to the hundredth part of a degree, and to fifteen places, which, with a table of natural sines, tangents, and secants, was printed at Gouda, in Holland, in 1631, and published in London in 1633, under the title of *Trigonometria Britannica*. The Greek epitaph written on him by Henry Jacobs, finishes by saying that his soul still astronomises and his body geometrises.

Bright, JOHN, a politician, first brought into notice by the Anti-Corn-Law agitation,

son of Jacob Bright, a cotton-spinner and manufacturer at Rochdale, Lancashire, was born at Greenbank, near that town, November 16, 1811. The family were members of the Society of Friends, and Bright was educated at a Friends' school at Ackworth, and afterwards at York and at Newton. While in his father's factory he took a great interest in public questions, and before he had attained his majority spoke upon such subjects as capital punishment, church rates, temperance, and parliamentary reform. In 1835 he made a foreign tour, which included a journey to Palestine, and on his return delivered before a literary institution at Rochdale, of which he was one of the founders, lectures on the subject of his travels, and on topics connected with commerce and political economy. When the Anti-Corn-Law League was formed in 1839 he was one of its leading members, and, with Cobden, engaged in an extensive Free-trade agitation throughout the kingdom. In the spring of 1843 he offered himself as a candidate for the representation of Durham, and though at first unsuccessful, he became in July of the same year M.P. for that city. At all times an animated and effective speaker, Bright was incessant, both at public meetings and in parliament, in his opposition to the Corn Laws, until they were finally repealed. In 1845 he obtained the appointment of a select committee of the House of Commons on the Game Laws, and also one on the subject of cotton cultivation in India. An abridgment of the evidence taken before the former, published in one volume, contained from his pen an *Address to the Tenant Farmers of Great Britain*, strongly condemning the existing Game Laws. At the general election of 1847 he was elected one of the members for Manchester. He co-operated with Cobden in the movement in favour of financial reform. On the formation of the first Derby ministry, February 27, 1852, Bright aided in the temporary reorganisation of the Corn-Law League, in favour of the principles of Free-trade; and at the general election which followed, was re-elected for Manchester. Like Cobden, a member of the Peace Society, he energetically denounced the policy of the Crimean war (1854). A severe illness compelled him to withdraw for a time to the Continent, and in his absence he was rejected by Manchester. Elected in 1857 for Birmingham, he seconded the motion against the second reading of the Conspiracy Bill, which led to the overthrow of Lord Palmerston's government. Mr Bright advocated the transference of India to the direct government of the crown, together with other reforms affecting our eastern dependency. When the civil war in America broke out, he warmly supported the cause of the North, although his own business and the whole of the Lancashire cotton-trade suffered severely in consequence. His name next became chiefly associated with the movement for reforming the electoral representation, which resulted in the Act of 1867. In 1868 he accepted office as President of the Board of Trade, but in 1870 was again obliged to retire in consequence of severe illness. His health having been restored, he took office in 1873, and again in 1881, as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster; he was appointed Lord Rector of Glasgow University in November 1880. Mr Bright retired from the Gladstone ministry in 1882, being unable to support the government in its Egyptian policy. His appearances in public since then have been infrequent; but in 1883 he defended himself in the House of Commons from a charge of breach of privilege in connection with speeches delivered at Birmingham. His completion of 25 years of service to this town was marked by a series of popular demonstrations there, in June 1883. In 1886-88 he opposed the Home Rule policy of Mr

Gladstone. He is recognised as one of the most eloquent public speakers of his time. A collection of his Speeches was published in 1868; a *Life* by Robertson (1877); his *Life and Speeches*, 2 vols., by G. Barnett Smith (1881); and his *Public Letters*, edited by H. J. Leech (1885).

Bright, RICHARD, physician, was born at Bristol, 28th September 1789, and studied at Edinburgh, Berlin, and Vienna, and from 1820 was connected with Guy's Hospital. He died 16th December 1858. He made many important medical observations (see BRIGHT'S DISEASE) and wrote numerous medical dissertations. His *Travels through Lower Hungary* (1818) contains a valuable account of the Gypsies.

Brighton, a parliamentary and municipal borough and fashionable watering-place in Sussex, 50½ miles S. of London by rail (1½ hour). Its former name, *Brighthelmston* (1252-1810), was superseded about 1800 by *Brighton*, which occurs, however, as early as 1660, and also in 'The Girl I left behind Me' (1759). The town is built on a slope ascending eastward to a range of high chalk cliffs; to the west, these hills recede from the coast; and the nearest point of the South Downs is the Devil's Dyke, 5 miles distant. Ancient Brighthelmston was a mere fishing-village on a level under the cliff. It suffered much at the hands of French, Flemings, and Spaniards, and still more from the sea, whose inroads in 1699, 1703, and 1706, undermined the cliffs and destroyed many houses. During excavations in 1818 the walls of some of the old streets were found under 15 feet of beach. Further inroads are prevented by a sea-wall of great strength (60 feet high and 23 feet thick at the base), extending along the east cliffs, and built between 1827 and 1838 at a cost of £100,000, the money being raised by the imposition of a duty on all coal entering the town. This duty was abolished in 1887, the whole of the debt having been paid off. The writings of Dr Richard Russell, a celebrated physician, first drew public attention about 1753 to Brighton as an eligible watering-place, and the discovery of a chalybeate spring in the vicinity increased its popularity. Dr Johnson in 1770 described the country as 'so desolate, that if one had a mind to hang one's self for desperation at being obliged to live there, it would be difficult to find a tree on which to fasten a rope.' Now the growth of trees is encouraged, and they have been freely planted both in and around the town. The visit of the Prince of Wales in 1782, and his subsequent yearly residence there, finally opened the eyes of the fashionable world to Brighton's immense attractions, and it thenceforth became the crowded resort of a health-seeking population, in which the opening of the Brighton Railway in 1841 greatly assisted. It was made a parliamentary borough in 1832, a municipal one in 1854; its progress has been very rapid, and the town is still steadily increasing. Brighton is for the most part extremely well built, as becomes a favoured retreat of wealth and aristocracy. It mostly consists of new and elegant streets, squares, and terraces. Kemp Town, as the east end of Brighton is locally known, has a famous crescent and square. The public hotels are magnificent; besides these there are the boarding-houses and nearly 1000 lodging-house keepers. A range of splendid houses fronts the sea for upwards of 3 miles, the promenade—asphalted from end to end, and exceptionally well lighted—being almost on a dead level, within a few feet of the sea, for the greater part of its length, but rising at the east end of the town to a height of 60 feet, on the top of the sea-wall already referred to. Beneath this is the Madeira Road, a fine drive and promenade a mile in length,

and sheltered effectually from the north wind. The population is greatly increased during the fashionable season by the influx of visitors, the average number being 30,000, chiefly from London, for which reason it is sometimes called London-super-Mare. There are more than twenty churches, that of St Nicholas, dating from the time of Henry VII., and restored in 1853, being the only ancient building, and more than fifty chapels. Holy Trinity Church has been rendered famous from the ministry of F. W. Robertson. The public buildings include the town-hall, the town-hall in the adjoining township of Hove (part of the parliamentary borough, but not included for municipal purposes), the unrivalled aquarium (1872), museum of British birds, school of science and art, Brighton college, theatre, Sussex county hospital, workhouse, blind asylum, various bathing establishments, and an abundant supply of good schools. At Queen's Park, in the east of the town, is the German Spa establishment, and at St Anne's well and wild gardens in the west is a chalybeate spring. In the north of the town is the Preston public park of 62 acres, which was opened in 1884, and cost £50,000, the money being left to the town by the 'leviathan' bookmaker, Mr W. E. Davies (1819-79).

Near the centre of the town is the Royal Pavilion or Marine Palace, a fantastic oriental or Chinese structure, with domes, minarets, and pinnacles, and Moorish stables, begun for the Prince of Wales in 1784, and finished in 1827. It was purchased in 1850 for £53,000 by the corporation, and with its fine pleasure-grounds it is devoted to the recreation of the inhabitants. The concert-hall known as the 'Dome,' formerly the royal stables, can accommodate 3000 people. Adjoining are the public library and museum and picture-gallery. The site of the Pavilion is in the Steyne Valley, which is practically in the centre of the Brighton sea-front, and the starting-point for the main road to London. There are two piers which are used as promenades—the Chain Pier (1823) on the east, opposite the Marine Parade (as the eastern part of the 3 or 4 miles of esplanade is called), 1136 feet in length, and the very popular 'West Pier' (1866), 1115 feet long, but much wider and grander than the Chain Pier, which now is almost neglected by the public. Numerous groynes to intercept the shingle constantly moving from west to east, and thus protect the promenade, intersect the beach from north to south. Most of these are of stout timber, but three are costly concrete structures, 12 or 15 feet wide at the top, with side-walls shoulder high, and these are favourite promenades. Brighton has no maritime trade, but there is some mackerel and herring fishing. The water-supply, which is in the hands of the corporation, and has cost £450,000, is derived from the chalk, and is practically inexhaustible. The several sources are all within two miles of the borough boundaries. An intercepting sewer many miles in length receives the sewage, which is discharged into the sea at Portobello, 4 miles beyond the eastern boundary of the borough. From its salubrity, the town abounds in boarding-schools; races are held on the Downs in August and November, and the volunteer reviews there have had a further tendency to attract visitors to Brighton. The 'Brighton reviews,' however, are now things of the past, marching columns having taken the place of the field-days with the movements of 20,000 volunteers hampered by much larger crowds of spectators. Pop. (1801) 7339; (1821) 24,429; (1841) 46,661; (1861) 77,693; (1881) 107,546; (1887) 118,186; of parliamentary borough (1881) 128,425. Brighton returns two members. See the works on Brighton by Erredge (1862), J. Bishop (1875-80), and Sawyer (1878).

Bright's Disease (of the kidneys), so called after Dr Richard Bright (q.v.), who first investigated its character. In 1827 he published a work in which he showed that dropsy is frequently associated with inflammatory changes in the kidneys, and an abnormal condition of the urine. When we apply heat or certain chemical reagents to the urine in such a case, it becomes opaque, showing that it contains *Albumen* (q.v.); and on examining the sediment under the microscope, we observe exuded lymph mixed with epithelium in the form of casts of the small ducts of the diseased organ. Further research has shown that these conditions of the urine occur in connection with several distinct affections of the kidney, varying much in duration, severity, and danger to life; and, while Bright's disease is retained as a generic term for the whole group, more precise names are applied to the several diseases included in it—e.g. acute inflammatory, cirrhotic, &c., Bright's disease, or nephritis. See KIDNEY (DISEASES OF).

Brigitta. See BRIDGET.

Brignoles, a town in the French department of Var, 42 miles ESE. of Aix by rail. A very salubrious place, it has a trade in wines, brandy, olives, and prunes. Pop. (1886) 4225.

Brihuega, a town of New Castile, Spain, on the Tajuña, 20 miles ENE. of Guadalajara. Pop. 4140. Here in 1710, during the War of the Succession, the English general Stanhope, owing to the dilatoriness of his allies in affording him support, was defeated by the Duke de Vendôme, and compelled to surrender, with all his force, amounting to about 5500 men.

Bril, the name of two landscape painters, both natives of Antwerp.—**MATTYS BRIL** (1550-84) went during his youth to Italy, and, under the patronage of Pope Gregory XIII., painted several frescoes in the Vatican. He was also distinguished as an historical and landscape painter.—His more celebrated younger brother, **PAUL BRIL** (1556-1626), received instruction under Mattys in Rome, and soon excelled his master. The works of his ripener age exhibit high poetical qualities, and a fine appreciation of the effects of light in the sky, which have been described as but little inferior to those of his great successor, Claude Lorraine. They have a character of solemn rest and calmness, and at times even an elegiac tone of melancholy, which well accords with representations of the glories of fallen Rome.

Brill, a Dutch port. See BRIEL.

Brill (*Rhombus levis*), a common flat fish on British and other European coasts, belonging to the same genus as the Turbot (q.v.), from which it is distinguished by its being much less high in proportion to length, by the absence of bony tubercles, by the small, almost smooth scales, by the different curve of the lateral line, by the reddish-brown spots on the grayish brown of the 'upper' side, &c. It is seldom above 8 lb. in weight, is much eaten, but lacks the fineness and delicacy of turbot.

Brillat-Savarin, **ANTHELME**, French gastronomist, born at Belley, 1st April 1755, was a deputy in 1789, and mayor of Belley in 1793; he resided for a time in Switzerland, and afterwards in America, where he played in the orchestra of a theatre in New York; and from 1796 until his death, 2d February 1826, he was a member of the Court of Cassation. Shortly before this event, appeared his *Physiologie du Goût* (1825), an elegant and witty compendium of the art of dining, to which he brought the experience of half a century. It has been repeatedly republished and translated; the latest English form is *A Hand-*

book of Gastronomy, with 52 etchings by Lalange (1884).

Brilliant is a popular name given to the diamond when cut in a particular way. See DIAMOND.

Brimstone ('a stone that burns; ' from Anglo-Saxon *byrnan*, 'to burn,' and 'stone') is the commercial name for Sulphur (q.v.) in sticks or rolls.

Brindában, or **BINDRABAN**, a town of the North-west Provinces, on the right bank of the Junna, 6 miles N. of Muttra. It is one of the holiest cities of the Hindus, and crowds of pilgrims come from all parts of India, more particularly in honour of Krishna; and through the munificence of wealthy devotees there are a large number of temples and shrines. Amongst the most notable temples are those of Gobind Deva (1590), Madan Mohan, Gopinath (1580), and that of the Seths, erected between 1845 and 1851 at a cost of about £450,000. Here, as at Benares, the immediate margin of the river is occupied by flights of steps or ghauts. The population of Brindaban, almost exclusively Hindu, was, in 1881, 21,467.

Brin'disi (the ancient *Brundisium* or *Brundisium*), a seaport town of Southern Italy, in the province of Lecce, is situated on a small promontory in a bay of the Adriatic Sea, 346 miles SE. of Ancona by rail. A place of very great antiquity, it was taken from the Sullentines by the Romans (267 B.C.), who some twenty years later established a colony here. It rapidly increased in wealth and importance, chiefly on account of its excellent port—consisting of an inner and outer harbour, the former perfectly landlocked, and capable of containing the largest fleets, and the latter also very well sheltered. Indeed, it soon became the principal naval station of the Romans in the Adriatic, and attained a population of 100,000. Horace has made a journey to Brundisium the subject of one of his satires (*Sat.* i. 5), and Virgil died here (19 B.C.) on his return from Greece. The city suffered greatly in the wars which followed the fall of the empire. When the Normans became possessed of it in the 11th century, the Crusaders made it their chief port for embarkation to the Holy Land; but with the decline of the crusades, the port again sank into insignificance. The city subsequently suffered greatly from wars and earthquakes. The principal buildings are the cathedral (1150), now in a somewhat ruinous state; and the castle, commenced by the Emperor Frederick II., and finished by Charles V. The neighbouring district is still remarkable for its fertility, olive-oil being produced in large quantities. Since the establishment of the Overland Route (q.v.) to India, Brindisi has greatly increased, and as the terminus of the Mont Cenis and other railway routes, it has become a great point of departure for passengers for the East. It is about 60 hours from London by rail; and the weekly steamers to Alexandria make the passage in three days. The extensive and well-sheltered harbour has undergone great improvement. Since 1866 two long quays have been made in the inner harbour, and a great breakwater and mole. Mail steamers can now lie alongside the quays in 26 feet of water. About 1000 vessels annually enter the port, of upwards of 600,000 tons burden. The city is the seat of an archbishopric. Pop. (1881) 14,508.

Brindley, **JAMES**, an eminent English mechanic and engineer, born in Thornsett, near Chapel-en-le-Firth, Derbyshire, in 1716. His parents being in poor circumstances, he received very little education; he was apprenticed at seventeen to a millwright, afterwards became an engineer, and in 1752 showed great ingenuity in contriving a water-engine for draining a coal-mine. A silk-mill on a new

plan, and several others of his works, recommended him to the Duke of Bridgewater (q.v.), who employed him to execute the canal between Worsley and Manchester. This difficult enterprise was crowned with success, including the remarkable aqueduct over the Irwell at Barton, 39 feet above the river, removed in 1888, to give place to a steel aqueduct in connection with the Manchester ship-canal. Thenceforth he devoted his great skill and genius to the construction of navigable canals; commenced the Grand Trunk, and completed the Birmingham, Chesterfield, and others. He appears to have constructed or laid out 365 miles of canals. Up till the last he remained illiterate, most of his problems were solved without writings or drawings, and when anything specially difficult had to be considered, he would go to bed and think it out there. Once, when under examination before a committee of the House of Commons, being jocularly asked for what purpose he supposed rivers to have been created, he is said to have replied: 'Undoubtedly to feed navigable canals.' His life was shortened by his excessive thought and labour, and he died at Turnhurst, Staffordshire, 30th September 1772.

Brine-shrimp (*Artemia*), a genus of small animals belonging to the Branchiopod (gill-footed) division of Crustacea. They have leaf-like swimming and respiratory appendages; the last eight rings bear no legs. They are hatched at the lowest level of crustacean life as Nauplii (q.v.). The



Fig. 1.—Side View of Male Brine-shrimp (*Artemia salina*), enlarged.

full-grown animal is about half an inch long, and having no shell, is transparent. The male has a strong embracing organ, the female a pouch-like brood-sac. The multiplication is very rapid. They swim actively and gracefully on their backs. There are five species of *Artemia*, all found in salt-lakes or in brine-pools where salt is manufactured. Of these species the most unlike are *A. salina* and *A. milhausenii*. Schmankewitsch has made the exceedingly interesting experiment of manufacturing one species of brine-shrimp into another. By increasing the salinity of the water, in the course of several generations, *A. salina* became *A. milhausenii*, and *vice versa*, by decreasing the salinity of the water in which the latter normally lives. Not only so, but by decreasing the salinity of the medium natural to *A. salina*, he was able to make it assume at least some of the characters of a quite different fresh-water genus—*Branchipus*. In the course of generations the *Artemia* acquired nine

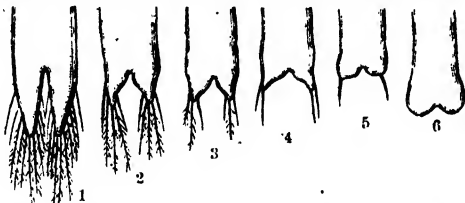


Fig. 2.—Transformation of *A. salina* to *A. milhausenii*: 1, tail-lobe of *A. salina*, and its transition through 2-5 into 6, that of *A. milhausenii*. (After Schmankewitsch.)

instead of eight rings in the tail region, and a partial transformation was thus effected. This is one of the most striking instances of the effect of the environment on the organism (see ENVIRON-

MENT). In respect of habitat, the brine-shrimp is indeed remarkable, occurring, as it does, in myriads, in the concentrated brine of salt-pans. The workmen at salt-pans so confidently ascribe to it the rapid clearing of the brine in which it occurs, that when it does not appear in their *salterns*, they transport a few from other pools.

Brink, JAN TEN, a Dutch writer, born 15th June 1834, at Appingadam, studied theology at Utrecht, but early devoted himself to literary studies. After a short residence at Batavia, he returned in 1862 to teach Dutch at the Hague, and since that time has earned for himself a foremost place as a critic of acuteness and insight, especially in the department of fiction and belles-lettres. A popular novel of his own is *Het verloren Kind* (1879); and his *Causaricn over Moderne Romans* (1885) is a valuable critique of modern novels.—**BERNARD TEN BRINK**, philologist, born at Amsterdam in 1841, from 1861 to 1865 studied philology at Münster and Bonn, and in 1870 became professor of Modern Languages and Literature at Marburg, in 1873 at Strasburg. He has devoted himself largely to English philology. Among his works are *Chaucer-Studien* (1870), *Geschichte der englischen Literatur* (1874; Eng. trans. 1883), *Chaucer's Sprache und Verskunst* (1884), and a book on *Beowulf* (1888).

Brin villiers, MARIE MADELEINE, MARQUISE DE, poisoner, was the daughter of Dreux d'Aubray, lieutenant of Paris, and in 1651, while still young, was married to the Marquis de Brin villiers. A gay and careless spendthrift, he allowed her to do very much as she pleased, and even introduced to her a handsome young officer, the Seigneur de Sainte Croix, who inspired her with a violent passion. Her father caused Sainte Croix to be arrested and imprisoned in the Bastille, where he learned from an Italian the properties of arsenic. On his release he imparted his fatal knowledge to his mistress, who, during his incarceration, had affected the greatest piety, spending most of her time in visiting the hospitals and in attending the sick. She now resolved to destroy her father, and, to test the efficacy of the poison, tried its effects on patients in the *Hôtel Dieu*. Having satisfied herself, she commenced operations on her parent, kissing and poisoning him continually for eight months, until her diabolical patience was exhausted, and she was at last induced to administer a very violent dose. He died, and no one suspected his daughter, who, aided by Sainte Croix and a domestic, Jean Amelin or Chaussée, next poisoned her two brothers and her sisters; her object being to find means of supporting her extravagant style of living with her paramour. She made several attempts to poison her husband; but Sainte Croix is said to have given him antidotes, dreading that he should be compelled to marry the widow. Sainte Croix died suddenly in 1672—his glass mask having fallen off while he was engaged in preparing a poison—and left documents inculcating the marchioness. She escaped to England, afterwards travelled into Germany, and next took refuge in a convent at Liège. From this, however, she was decoyed by an officer of justice disguised as an abbé, and conveyed to Paris. Among her papers was found a general confession of her crimes, whose truth she acknowledged after having been put to the torture, and on 16th July 1670 she was beheaded and burned at Paris (see CHAMBRE ARDENTE). Scribe made her the subject of a comic opera, and Albert Smith of a romance (1856). See also Bauplein, *La Marquise de Brin villiers* (1871).

Brioude, a town in the French department of Haute-Loire, 44 miles SSE. of Clermont by rail, with a Romanesque church of the 12th century. Pop. (1886) 4815.

Briquette is the name, 'originally French ('small brick'), given to a comparatively new form of fuel, made mostly from waste coal-dust, and used not merely for household purposes, but in various industries. A briquette is simply an admixture of coal-dust with pitch, moulded under pressure and heat, the pitch or some similar substance being introduced to form the cementing material. The size most generally adopted in Britain is about double that of the common building brick, and the weight about ten pounds. For household and domestic purposes, the smouldering qualities of the briquette give it especial value; it will remain alight for seven or eight hours, and can at any moment be roused by the poker into a cheerful flame. The heat given out is equal to that obtained from coal; and there is almost no smell in burning. Briquettes do not deteriorate by keeping. The coal-dust having been thoroughly cleaned by a stream of water from particles of clay, pyrites, shale, &c., is well dried in a cylindrical tube; it is then mixed with lumps of pitch in a disintegrator, which thoroughly combines the two ingredients, prior to their delivery into a vertical 'pug-mill.' Steam is now introduced into the pug-mill, rendering the pitch viscid and adhesive; the mixture, thoroughly amalgamated, then passes into moulds set in a rotary die. Powerful rams, exerting a pressure of twenty pounds per square inch, force the material into each mould as it passes in rotation beneath. Nothing further remains but the delivery of each briquette after moulding on to a creeping band, where it is met and cooled by a current of air from a fan, and delivered into a wagon below. Some kinds of baking coal will form briquettes without cementing material; and various substances have been used as cement—tar, asphalt, grease, spoilt flour and starch, waste from soap and other manufactures, gypsum, &c. On the Continent, brown coal is most frequently used, but there are briquettes of charcoal and coke also. France is the original home of briquette-making, which first attained commercial importance in 1832. France still manufactures briquettes on a larger scale than any other country. The use of hard pitch as cementing material is due to an Englishman, Wylam, in 1842. Briquettes have been approved of for heating the boilers of locomotives and marine engines, and in puddling and other furnaces, the chief hindrance in the way of their use being for a long time their cost. There are special works on the subject by Habets (Paris, 1870), Gurlt (Brunswick, 1880), Berg (Berlin, 1880), and Jünnemann (Vienna, 1881).

Brisbane, the capital of Queensland, a seaport and chief seat of trade in the colony, is situated about 500 miles N. of Sydney, in Moreton district. It stands about 25 miles from the mouth of a river of its own name, which falls into Moreton Bay, and it is divided into the four divisions of North Brisbane, South Brisbane, Kangaroo Point, and Fortitude Valley. Pop. (1876) 26,911; (1881) 31,109; (1886) 32,571, or, with suburbs, 73,649. North and South Brisbane are connected by the Victoria iron bridge, 1080 feet in length, with thirteen spans, on the lattice-girder principle. Brisbane possesses about 70 miles of streets, generally broad, straight, and well laid out; some fine buildings, among the chief of which are the Houses of Legislature, which cost £100,000, the post-office, telegraph-office, the viceregal lodge, and the Queensland National Bank. The other buildings of importance are the new offices for the colonial secretary's department, town-hall, masonic hall, custom-house, Queensland club, school of arts, museum, central market, and schools, banks, railroad depot, and insurance offices. It is the seat of an Anglican and of a Roman Catholic bishop.

There are some forty churches, the chief being the two cathedrals; and several daily and weekly newspapers are published. There are four parks and well laid-out botanic gardens. Brisbane is lighted with gas, and part of the water-supply is drawn from the Enoggera watershed, about 7 miles distant. The export trade, which is large, includes gold, wool, cotton, sugar, tallow, and hides; and the imports, most of the articles in use among a thriving community. Regular steam communication is kept up with the other Australian ports, as well as with London (11,295 miles), and there is an extensive system of wharfs on both sides of the river. The channel of the river has been deepened, and admits of large vessels coming up to Brisbane. South Brisbane, on the south side of the Brisbane River, is a favourite place of residence, has good wharfs, and a spacious dry-dock, opened in 1881. Brisbane is the terminus of several local railways, and since 1888 it has had through railway connection with Sydney, Melbourne, and Adelaide—the last link to be made being the bridge over the Hawkesbury River. A transcontinental line from Brisbane to the Gulf of Carpentaria has also been surveyed. A movement has been set afoot for the establishment of a university here.

Brisbane was settled as a penal station in 1825 by Sir T. Brisbane (q.v.), governor of New South Wales, when a batch of desperate and incorrigible characters were landed at Eagle Farm, near the present town of Brisbane. At first they were employed in clearing the land, making roads, and building; and as might be expected, the early history of the colony was not entirely satisfactory. In 1836 the town comprised the houses of the commandant and other officers, barracks, a tread-mill, stores, &c. Three years later the convict settlement was broken up. The era of progress began in 1842, when the colony was opened to free settlers. At first an appanage of New South Wales, the Moreton Bay district was erected into an independent colony in 1859, when the city was incorporated, and the prosperity of the town and district became more steady and rapid. The climate on the whole is dry and healthy, with a high summer temperature, the mean temperature in the shade being 70° F. Race meetings are held at the Eagle Farm course in the neighbourhood.—The Brisbane River rises in the Burnett Range, and receives the Bremer and other rivers before its entrance into Moreton Bay, below the town of Brisbane.

Brisbane, GENERAL SIR THOMAS MACDOUGALL, soldier and astronomer, was born at Brisbane House, Largs, Ayrshire, July 23, 1773. At the age of sixteen he entered the army, and served with distinction in Flanders, the West Indies, Spain, and North America. In 1821, on Wellington's recommendation, he was appointed governor of New South Wales, a position he held for four years, during which time he introduced many wise reforms in penal treatment; promoted the cultivation of the sugar-cane, vine, tobacco, and cotton; and left at the close of his administration 50,000 acres of cleared land where he had found only 25,000. Emigration to this colony also began during his term of office; he found a colony of 23,000 and left 36,000. Under his auspices the river which bears his name, and on which stands the town of Brisbane (q.v.), was discovered. Brisbane holds a high place as a man of science. While in Australia, he catalogued no less than 7385 stars, for which work he received the Copley medal from the Royal Society. On his return to Scotland, he had an astronomical and a magnetic observatory established at his residence. He was president of the Royal Society of Edinburgh after Sir Walter

Scott. He was made a baronet in 1836, and a G.C.B. in 1837. He died January 27, 1860.

Brissot, JEAN PIERRE, one of the leaders of the French Revolution in its early stage, and afterwards numbered among its victims, was born at Chartres in 1754, and educated for the bar. After completing his studies at Paris, he went into the office of a procurator, but quickly abandoned the legal profession for the more congenial one of authorship. From his earliest years he had devoted himself with passionate eagerness to literary studies, especially history, economy, and politics. His first work, *Théorie des Lois Criminelles* (1780), gained the approbation of the best judges, and was followed by his *Bibliothèque des Lois Criminelles*, which established his reputation as a jurist. He was imprisoned in the Bastille on the false charge of having written a brochure against the queen; but after four months was liberated through the intervention of the Duke of Orleans. His love of freedom again involved him in danger, and to escape from a new term in the Bastille he retired to England. He afterwards visited North America as representative of the *Société des Amis des Noirs*. On the outbreak of the Revolution in 1789 he returned to France, and was elected by the citizens of Paris their representative in the National Assembly, where he exercised a predominant influence over all the early movements of the Revolution. He also established a journal called *Le Patriote Français*, which became the recognised organ of the earliest Republicans. As the Revolution proceeded, Brissot was recognised as the head of the party usually called Girondists (q.v.), from Gironde, the province to which most of them belonged, but also named Brissotins after their leader. Brissot contributed powerfully to the fall of the French monarchy, and strongly enjoined war against Austria and England, and the diffusion of republican principles throughout Europe. In the Convention, his moderation made him suspected as a friend of royalty, as he opposed the 'men of September' and the trial and condemnation of the king. When Louis XVI. heard his doom pronounced, he exclaimed: 'I believed that Brissot would have saved me!' But Brissot was weak enough to imagine that the best way to save the king would be to vote first for his death, and then appeal to the nation. Brissot and his party, perhaps the purest in principle and the weakest in action, ultimately fell before the fierce accusations of the Mountain or Jacobin party, which believed, or at least pretended to believe, that the virtuous Brissot had received money from the court to employ against the Revolution. With twenty other Girondists, Brissot was guillotined, October 31, 1793. See his *Memoirs (Legs à mes Enfants*, ed. by Lescure, 1885).

Bristles, the strong hairs growing on the back of the hog and wild-boar, and extensively used in the manufacture of brushes, and also by shoemakers and saddlers. They form an important article of British import, between two and three million pounds being annually imported, chiefly from Russia and Germany; but they are also obtained from France and Belgium, and large quantities of inferior quality have recently been received from China. From Russia, including Siberia, the average annual quantity of bristles imported into Britain is declining of late years. In 1886 it was nearly 907,000 lb., valued at £139,315. Russian bristles vary in value from £8 to £60 per cwt. Rather more bristles now come from Germany, but none of these are so valuable as the best qualities from Russia. They vary from £12 to £40 per cwt. From France fully 100,000 lb. are annually received, and smaller quantities are got from Denmark, Holland, and

Belgium. The supplies from the United States and East India have risen into importance within the last few years. The quality of bristles depends on the length, stiffness, colour, and straightness—white being the most valuable. The best bristles are produced by hogs that inhabit cold countries. The Russian hog is a long, spare animal, and the thinner the hog, the longer and stiffer the bristles. When it is sent to the south and fattened, the bristles become soft, and of course depreciated in value. In the summer the hogs are driven in herds through the forests, to feed on soft roots, &c., when they shed their bristles by rubbing themselves against the trees. The bristles are then collected, sewed up in horse or ox hides, and sent to fairs, whence they find their way, through agents, to all countries. The value of bristles has increased by one-half since 1858. See BRUSHES.

Bristol, a mercantile city 6 miles from the mouth of the Avon, and at its junction with the Frome, is locally partly in Gloucestershire and partly in Somerset, but since 1373 has been itself a county. The ancient town stood wholly on the north of the Avon, on a peninsula formed by that river and the Frome, which then flowed across the bottom of Corn Street; a new course was dug for the Frome in 1248, and this added a large area; and soon afterwards a stone bridge was built across the Avon, connecting the town with Temple-fee, and with Redcliff, which belonged to the lords of Berkeley. After a violent struggle with the House of Berkeley, these districts were included in the town and county by the charter of 1373. The castle, first built probably by Geoffrey, Bishop of Coutances, and rebuilt with a vast keep by Robert, Earl of Gloucester (died 1147), fell into decay, and was demolished in 1654; some remains may be seen in Castle and Tower streets. The cathedral was formerly a church of Augustinian canons (1148); the nave and aisles, pulled down for rebuilding in 15th century, were rebuilt in 1877; the choir is good 14th-century work; fine Norman chapter-house and gateway remain. Bristol, originally in the diocese of Worcester, was created a see and a city in 1540, with the abbey-church of St Augustine's as cathedral, and was united to the see of Gloucester in 1836; its re-erection as a separate see is now contemplated. Other noteworthy churches north of the old course of the Avon are St James' (Benedictine), with fine Norman work, and showing the division of the building into parochial and monastic churches; St Philip's and St Jacob's, St Stephen's, All Saints, and the Mayor's Chapel. South of the river is St Mary Redcliff, justly declared by Queen Elizabeth to be the 'fairest and most famous parish church in England.' Of the church rebuilt, 'from the cross aisles downwards,' by William Canynges, sen., merchant (circa 1376), only the south transept and south wall of nave remain; the rest was wrecked by the fall of the spire, and was built by Canynges' grandson and namesake (circa 1470); it is vaulted throughout, and is a magnificent specimen of Perpendicular architecture. The truncated spire was completed, 280 feet from ground, and 170 feet from top of tower, in 1872. In the monument-room is the chest in which Chatterton (1752-70) pretended to have found the Rowley poems. The present Temple Church, on the site of an oval church of the Templars, was built in the 14th century; the tower leans about 5 feet, through a defect in the foundations; attached to the church is the Weavers' Chapel of St Katharine. Among the ancient houses of the town are Canynges' house, Redcliff Street, Spicer's (or Back) Hall, and St Peter's Hospital. The principal educational institutions are University College (1876), Clifton College (1862), and the grammar-school (1531); and the charitable foundations, Queen Elizabeth's

Hospital (1586), the Red Maids' School (1621), and Colston's School (1704), now removed to Stapleton, Gloucestershire. A technical school has lately been opened by the Merchant Venturers. The City Library (free) dates from 1613. Bristol first appears in history on a coin *circa* 1000. The town, which derived its early wealth from exporting slaves to Ireland, took a large part in the war of Stephen's reign, and was besieged by the king. The first charter was granted by Henry II., who also (1171) gave Dublin to the men of Bristol. By 1217 the town had a mayor. In the reign of Edward II. the burghers made an insurrection, stood a siege, and were not brought to obedience for nearly four years. The town did a large trade in wool, leather, wine, and salt, was famous for its cloths, and was one of the 'staple' towns (1353). In the next century its trade was in the hands of great merchants, many of them, like Canynges, men of princely liberality, and generally on the Yorkist side. Bristol took a prominent part in discovery and colonisation. In 1497 John Cabot sailed from the port, and was the first to discover North America; his son Sebastian declared that he was born in Bristol, and sailed thence on his voyage of 1498. Bristol men colonised Newfoundland, engaged in several early attempts to colonise Maine, and established a large trade with the West Indies and American colonies. The city was taken by Prince Rupert in 1643, and by Fairfax in 1645. Colston the philanthropist (1636-1721) founded many charities, and his 'day' is annually kept in Bristol. In the 18th century privateering was largely carried on, and was encouraged by the success of Captain Woodes Rogers, who in 1708-10 sailed round the world, and brought back £170,000 for his owners. Southey (1774-1843) was a native of Bristol, and he and Coleridge were much there in their younger days. Burke was returned for the city in 1774, and declined the poll in 1780. One of his chief supporters was Champion (1743-1791), maker of the famous Bristol china; true Bristol china is the product of 1773-81 only, the years during which he was the sole head of the Castle Street factory. The Reform riots of 1831 occasioned great loss of life and property. The first steam-ship for the transatlantic voyage, the *Great Western*, was built in the port in 1838. Strenuous efforts have been made to improve the dock accommodation; in 1809 the Avon for about 3 miles was turned into a floating harbour, and during the last few years the river improvements have cost about £87,000. In 1883 the corporation purchased large docks at Avonmouth and Portishead. The principal imports are grain, provisions, oils, hides, tallow, sugar, and petroleum; the exports coal, salt, tin-plates, cotton piece-goods, chemical products, manufactured oils, and sundries. The tonnage of vessels entering the port during 1886 was returned as 1,285,090 tons; in 1847 it was 546,753 tons. Bristol is on the Great Western and Midland railways. In 1885 the number of its members of parliament was raised from two to four. Pop. within mun. boundaries (1801) 61,153; (1841) 125,148; (1871) 182,552; (1881) 206,503; (1887) 223,695. The Hotwell, noticed by the Bristol chronicler, William Worcester (died *circa* 1491), enjoyed some reputation as a fashionable resort during the

later half of the 18th century (see *Humphry Clinker* and *Evelina*); it is now deserted and decayed. Clifton, however, the parish to which it belongs, has thriven. It is mentioned in Domesday, but has little history till it appears as a 'beautiful village' in 1760; it is now a large and handsome suburb of Bristol, of which it forms part for municipal and parliamentary purposes. It stands above St



The Church of St Mary Redcliff, Bristol.

Vincent's Rocks, which rise majestically from the Avon. The river is spanned 245 feet above high-water by a suspension bridge (1864, see BRIDGE). Clifton is well furnished with places of worship of different denominations, and has a zoological garden (1836), fine arts academy (1858), museum and library, and other public buildings. In the neighbourhood are the remains of some Roman camps.

See Barrett's *History and Antiquities of Bristol* (1789); Seyer's *Bristol Charters* (1812), and *Memoirs of Bristol* (2 vols. 1823); Nicholl's and Taylor's *Bristol, Past and Present* (3 vols. 1881); Hunt's *Bristol, Historic Towns Series* (1887); Latimer's *Annals of Bristol in Nineteenth Century* (1887).

Bristol, (1) a town of Bucks county, Pennsylvania, on the Delaware River, 20 miles NNE. of Philadelphia by rail or river. Here is the terminus of the Delaware Canal from Easton (Pa.), and a line of steamboats also connects the town with Philadelphia. It has a foundry, and manufactures of machinery, flour, felt, worsted, and furniture. Pop. 5273.—(2) A port of entry, and capital of Bristol county, Rhode Island, on Narragansett Bay, 15 miles SSE. of Providence by rail, with shipbuilding and sugar-refining, and manufactures of cotton and rubber goods. Pop. 5063.

Bristol Bay, an arm of Behring Sea, lying immediately to the north of the peninsula of Alaska, receives the waters of two large lakes, by which communication with the interior is opened up for a considerable distance.

Bristol Channel, an inlet of the Atlantic Ocean, in the south-west of England; between South Wales on the north, and Devon and Somerset shires on the south; or it may be regarded as an extension of the estuary of the river Severn. It is about 80 miles long, and 5 to 43 miles broad; the depth ranging from 5 to 40 fathoms. It is the largest inlet or estuary in Britain, having a very irregular coast-line of 220 miles. The chief rivers

which flow into it are the Towy, Taff, Usk, Wye, Severn, Avon, Axe, Parret, Taw, and Torridge. The tides in it rise to an extraordinary height—at Bristol, 35 feet; at King's Road, 40; and at Chepstow, sometimes 70. The rapid flow of the tides meeting the currents of the river produces, in the narrow parts of the channel, and in the mouths of one or two of the rivers which enter it, the phenomenon of the *Bore* (q.v.), the tide advancing like a wall of water sometimes 6 to 9 feet high. The chief bays and harbours are Caermarthen and Swansea Bays, Cardiff Roads, on the north, and Bideford or Barnstaple, Ilfracombe, Minehead, Porlock, and Bridgwater, on the south.

Brisure, in Heraldry, is a variation on the original arms of a family, introduced to distinguish cadets from the head of the family and from each other. See CADENCY, HERALDRY.

Britain. See GREAT BRITAIN, NEW BRITAIN.

Britannia, the name applied by Caesar and other Roman writers to the island of Great Britain; Aristotle having referred to the *Nēsoi Britannikai* ('British isles') as early as the 4th century B.C. According to Rhys, *Britannia* has nothing to do with the Welsh *brith*, 'spotted, tattooed,' from which it is commonly derived; but 'so far as we know, the only Celtic words which can be of the same origin are the Welsh vocables *brethyn*, "cloth," and its congeners;' in which case the Britons may have styled themselves 'cloth-clad' in contradistinction to the skin-wearing neolithic nation that preceded them (see CELTS). Though the Romans kept possession of Britain for nearly four centuries (43–410 A.D.), their occupation of it remained essentially military, and consequently the influence of their civilisation was to a great extent restricted to the towns. The general tendency of their government was to break up the native tribal system, and substitute their own in its stead, but in this they did not succeed so completely as in Gaul and Spain, neither did the Latin language displace the native British, as it did in these countries. The country south of the Solway Firth and the mouth of the Tyne, in the reign of Claudius, formed one Roman province under a consular legatus and a procurator. Ptolemy mentions seventeen native tribes as inhabiting this tract. Severus (210 A.D.) divided it into two parts, *Britannia Inferior*, the southern, and *Britannia Superior*, the northern, placing these under separate prefects. In the division of the empire under Diocletian, Britain was made a diocese in the prefecture of Gaul, and was governed by a vicarius residing at Eboracum (York). It was divided into five provinces, of which the boundaries, though uncertain, are supposed to have been as follows: *Britannia Prima*, England south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel; *Britannia Secunda*, Wales; *Flavia Caesariensis*, the country between the Thames, Severn, Mersey, and Humber; *Maxima Caesariensis*, the rest of England to the Wall of Hadrian; and *Valentia*—soon abandoned by the Romans—or Scotland south of the Wall of Antoninus. The population of Roman Britain was in the main Celtic, divided, as at present, into two branches, the Cymric and Gaelic. The former occupied the south and east, the latter the north and west. Besides these, there probably existed remnants of two earlier races which were ultimately absorbed, a small dark-haired race possibly akin to the Basques (q.v.), hence sometimes called *Euskarian*, and a tall fair-haired race supposed to be of Finnish descent. The traces of the dark stock are most marked in South-west England, South Wales, and parts of the Scottish Highlands. To insure the obedience of the natives, at least three Roman legions—chiefly composed of Gauls,

Germans, Iberians, and but few pure Romans—were stationed in Britain—viz. at Eboracum, *Deva* (Chester), and *Isea* (Caerleon) in South Wales. Under the Romans, many towns (*coloniae* and *municipia*)—fifty-six are enumerated by Ptolemy—arose in Britain, and formed centres of Roman law and civilisation. The towns of Eboracum (York) and Verulamium (near St Albans) had the privileges of Roman citizenship. The Romans made many roads or streets (*strata*), of which there are still numerous remains, across the country, all centring in London. They also developed it into a corn-growing country. Druidism was the religion of the Britons at their conquest by the Romans, but the latter introduced Christianity and Roman literature into the country, though Christianity was not recognised as the state religion till 324 A.D. There are many remains still extant of the presence of the Romans in Britain, such as camps, roads, ruins of houses, baths, flues, altars, mosaic pavements, painted walls, metallic implements and ornaments, weapons, tools, utensils, pottery, coins, sculptures, bronzes, inscriptions, &c. These remains show that the Romans wished to render their British conquests permanent, and that they had greatly improved the arts of the ancient Britons, as is evident on comparing the remains with the far ruder native antiquities of the British pre-Roman or prehistoric era, such as tumuli, barrows, earth-works, so-called Druidical monoliths and circles, cromlechs, cairns, pottery, weapons, tools, utensils, ornaments, &c. Many of the Roman remains in Britain also show that the Romans had introduced into the country the refinements and luxuries of Rome itself. See ENGLAND, ROADS, WATER LANE, STREET; Elton's *Origins of English History* (1883) and Scarth's *Roman Britain* (1883).

Britannia Metal. The composition of Britannia metal varies. Much of it is 90 tin, 8 antimony, and 2 copper. Another formula is 8 tin, 16 antimony, 1 copper, and 2 zinc. But none of the alloys passing under this name have between 80 and 90 per cent. of tin with varying proportions of antimony and copper. The manufacture was begun at Sheffield by Hancock and Jessop in 1770; it reached Birmingham towards the close of the century, and made gradual progress. At first, the articles were made by stamping with dies, and soldering up into form; this, being a slow operation, rendered the articles expensive. Afterwards, the curious process of *metal-spinning* was introduced; and this, with the subsidiary operation of swaging, rendered a great reduction in price possible. In the spinning process, a thin sheet or piece of Britannia metal is placed upon a wooden model shaped like the article to be made; the model is made to rotate in a lathe; and steel, hardwood, bloodstone, or other tools are employed to press the yielding metal into all the curvatures of the model. Ductility is an essential quality to the attainment of this end with the metal; how complete it is, may be seen in such articles as Britannia metal teapots and dish-covers, the principal forms of which are not given by hammering, stamping, or casting, but by spinning. Besides spinning and swaging, the processes include Stamping (q.v.), Soldering (q.v.), casting, and polishing. Britannia metal forms a good ground or basis for electroplating with silver. Britannia metal spoons and ladles, made by casting, stamping, and burnishing, have been nearly driven out of the market by German silver; but the former metal is more largely used than ever for hot-water jugs, coffee-pots, sugar-basins, soup tureens, gravy-dishes, vegetable and side dishes, dram bottles, drinking-cups, wine-coolers, soap-boxes, liquor-frames, cruets, waiters, trays, &c.; and as a basis for electroplate. Sheffield and Birmingham are

the chief seats of the manufacture. After electroplating came into general use in the decade 1840-50, the trade in Britannia metal wares became double what it was previously.

Britannia Tubular Bridge. See BRIDGE.

Britannicus, or in full, Claudius Tiberius Britannicus Caesar, was the son of the Emperor Claudius (q.v.) and his wife Messalina, and was born 42 A.D. The second wife of Claudius, Agrippina, caused her husband to adopt her son Nero, and treat Britannicus as an imbecile; and Nero, after his accession to the throne, caused his miserable half-brother to be poisoned in 55.

British Association, an association whose object is, by bringing together men eminent in all the several departments of science, to assist the progress of discovery, and to diffuse over the whole country the latest results of scientific research. A prevailing impression that England had fallen behind other countries, both as to the general estimation in which scientific men were held, and the prosecution of science itself, led to its formation. It was thought that an imposing union of men of science with the nobility, gentry, and clergy might tend to revive the philosophic spirit of the country. Such meetings had already taken place in Germany, and probably suggested the idea of this institution. Many leading men of the age took part in its formation, but the honour of being its founder must be ascribed to Sir David Brewster. By his exertions the first meeting of those who were favourable to the design was held at York in the year 1831. At this meeting the constitution of the society was determined, the several sections had their provinces assigned to them, and subjects were proposed on which reports were to be drawn up and read at the ensuing meeting. This took place at Oxford in 1832. The university had cordially welcomed the new association, the papers read gave it a high character, and from this date it may be said to have been in complete and successful operation. The several sections of the society, each of which has its own committee and president, now are: Section A, Mathematical and Physical Sciences; B, Chemical Science; C, Geology; D, Biological Sciences (Zoology, Botany, Physiology, Anatomy); E, Geography and Ethnology; F, Economic Science and Statistics; G, Mechanical Science; H, Anthropology. Many of the successive presidents have been men of great social and scientific eminence.

At the close of each meeting, the town at which the meeting shall be held is determined two years in advance, and a president appointed. In 1884 the place of meeting, contrary to the usual practice, was at Montreal in Canada. The subscriptions of a continually increasing membership have placed a large fund at the society's disposal, which has been expended in the prosecution of science. In many cases, as in long astronomical calculations or extensive meteorological observations, the labour of subordinates is required, and certain apparatus, and it is in defraying such expenses that the funds of the British Association are very wisely employed.

The annual meeting takes place about the end of August and lasts more than a week, excursions and social gatherings diversifying the more serious labours of the association. The attendance varies considerably, having been 3335 at Newcastle in 1863, only 915 at Swansea in 1880, and 2533 at the jubilee gathering at York in 1881. The meeting at Manchester in 1887 was attended by 3838 persons. The income fluctuates considerably, having in recent years varied from £2200 to over £4000 (£4336 in 1887), and the annual grants for the promotion of science are usually between £1000 and

£2000 in amount. The sums given range from £5 to £100 to private persons and institutions, for the promotion of science and publication of results of original observations. A volume is published annually containing reports on the progress of science, addresses delivered, papers and abstracts of papers read at the meetings, and copies are presented to societies and libraries at home, in the colonies, and abroad.

There is an American Association, meeting in the various towns of the United States; and since 1872 there has been a French *Association pour l'Avancement des Sciences*. Germany has also similar congresses.

British Columbia. See COLUMBIA.

British Empire. See GREAT BRITAIN.

British Gum. See DEXTRIN.

British Museum. The British Museum, an important national institution in London, originated in a bequest of Sir Hans Sloane, in accordance with which his extensive collection of objects of natural history, works of art, books and manuscripts, was offered in 1753 to the government, for the sum of £20,000, or two-fifths of its original cost. The offer was accepted; the necessary funds were raised by a lottery; and the collection, along with the Harleian and Cottonian Libraries, was arranged in Montague House, which had been purchased for £10,250. The new institution, thenceforth called the BRITISH MUSEUM, was opened in 1759. The presentation by George III. of a collection of Egyptian antiquities in 1801, the purchase of the Townley Marbles in 1805, and of the Elgin in 1816, necessitated the erection of a new wing. Soon afterwards the old house was condemned, and plans were prepared by Sir R. Smirke for new buildings; but none were undertaken till 1823, when the eastern wing of the present building was erected for the reception of the library of George III., which had been presented to the museum by George IV. The building, a hollow square in the Ionic order of architecture, was not completed till 1847. Its principal front is towards the south, facing Great Russell Street, and presenting an imposing columnar façade, 370 feet in length. On each side of the museum there is a semi-detached house, containing the residences of the chief officers of the establishment.

Scarcely had Smirke's plans been carried out, when it was found that the increase of the library, both in books and readers, made fresh building imperative. A plan devised by Mr (afterwards Sir Antonio) Panizzi, the keeper of the department of printed books, was accepted. Parliament voted the first grant for it in 1854, and it was executed in three years, at a total cost of £150,000. The new building was erected in the interior quadrangle, which it almost completely occupies. The reading-room is circular, and contains ample and comfortable accommodation for over 300 readers. It is constructed principally of iron, with brick arches between the main ribs. The dome is 106 feet in height, and its diameter 140 feet, being second only to the Pantheon of Rome, and that but by 2½ feet. Equally remarkable has been the saving of space in the fitting up of the library. The shelves are formed of galvanised iron plates, edged with wainscot and covered with leather, and are supported on malleable-iron standards. With the exception of those placed against the external walls, the bookcases are all double, a lattice of ironwork being fixed for the longitudinal separation of the books. Thus, throughout the whole interior of the new building, walls are dispensed with, the divisions being in all cases formed of the double ranges of books. The building contains 3 miles lineal of

bookcases 8 feet high. Assuming them all to be spaced for the average octavo book size, the entire ranges form 25 miles of book-shelves, and would accommodate 1,000,000 such volumes. In addition to this, the dome-room, which is the reading-room, has accommodation for 60,000 volumes.

With the rapid increase of the collections, both by donation and purchase, the need of space was soon again felt, and the trustees resolved to erect a building to be devoted entirely to Natural History—that is to say, to the departments of Botany, Zoology, Geology, and Mineralogy—on the site occupied by the International Exhibition of 1862. Parliament voted in the year 1873, £80,000 for this purpose, and the new rooms began to be occupied in 1881. The whole cost of the new museum very nearly reached the sum of £400,000. This elegant terra-cotta edifice, which is situated at Kensington in the Cromwell Road, was designed by Mr Alfred Waterhouse. Its galleries are finely proportioned and well lighted, and the entrance-hall is one of the finest of modern erections. In 1879 the reversion of a bequest of about £65,000, left more than half a century earlier, by Mr William White, enabled further important additions to be made to the building at Bloomsbury. On the west side has been erected a new gallery, measuring 153 feet by 40, for the exhibition of Greek sculpture; on the east, on ground formerly occupied by the principal librarian's garden, are buildings containing a complete set of rooms for the department of prints, and new accommodation for readers of manuscripts and newspapers, which were opened to the public in 1888.

Contents.—At first the contents of the museum were arranged under three departments—Printed Books, Manuscripts, and Objects of Natural History. From time to time the number of the departments has been increased, so that, instead of three, there are now eleven—viz. Printed Books (with the sub-department of Maps), Manuscripts, Prints and Drawings, Oriental Antiquities, Greek and Roman Antiquities, Coins and Medals, British and Medieval Antiquities and Ethnography, Zoology, Botany, Geology, and Mineralogy. In noticing the contents of the museum, we shall refer to them in this order.

Printed Books.—This is the largest department in the museum. It occupies the whole of the ground floor on the north and east sides, the new building erected in the quadrangle, and a considerable portion of the basement of the museum.

The original bequest of Sir Hans Sloane consisted of 50,000 volumes. In 1757 George II. presented the library of printed books which had been collected by the kings of England since Henry VII., and which included the libraries of Cranmer and Casaubon. He also annexed the important privilege, which the Royal Library acquired in the reign of Queen Anne, of being supplied with a copy of every publication entered at Stationers' Hall. Among subsequent additions to the library may be mentioned the voluminous collection of pamphlets, &c. relating to the civil wars of England between 1640 and 1660, presented by George III.; the musical libraries of Sir J. Hawkins and Dr C. Burney; Garriek's collection of old English plays; Dr Bentley's collection of the classics, annotated by his own hand; the Rev. C. M. Cracherode's library of about 4500 volumes, remarkable for their beauty and excellence of condition; Sir J. Banks's valuable and extensive collection on natural history; and a large mass of tracts and pamphlets relating to the French Revolution, purchased from J. Wilson Croker, and of very great value. The most important addition was made in 1823, when George IV. presented the splendid library that had been collected by his father during his long reign, at an expense of little less than £200,000. The mag-

nificent library of the Right Honourable Thomas Grenville was bequeathed to the museum in 1846. It consists of 20,240 volumes, which cost upwards of £54,000. In the same year was obtained also the extensive collection of Chinese works, amounting to 11,509 volumes, which belonged to Robert Morrison. By purchases, bequests, and donations, the library has become one of the first in the world, containing now about 1,500,000 printed volumes. See LIBRARIES. During the year 1886, there were added 33,844 volumes, including music and volumes of newspapers, of which 3946 were presented, 16,953 purchased, 11,548 acquired by home copyright, and 1397 by international copyright. There were also added 5296 pieces of music, and about 2200 sets of newspapers.

A catalogue of the printed books, in seven octavo volumes, was published in 1813–19. So great have been the additions to the collection, that in 1880 the general MS. catalogue occupied upwards of 2000 volumes folio. The adoption in that year of the plan of printing the title-slips, has checked this rapid rate of growth, and a printed catalogue is now in progress. At the end of 1887, 169 printed volumes had taken the place of 633 in manuscript, and it is calculated that the beginning of the 20th century will see the whole of the catalogue represented by some 600 printed volumes. The adoption of printing has also facilitated the commencement of a subject-catalogue of all new acquisitions, and the first instalment of this was issued in 1886. Another important catalogue issued by this department is that of old English books published previously to 1641, a work of the highest bibliographical importance.

The right of access to the library is easily obtained. Any person desiring it is 'to apply in writing, addressed "To the Principal Librarian of the British Museum," specifying his description and place of abode, and accompanying his letter with a written recommendation.' Since the adoption (1880) of electric light in the reading-room, the number of readers has greatly increased, and in 1886 they reached the enormous total of 176,893, or 584 per diem. The number of books consulted by these readers was 1,189,680.

Maps.—There are over 50,000 published and 20,000 manuscript maps in the museum. A catalogue of these in two large quarto volumes has been published.

Manuscripts.—The manuscripts are contained in several rooms in the south-east angle of the building. The collection consists of: (1) The Sloane manuscripts, relating chiefly to medical and natural history subjects. (2) The Cotton manuscripts, rich in documents referring to the history of Britain, including two of the originals of *Magna Charta*, in registers of English monasteries, and in original letters of royal and illustrious personages. This collection contains the *Durham Book*—a copy of the Latin Gospels, with an interlinear Saxon gloss, finished in the year 720. (3) The Harleian manuscripts, a collection rich in illuminated MSS., in ancient, civil, and ecclesiastical records, in manuscripts of the classics, among which is one of the earliest known copies of the *Odyssey*, and in early English poetry. (4) The manuscripts of the Ancient Royal Library. These were collected by our kings, from Richard II. to George II.; many of them were obtained from the monasteries at the dissolution. Amongst the most valuable treasures here are the *Codex Alexandrinus*, a manuscript of the Bible written in uncial Greek, before the close of the 5th century, and the *Basilicon Doron* of James I., in his own handwriting. (5) The Lansdowne manuscripts. This collection comprises the Burghley and Cæsar papers, the manuscripts of Bishop Kennett, and

numerous valuable historical documents and state papers. (6) The Hargrave manuscripts, almost exclusively connected with law. (7) The Burney manuscripts, containing a large collection of the Greek and Latin classics. Among them is a copy of the *Iliad*, answering that of the *Odyssey* in the Harleian collection. (8) The Howard-Arundel manuscripts, obtained from the Royal Society. This collection is singularly rich in materials for the history of our own country and language. (9) The Oriental manuscripts, a collection composed of several purchases and bequests. It includes the manuscripts acquired by Mr Rich while consul at Bagdad, and consists of numerous Syriac, Arabic, Ethiopic, and other oriental codices. A large series of Ethiopic manuscripts was obtained at Magdala on the occasion of the Abyssinian war. (10) Additional manuscripts. This collection consists of innumerable bequests, donations, and purchases, which from the establishment of the museum have been and are still being acquired. Catalogues of the complete collections have long been in existence, while that of the additional manuscripts is continually being increased by fresh volumes. Separate catalogues have also been issued of the collections of Greek and Latin, and also of Persian manuscripts, and a valuable catalogue of romances is in progress. The most important recent additions to the department have been the purchase of the Stowe manuscripts from Lord Ashburnham, and the gift by the Earl of Chichester of the Duke of Newcastle's papers in 430 volumes. In 1887 the department contained upwards of 50,000 volumes, 47,000 charters and rolls, nearly 10,000 detached seals and casts of seals, and upwards of 100 ancient Greek, Coptic, and Latin papyri.

Prints and Drawings.—The collections of this department are kept in rooms in the new buildings erected from the bequest of Mr William White. They consist of prints and drawings bequeathed to the museum in 1799 by the Rev. C. M. Cracherode; of those bequeathed in 1824 by Mr Payne Knight; and of numerous smaller bequests and donations. No purchases were made for this department until about 1840, when a sum was first included in the estimates for this purpose. The collection now contains examples in all English and foreign schools of original drawings, etchings, and engravings, also of prints from pictures by well-known masters. It is peculiarly rich in early Italian and early German, and Dutch and Flemish engravings. Among the drawings are fine examples of Raphael, Michael Angelo, Leonardo da Vinci, Albert Dürer, and Claude; among the water-colours, of David Cox, Girtin, and W. Müller. The collections of etchings by Rembrandt and of engravings by Hogarth are alike unrivalled. There is also an extensive collection of English and foreign portraits and of satirical prints. A large number of Japanese drawings and paintings have recently been acquired, and of these a catalogue was issued in 1887.

Oriental Antiquities.—The Egyptian monuments in this department date from a period as remote as 2000 years before the Christian era, and come down to the Mohammedan invasion of Egypt (640 A.D.). The collection comprises the antiquities which fell into the hands of the British army at the capitulation of Alexandria; presents from General Vyse, the Duke of Northumberland, &c. The sculptures are formed of granite and basalt; they represent human and allegorical figures, sometimes of colossal size. There are several beautifully sculptured sarcophagi. The key to the Hieroglyphics (q.v.) was furnished by the celebrated Rosetta Stone (q.v.), which is placed in the centre of the gallery. The smaller Egyptian remains are exhibited in a gallery on the upper floor; they

consist of objects relating to religion, as representations of divinities and sacred animals in wood, metal, stone, and porcelain; of objects relating to civil and domestic life, as dress, personal ornaments, household furniture, artistic and writing implements, armour, and weapons of war, &c.; and of objects relating to death and burial, as mummies and coffins, with the scarabei, amulets, and other ornaments found with them.

The Assyrian antiquities are contained in a suite of rooms erected on the outside of the Egyptian Gallery, and in a spacious room on the basement. The collection consists of sculptures excavated at Nimrud, Khorsabad, and Koyunjik by Layard in 1847-50, and more recently by Rassam and Loftus, under the direction of Sir H. C. Rawlinson. The Nimrud sculptures are the oldest, belonging to a period ranging from 930 to 747 B.C. Those obtained from Khorsabad seem to have been executed under a monarch who reigned about 747-721 B.C., while the collection from Koyunjik belong to the time of Sardanapalus, apparently 721-625 B.C. The monuments consist chiefly of slabs of gypsum, alabaster, and limestone sculptured in low relief, the subjects being the exploits of the king whose palace walls they ornamented.

Greek and Roman Antiquities.—This collection occupies a series of rooms extending from the reading-room to the north-west angle of the museum. The Lycian Gallery contains a series of architectural and sculptural remains from ancient cities in Lycia, obtained by Sir C. Fellows in 1842-46. The Elgin Gallery contains the sculptures from Athens and Attica, the greater portion of which were obtained by the Earl of Elgin, and purchased from him by parliament in 1816 for £35,000. The most important series in the gallery is the decorations of the Parthenon (q.v.), which, notwithstanding their dilapidated condition, form the most valuable monument of Greek art which has descended to modern times. The gallery contains also sculptures and casts from the Temple of Wingless Victory, the Temple of Theseus, and the Erechtheum, at Athens. The Hellenic Gallery contains a number of antiquities brought from Greece and its colonies at different times. The most important are twenty-three slabs of a frieze sculptured in mezzo-relievo, which, from the locality where they were found, are called the 'Phigalian Marbles.' In a new gallery, built out of the White bequest, are the remains of the famous Mausoleum (q.v.) at Halicarnassus, erected in honour of Mausolus by his widow Artemisia. These remains were discovered by C. T. Newton, Esq., in 1857-59.

The gallery on the south side of the building is occupied with the Roman and Greco-Roman sculptures. The bulk of the collection was formed by Charles Townley, Esq., and purchased in 1805 for £20,000. It contains an interesting series of Roman portrait sculptures, and a very extensive mythological series, amongst which are some of universal fame—the Venus, Clytie, the Discobolus, and many others. A room on the basement is appropriated to mosaics and miscellaneous monuments, such as representations of animals, architectural and decorative fragments, and sacred and domestic implements. A fine collection from Southern Italy, exhibiting specimens of the arts of the Etruscans, Greeks, and Romans, was bequeathed to the museum by Sir William Temple in 1856. The former reading-room of the department of prints in the north-west angle is now occupied by a collection of Greek and Roman sepulchral monuments.

The collections of smaller remains are placed in a suite of rooms on the upper floor. They consist of (1) An extensive series of vases, commonly, though not correctly known as Etruscan, formed from the

collections of Sir W. Hamilton, &c., and from excavations in Sicily, Rhodes, and on the sites of Greek colonies in Cyrene and elsewhere. (2) A miscellaneous collection of terra-cottas, mural paintings, and other objects. (3) Bronzes of Greek, Etruscan, and Roman workmanship, consisting of sculptures, and various domestic and other articles, as candelabra, lamps, vases, horse-trappings, armour, &c. (4) The collection of engraved gems and gold ornaments, now, since the addition of the Blacas and Castellani collections, perhaps the richest in the world.

Coins and Medals.—The very large collection of these objects is arranged in chronological order under five great divisions: viz.: Greek, Roman, Medieval and Modern, English, and Oriental.

British and Medieval Antiquities and Ethnography.—The British collection is arranged in chronological order. The oldest series contains the antiquities of the Stone and Bronze periods, consisting of celts, daggers, swords, shields, and early pottery. The British-Roman antiquities comprise specimens of earthenware, lamps, and miscellaneous articles. A small collection of sepulchral urns, weapons, and personal ornaments represents the Anglo-Saxon period. The Ethnographical collection contains antiquities as well as objects of modern use. In 1855 Mr Henry Christy bequeathed to the museum his extensive collections of antiquities and ethnography, and these are now exhibited in the former 'Bird Gallery.' Another valuable bequest is the Slade collection, illustrating the history of glass in all its branches. But the department has had no more generous donor than its present keeper, Mr A. W. Franks, whose numerous gifts to it cannot be valued at less than £20,000.

Natural History Museum at South Kensington.—In 1856 the trustees united the Natural History departments under Professor Owen, who was then appointed superintendent of Natural History. In the spring of 1881 the new building erected at South Kensington, for the reception of the zoological, mineralogical, geological, and botanical departments, was opened to the public. The following departments, therefore, though belonging to the British Museum, now form the Natural History Museum at Cromwell Road, South Kensington.

Zoological Department.—This department contains a collection of animals arranged in systematic order in the galleries, comprising stuffed mammals, birds, reptiles, and fishes, and the hard portions of radiate, molluscan, and articulate animals. A room is specially devoted to the fauna of Britain. In rooms on the ground and basement floors are arranged the collections of insects, of osteology, and of specimens preserved in spirits. In 1873 the unique and extensive collection of birds formed in the Eastern Archipelago by Wallace, was acquired by purchase. Recent additions are the magnificent Gould collection of humming-birds, and the Walsingham collection of birds and birds' nests.

Botanical Department.—The herbarium of Sir H. Sloane, the nucleus of this collection, consisted of about 8000 species, bound in 262 volumes. In 1820 the magnificent herbarium of Sir Joseph Banks was bequeathed to the museum, and under the superintendence of Robert Brown, was transferred to two rooms prepared for it in the south-east angle of the building. The collection has since been rapidly increasing: during the year 1880 about 9000 species of plants were added; and in 1873 William Wilson's herbarium of British and foreign mosses was acquired by purchase. The collection contains an extraordinary number of typical specimens—the identical plants from which the original descriptions were taken by Linnaeus, Aublet, Jacquin, Brown, Bentham, Ben-

nett, and others. The exhibition rooms contain a series of specimens illustrating the most striking characteristics of the great divisions of the vegetable kingdom, arranged in order; and a series of fossil plants, the value of which is increased by the transparent sections showing their structure, which are placed beside them.

Geological Department.—This collection occupies the wall-cases of the principal gallery on the north side of the museum. It contains an extensive series of the fossil remains of plants and animals from the various fossiliferous strata; it is especially rich in the fossils of the secondary formations. Amongst its more valuable contents may be mentioned the collections of Dr Mantell, the Tertiary fossils collected by Dr Falconer in India, and the remarkable fossil birds from New Zealand.

Mineralogical Department.—The minerals are contained in the table-cases in the Geological Gallery. They are arranged according to a chemical classification. Many valuable and unique specimens exist in the collection, which is rapidly increasing.

The expenses of the museum are paid by grants of public money. According to the estimates, £147,385 were required in 1887-88.

While the usefulness of the museum must always be gauged by the help it renders to real students, much of late years has been done to increase its popularity with casual visitors. To every article exhibited is attached a label, giving its name, and where needful, something of its history. In departments, the bulk of whose treasures cannot be displayed, selections are placed in show-cases, among the most interesting of which are those containing autographs of celebrated personages; ancient, oriental, and illuminated manuscripts, books illustrating the history of printing in various countries, rare bindings, &c. By the Department of Prints a permanent exhibition is given of works illustrating the history of etching and engraving, and arrangements have been made for temporary exhibitions of rarities. During the last few years also exhibitions have been given in the King's Library in connection with the centenaries of Luther, Wyclif, and Handel, the Anglo-Jewish Exhibition, &c. The number of visitors to the museum in 1886 amounted to 504,803 to the parent institution, and 382,742 to the museum of Natural History.

Briton Ferry, a seaport of South Wales, in Glamorganshire, at the mouth of the river Neath, 2½ miles from the busy town of Neath, to which it serves as a port. Pop. of parish, 6061.

Brittany (Fr. *Bretagne*), the great north-western peninsula of France, extending in triangular form into the sea, its base resting on Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou, its sides washed by the Channel and the Atlantic Ocean. In earlier times it formed, with the name of duchy, one of the provinces of France; now it forms the five departments of Finistère, Côtes-du-Nord, Morbihan, Ille-et-Vilaine, and Loire-Inférieure, with a total area of 13,130 sq. m., and a population (1886) of 3,136,400. Before the Revolution, this district fell into the nine dioceses of Rennes, Dol, Nantes, St Malo, and St Brieuc, Tréguier, Vannes, Quimper, and St Pol-de-Léon; of which the first five made up the two popular divisions, the names of which are still indeed in general use: Upper Brittany (*Haute-Bretagne*); the last four, Lower Brittany (*Basse-Bretagne*). Though the height of its mountains nowhere exceeds 1150 feet, their structure gives to the peninsula a wild and savage aspect. Clay-slate forms the centre of the country, and masses of granite rise in the north and the south. The climate is often foggy, and subject to violent storms of wind. Large tracts of land lie uncultivated; but in the well-watered

valleys vegetation is luxuriant. The peculiar shut-in situation and the characteristics of soil and climate in Brittany, seem to have had a powerful effect on the character of its people. The Breton has generally a tinge of melancholy in his disposition; and often conceals, under a dull and indifferent exterior, a lively imagination and strong feelings. He is passionately attached to his country and his customs, and is strongly averse to change. A bold seaman and steady soldier, he is devoted in his loyalty to time-honoured authority in church and state, and is capable of extraordinary devotion and sacrifice of self for his ideal. His piety is profound, although simple and unaffected; his pride, serious and self-respectful, entirely free from that petty peevishness and uneasy watching for small slights which so often belittle the real dignity of the Celtic nature. The manners of the natives might be called rude but for their simplicity. The percentage of illiterate persons in Morbihan is 50; in Loire-Inférieure, Côtes-du-Nord, and Finistère it sinks to 40; in Ille-et-Vilaine it is as low as 30. Thus book-learning, so far as regards French books, has hardly yet reached more than a half of Brittany, and the Bretons would be ignorant and uncivilised indeed but for a quite extraordinary wealth of traditional song and story, that serves effectively all the purposes of a national culture. Perhaps nowhere in the world has folklore reached such a high development, and this not less in quality than in quantity; for no traditional stories come near the Breton folk-tales, no popular poetry the Breton folk-songs. It must not be forgotten that there has long existed a pretty abundant literature, at least in religious subjects, in the Breton language, and that even in our day many natives are capable of reading this who do not read, and need not even speak, French. No part of Europe contains so many megalithic monuments as Brittany. Within the province are more than six hundred *dolmens*, and more than eight hundred isolated *menhirs*, and these, moreover, the grandest examples in the world. The largest, at Locmariaquer in Morbihan, is 67 feet high and no less than 342 tons in weight. *Cromlechs* also are very common, some of rectangular form. The great *alignments* near Carnac, situated within a few miles of each other, are the most celebrated megalithic monuments in the world.

In ancient times, Brittany, under the name of *Armorica*, was the centre of the confederated Armorican tribes, who were of Celtic origin. Later it was known as *Provincia Lugdunensis Tertia*, but it never was more than nominally under Roman sway. Already entirely liberated in the 4th century, it became divided into several allied republican states, which afterwards passed into petty monarchies. The Franks called its turbulent and warlike population *Breton*; the Latin writers, since the 5th century, *Britanni* and *Brittones*; while the country was called *Britannia Cismarina*, also later *Britannia Minor*, to distinguish it from the island of Britannia across the Channel, and to mark the original identity in the populations of the two. Brittany became subject to the Franks in the reign of Charlemagne, and was handed over by Charles the Simple to the Northmen in the 10th century. After fierce struggles the Bretons at length acknowledged the suzerainty of the Norman dukes. Geoffroi, Count of Rennes, was the first to assume the title of Duke of Bretagne, in 992. The duchy of Brittany was incorporated with France in 1532 by Francis I., to whom it had come by marriage; and subsequently it shared in the general fortunes of the kingdom. Its local *parlement* at Rennes was of course merely its supreme court, which but rarely played a political

rôle. At the outbreak of the Revolution all the towns, and even some of the larger communes as well as the coast villages, embraced the new ideas, but the country-people mostly followed the lead of their curés and landlords, and remained intensely loyal to the ancient royal house. Brittany accordingly became the arena of a long and bloody struggle against dominant republicanism, its Chouans almost rivalling the Vendéans in the heroic stubbornness of their opposition to the Revolution; but it must be remembered that the revolt against the new ideas was at no time general as it was in Vendée. It was still smouldering so late as 1832, when there was an outbreak of popular feeling in favour of the elder Bourbons. Brittany has given many great men to France: Abelard, Duguesclin, the Connétable de Richemont, Jacques Cartier, Michel Colomb, Dom Lobineau, Duclou, Surcouf, Broussais, Laënnec, Jules Dupré, Duguay-Trouin, Kératry, Maupertuis, Chateaubriand, Lamennais, Jules Simon, and Renan, not to mention countless seamen and admirals. See Daru, *Histoire de Bretagne* (3 vols. 1826); Le Saint, *La Bretagne Ancienne et Moderne* (2d ed. Limoges, 1879); Loth, *L'émigration Bretonne en Armorique* (1883); Joanne, *Bretagne* (1884); and Deau Church's essay (1846), full of insight and sympathy, reprinted in the first volume of his *Miscellanées* (1888).

Language and Literature.—The Breton (*Brezouek*, *Brezounek*; Fr. *Bas Breton*), the ancient language of Brittany, still called sometimes *Armorican*, to distinguish it from insular Breton, is one of those small Celtic tongues which have continued to be spoken languages down to the present time. It forms, together with Welsh in Wales, the but recently extinct Cornish in Cornwall, and that language known from a number of inscriptions to have been the tongue spoken by the ancient Gauls, the Cymric or southern group of the Celtic languages. It is at the present day spoken chiefly in the département of Finistère and the western parts of Côtes-du-Nord, and in Morbihan, and is still, according to the careful calculations of M. Paul Sébillot (in *La Revue d'Ethnographie* for January 1886), the ordinary language of about 1,322,000 persons, of whom no fewer than 679,700 know that language alone. The paper referred to contains maps showing village by village the existing limits of Breton and French. M. Sébillot estimates that by the close of the present century there will be no more than 100,000 persons ignorant of French, without, however, the Breton ceasing to be the '*vernacule lingua*' of almost all the actual Breton country. Breton has four dialects: that of Vannes (*Vannetais*), of Quimper (*Cornouaillais*), of Tréguier (*Trécorrois* or *Tréguois*), and of St Pol-de-Léon (*Léonais*), of which the last is the most important. The dialect of Léon is the purest of the four, although the narrowest in its geographical extent; while the Cornouaillais is the widest, and next to it the Vannetais. These dialects indeed follow very nearly the limits of the ancient dioceses. Breton is most closely allied to Cornish and next to Welsh, but it surpasses both these tongues in the refinement of its grammatical forms and words. Most competent scholars consider it as having been carried across the Channel from England in the settlement made in the 6th century. See Rhys, *Lectures on Welsh Philology* (2d ed. 1879), and Belloguet, *Ethnogenie Gandoise* (4 vols. 1858-75). The greatest service to the grammar and lexicography of the language has been done by Pater Gregoire of Rostrenec, Le Pelletier, and especially Le Gonidec (died 1838). The last wrote the best grammar (Paris, 1807; 3d ed. 1850), as well as an excellent lexicon (Angoulême, 1821; St Brieuc, 2 vols. 1847-50). Many valuable papers on questions of Breton philology have been

contributed to the *Revue Celtique*, which was commenced by H. Gaidoz at Paris in 1870, by Gaidoz, Ad. Pictet, Dr Stokes, Professor Rhys, D'Arbois de Jubainville, Le Men, Sauv , Luzel, and other scholars. At the present day Breton philology is brilliantly represented by two young scholars, Bretons both by birth and tongue: M. Loth, professor at Rennes, and M. Ernault, professor at Portiers. At the instigation of M. Loth, and mainly under his editorship, the Facult  des Lettres at Rennes has published since 1885 a review, *Les Annales de Bretagne*, devoted in great part to Breton philology. See also Whitley Stokes, *Middle Breton Hours*, with translation and glossary (Calcutta, 1878), and his *Old Breton Glosses* (Calcutta, 1879 and 1880; and reprinted in the 'Transactions of the [London] Philological Society' for 1886).

The Breton literature of the earliest period (since the 6th century) is grouped together with the Bardic literature of the British Isles. Many of the oldest and most famous of the bards (as Gweznou, Taliesin, Sulio) belonged perhaps to Brittany, and their strong and spirited poetry, partly of a patriotic and historical, partly an erotic character, may have had no small influence on the work of the French *trouv res* of the succeeding centuries. We need only allude to the Arthurian cycle of legend, worked up with such poetic wealth and variety of form by the medieval poets. The chief monuments of old Breton are two miracle-plays, a prayer-book or 'Hours,' a dictionary, and the cartularies of two monasteries. Of the plays, the first is founded on the life of St Nonna or Nonita, and exists in a manuscript ascribed by Zeuss to the 14th century. It was chiefly from this source, together with the two cartularies of the monasteries at Rhedon and Landevin, alluded to above, that Zeuss drew the materials for the Armorican part of his famous *Grammatica Celtica*. It was published in 1837 under the title of *Bulez Santez Nonn*, but a much better edition was given by M. Ernault in vol. viii. of the *Revue Celtique*. The second play, the *Barzud braz Jezuz*, the great miracle or mystery of Jesus, was edited by Hensart de la Villemarqu  in 1865, with a translation. It should, however, be added that this mystery has since been shown to be a translation from the French. As in course of time the French speech and culture spread over the country, and became the more familiar form for literary expression, the Breton struck root all the deeper into the affections of the common people, by becoming the chosen medium alone for the expression of their homely proverb, song, and story. Although it gradually ceased to be used for formal literary composition, Breton continued for centuries to be the medium through which the manuals of piety supplied by the church reached the faithful. The primitive manner of life preserved the conditions necessary not only for the transmission, but the creation of the folk-tale and the ballad, and genuine examples of these have continued to be produced by the free working of the popular imagination almost down to our own time. The extraordinary wealth of Breton popular literature was first revealed to the world, although under a somewhat fictitious garb, by La Villemarqu . His *Barzaz Breiz* (1839; Englished by Tom Taylor in 1865) professed to be the fruit of many years' collecting in every part of Lower Brittany, but unfortunately it cannot be accepted as a genuine undoctored product of the popular imagination in the proper and scientific sense. It consisted of *gwerzions* (plural of *gwerz*), heroic or mythological ballads, many of which are short, but some have as many as 600 verses; *sonions* (plural of *sonn*, or *s n*), love and festive songs; and religious poems; and was accompanied with translations and notes, and the original airs noted

in the sixth edition (1867), some of which had, however, been given already in the first edition. Other volumes of poetry in the Breton language were Luzel's *Bepred Breizad* ('always Breton'), consisting of original verse (Morlaix, 1865), and a fine collection under his editorship of genuine *gwerzions* or popular ballads chiefly in the dialect of Tr guier, *Gwerzions Breiz-Izel* (2 vols. 1874). M. Luzel, who is one of the most intelligent no less than patriotic representatives of 'Bretagne bretonnante' now living, as well as one of the most profoundly learned and scientific folklorists of France, is at present preparing a great collection of *sonion*. The legends of Brittany were worked up with fine effect by Emile Souvestre in his *Foyer Breton* (1844), and to their rare literary charm we owe some of the finest passages in the pages of George Sand and Renan. Since the 16th century, as has already been said, the native clergy have used the Breton speech for the composition of religious plays and hymns, as well as sermons and books of edification and instruction. At the present day there still appear one or two almanacs in Breton, some of which, however, are bi-lingual; while the journals issued in Brittany publish from time to time articles in the native language, and at election times there is a plentiful crop of Breton placards and posters; but it cannot be said that the Breton is now a cultivated language other than accidentally. The weekly journal *Faiz ha Breiz* ('Faith and Brittany'), which had a predominantly religious character, died at Quimper after nineteen years' existence (26th April 1884). There yet waited in Upper Brittany an ample harvest of folklore, no less than song and story, for the most learned and indefatigable of its editors, M. Paul S billot, the chief of whose collections are his *Contes Populaires de la Haute-Bretagne* (three series, 1880-82), *Litt rature Orale de la Haute-Bretagne* (1881), *Traditions et Superstitions de la Haute-Bretagne* (2 vols. 1882), *Contes de Terre et de Mer*, *L gendes de la Haute-Bretagne* (1885), and *Contumes Populaires de la Haute-Bretagne* (1886). And from La Villemarqu 's own ground, Lower Brittany, M. Luzel has given the world the rich gleanings of years in *L gendes Ch r tiennes de la Basse-Bretagne* (2 vols. 1881) and *Contes Populaires de la Basse-Bretagne* (3 vols. 1887), two invaluable collections that have a place on the shelves of all folklorists everywhere. There is also a good collection of Breton proverbs, 'Lavarou-Koz,' by L. F. Sauv  (1878). See a fine paper by Henri Gaidoz on 'La Po sie Bretonne pendant la guerre de 1870-71,' in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for December 15, 1871; and for other books and papers the 'Bibliographie des Traditions et de la Litt rature Populaire de la Bretagne,' by H. Gaidoz and Paul S billot, in vol. v. of the *Revue Celtique*.

Brittle-stars (Ophiuroidea), one of the classes of Echinodermata, including forms not far removed from starfishes (Asteroids), but differing markedly in the more centralised body, more sharply defined arms, and more active habit. Compared more fully with starfishes, the brittle-stars are more muscular and less limy; the arms do not contain digestive caeca from the gut nor reproductive organs, and are supported by an axis of central limy bodies like vertebrae; the tube-feet are smaller, probably simply tactile, and locomotion is effected by the muscular wriggling of the arms; the groove so well seen on the ventral surface of the starfish arm is here closed in by limy plates; the alimentary canal is blind—that is, without anus; the entrances to the water-vascular system (madreporic plates) are ventral; and the larval form is quite different. The popular name 'brittle-star' refers to the extreme ease with which the arms break; another common name, 'sand-stars,' refers less happily to

their occasional occurrence on the shore; the technical title Ophiuroid describes the snake-like coils of their 'arms.' The commonest British species are the Common Sand-star (*Ophiura texturata*), the Lesser Sand-star (*O. albidula*), and the Common Brittle-star (*Ophiocoma rosula*). Another important genus is Euryale, to which the Basket-fish or Argus Starfish belongs. See ECHINODERMS, STARFISH.

Britton, JOHN, topographer and antiquary, the son of a small farmer and village shopkeeper, was born in 1771, near Chippenham, Wiltshire, and, losing his parents young, received but a scanty education. At sixteen he went to London, and was in turn cellarman, clerk, and compiler of a song-book. Some contributions to a dramatic miscellany led the publisher to employ him, with a young friend, Brayley, to compile the *Beauties of Wiltshire*; its success led up to the *Beauties of England and Wales*, on behalf of which the joint authors travelled 3500 miles to inspect the localities described, and which cost £50,000. They also prepared the *Beauties of Bedfordshire* in the same manner. Britton afterwards issued a more elaborate work, entitled the *Architectural Antiquities of England*. He died in London, January 1, 1857. One of the most important of his publications was *The Cathedral Antiquities of England* (14 vols. folio and 4to, 1814-35, with upwards of 300 highly finished plates). Altogether, his illustrated works number eighty-seven, besides others of a similar kind which he edited. Britton was amongst the first to combine and popularise antiquarian and topographical description, and by his letter to Joseph Hume in 1840 on the preservation of ancient monuments, he anticipated the Act of 1882. See his *Autobiography* (1850).

Brive-la-Gaillarde, a town in the French department of Corrèze, 55 miles SSE. of Limoges by rail. Pop. (1886) 9413.

Brixen, a town of Tyrol, on the Brenner Railway, 57 miles SSE. of Munich. It is the seat of a prince-bishop, and has several monasteries and a theological seminary. Pop. 4842.

Brixham, a market-town and seaport of Devonshire, England, on Tor Bay, 25 miles S. of Exeter (32½ by rail). It is an irregular place, sprinkled over three valleys and four hillsides; picturesque, though possessed of no architectural features, and fishy as even few fishing-towns. Great quantities of fresh fish are sent to London, Bath, and Bristol; several vessels are engaged in the foreign and coasting trade; there is a little shipbuilding; and the place is a favourite sea-bathing resort. There are iron-mines, limestone quarries, mineral-paint works, and a bone cave on Windmill Hill, discovered in 1858, which contained bones of the mammoth, rhinoceros, horse, reindeer, hyena, bear, &c., besides palæolithic flint implements (see CAVE). At Berry Head, a mile distant, is a Roman camp. It was at Brixham that William of Orange landed, November 4, 1688. Pop. (1851) 5627; (1881) 5366.

Brixton is a district of London (SW.), in Lambeth parish.

Briza, or QUAKING GRASS. See GRASS, PASTURE.

Broach, BAROACH, or BHARUCH, a town of Guzerat, Bombay Presidency, 228 miles N. of Bombay by rail, on the north bank of the Nerbudda, from whose inundations it is protected by a river-wall, 30 to 40 feet high, built of large blocks of stone. Eighteen hundred years ago Broach was one of the chief ports of Western India, and its foreign commerce did not absolutely disappear

until the end of the 18th century. In the 16th century the Portuguese reported it a town of weavers, 'who make the finest cloth in the world;' this fame led to the founding of English and Dutch factories here in the following century, and even yet its hand-loom weaving is of importance. Broach was taken by the British in 1772, ceded to Sindhia in 1783, and again stormed by a British force in 1803, since which date it has remained a British possession. It carries on a small coasting trade, the principal exports being raw cotton, grain, and seeds. There is a Hindu hospital for old and sick animals, maintained at a cost of £530 annually. Pop. (1881) 37,281, including many Parsees and Jains.—The district of Broach, an alluvial plain sloping westwards to the shores of the Gulf of Cambay, is 54 miles in length, and from 20 to 40 miles in breadth, with an area of 1453 sq. m. The black cotton soil of the district is highly fertile. There is a railway bridge of 67 spans over the Nerbudda, with a length of 4122 feet. Pop. (1881) 326,930.

Broad Arrow, a government mark, thus, stamped, cut, or otherwise fixed on all solid materials used in Her Majesty's ships or dockyards, and on government stores of all kinds, in order to prevent embezzlement. The origin of the mark is obscure; Pepys and others have thought it represented the anchor introduced as a crown mark in 1627 (see *Notes and Queries* for 1884, &c.). The acquittal of a dealer in marine stores prosecuted for having in his possession certain stores bearing the broad arrow of his majesty, led to the passing of the Act of 1698, which enacts that persons in possession of naval stores, or goods of any kind marked with the broad arrow, or other marks therein mentioned, and usually employed in marking naval stores, shall forfeit all such goods and £200, and also pay costs. The mark is for iron, wood, &c., what the colour-thread is for sail-cloth and ropes, as it enables the smallest piece of such articles to be identified as government property.

Broad-bill. See SHOVELLER.

Broad-bottom Administration, a name derisively applied to the ministry formed by Henry Pelham in 1744, because it professed to include all parties of weight and influence in the state in a grand coalition, and comprised no less than nine dukes. Thus for a time the Whig party were reunited, and even Tory support secured. The ministry was dissolved in 1754, by the death of Pelham, though several of its original members had seceded long before.

Broad Church. See ENGLAND (CHURCH OF).

Broadmoor, in SE. Berkshire, 2 miles from Wellington College Station, is the state asylum for 500 criminal lunatics. It is a large brick building, opened in 1863.

Broads, THE NORFOLK, are a series of inland lakes usually said to be formed by the widening or 'broadening' out of the rivers. More probably their origin is due to a change in the general level of the land surface of the county; for even within historic times the river Yare was an estuary of the sea, in which herrings were caught at the time of Domesday. The broads *par excellence* are those up the Bure or North River (which empties itself into the sea at Yarmouth), and its tributaries the Ant and the Thurne. On the Bure leaving the comparatively hilly land north of Wroxham, it enters a flat marshy country very little above high-water mark, and right and left of it are the well-known broads of Wroxham, Sallhouse, Hoveton, Horning, and Ranworth, all of which can be seen from the main river, and are approached from it by more

or less narrow waterways or cuts. The first (Wroxham) is the largest and deepest, there being sailing-water for large boats all over it; but some of the others are very shallow, and are fast growing up owing to the accumulation of decayed vegetable matter, which is gradually adhering to the banks. There is indeed no doubt that a hundred years ago there was double the area of open water here that there is now, and some broads—e.g. that at Dilham, where not so long ago sailing matches were held—are now simply a reed bush, with hardly any water visible. Up the Ant there is the fine broad at Barton and another at Sutton; but the latter is fast closing up, and is covered with water-lilies, and both these are inaccessible to large yachts, owing to the smallness of the bridge at Ludham stopping the way. Up the Thurne there is a very large broad at Hickling, and two others at Martham and Horsey, and these are all of note in the east part of the county, on which it is possible to sail; for the three fine broads of Ormesby, Rollesby, and Filby, though connected and forming a chain, have no practicable outlet to the river. The Yare or Norwich River has no broads on which sailing is possible, but the visitor at Norwich will find those at Surlingham, Strumpshaw, and Rockland well worthy a visit, and very accessible by rail. Near Lowestoft, on the Waveney, is Oulton Broad, but this is near the town, and possesses few of the charms of the other sheets of water named. The broads have grown greatly in favour with holiday-makers of late—for where twenty years ago it was possible to sail from end to end of the Bure without meeting more than two or three yachts, it would now be hard any fine Saturday, during August and September, to find a mooring-place by Wroxham Bridge, where perhaps a hundred yachts may be seen at once, the place resembling Henley at a regatta time. The great influx of visitors has of course sent up the prices of everything, and has destroyed the extreme quiet which was the great charm of the place to naturalists and fishermen. Still the strange scenery—the great expanse of the landscape, and the rank profusion of vegetation and flowers of all sorts, the lofty reed bushes especially attracting attention—will always render the spot a pleasant one, and the keen air being especially beneficial to invalids, it will always be recommended by doctors. Game and fish abound, but it must be clearly understood as being jealously preserved here as anywhere else, and though plover, moorhen, and an occasional duck and heron, can be shot from the deck of a yacht, the sportsman is liable to heavy fines if he lands on the bank to pick up what he has shot. Still the occasional visitor is not generally interfered with if he leaves the game alone. Fish, and especially pike, perch, bream, and rudd, are very plentiful still; but there are only the rivers and one or two broads free to all, though permission is generally easily obtained. For the coarse fish it is absolutely necessary to ground-bait liberally in order to bring the fish to the spot. To the antiquary the district is full of interest, the ruins of St Benet's Abbey, of Burgh Castle (Roman), and many interesting churches, being within easy reach. See G. A. Davies *Norfolk Broads* (1884), Walter Rye's *Month on the Norfolk Broads* (1887), and Emerson and Goodall's *Life and Landscape on the Norfolk Broads* (1887).

Broadside, the simultaneous discharge of all the guns on one side of a ship of war. The fighting power of a ship used to be estimated by the weight of all the shot and shell that could be fired off at once from one side or half of the ship. Thus, the broadside of the old-fashioned *Duke of Wellington*,

131-gun war-steamer, amounted to 2400 lb. With ironclad turret-ships the term is inapplicable. See NAVY.

Broadsides. See CHAPBOOK.

Broadstairs, a quiet watering-place in Kent, 12 miles N.E. of Ramsgate, so named from the breadth of the sea-gate or *stair*, which was formerly defended by a gate or archway. Near it is a noble orphanage, founded by the wife of Archbishop Tait, who lived much in the vicinity. Dickens was a frequent visitor. Pop. 4322.

Broadsword, a sword with a broad blade, usually for cutting only, not stabbing. See CLAYMORE.

Broca, PAUL, a distinguished French surgeon and anthropologist, was born at Sainte-Foy-le-Grande, Gironde, in 1824. After pursuing his medical studies with distinction, he was named professor of Surgical Pathology in the Faculty of Medicine at Paris, and surgeon successively of the four hospitals of Bicêtre, the Salpêtrière, Saint Antoine, and La Pitié. He was also director of the Laboratory of Anthropology in the High School of Paris. Celebrated not only as a surgeon, Broca was regarded as one of the most learned masters of the existing school of anthropology. He founded the Paris Anthropological Society, of which he was secretary till his death, and he was a member of all the leading medical, biological, and anatomical societies of Paris and the Continent. Elected a member of the Academy of Medicine in 1866, he was decorated with the Legion of Honour in 1868. Broca was a voluminous writer, and among his more important works may be cited the following: *Des Anévrismes et de leur Traitement* (1856), *Sur l'Anesthésie Chirurgicale Hypnotique* (1859), *Études sur les Animaux Ressuscités* (1860), *Instructions Générales pour les Recherches Anthropologiques* (1865), *Traité des Tumeurs* (1865), *Caractère Physique de l'Homme Préhistorique* (1868), and *L'Anatomie Comparée de l'Homme et des Primates* (1869). He also collaborated in the production of several important medical and physiological works. In 1878 he presided over an International Congress on Anthropology held in Paris. He died July 9, 1880.

Brocade (Span. *brocado*). This term is applied to a kind of figured silk resembling on the one hand a damask, and on the other a piece of embroidery. To some extent it partakes of the character of both, but a piece of silk, woven on the old hand-loom with a slightly raised pattern somewhat resembling a piece of embroidered work, was called a brocade. The name is now applied to a figured silk with a satin or cord ground in which several colours are used, and in which a coloured thread (or more than one) is put in by a shuttle only travelling a short distance, or just the width of a flower or figure. This part of the pattern is technically said to be 'brocaded in.' A brocade may only be of silk on the face, and the back of some other material. Johnson defined the term as meaning 'a silken stuff variegated with gold or silver, and raised and enriched with flowers and various sorts of figures, originally made by the Chinese.' With the exception of those woven in modern times, brocades are very generally composed in part of gold, silver, or gilt silver threads.

Oriental brocades date from a remote period, but there were probably no European stuffs of this nature earlier than the 13th or 14th century, when they were made in Italy and Spain. In common with damasks, figured tissues, and other varieties of ornamented silks made in past times, Italian and Spanish brocades, dating from the 14th to the 17th century, as well as those of Persia and Asia Minor, extending over a longer period of time, are extremely valuable objects of study for the textile designer and decorative artist. Their richness,

beauty, and variety of pattern are very great. The French brocades of the 18th century, and even some of quite modern date, are also interesting in an artistic sense. Fine examples of all these are to be found in some continental museums. The collection at South Kensington is very rich, and is being made available to persons at a distance by highly finished chromo-lithographs of the best pieces, already partly published under the supervision of the authorities of that institution. Some interesting specimens of these fabrics can also be seen in the museums of Manchester, Edinburgh, and Dublin.

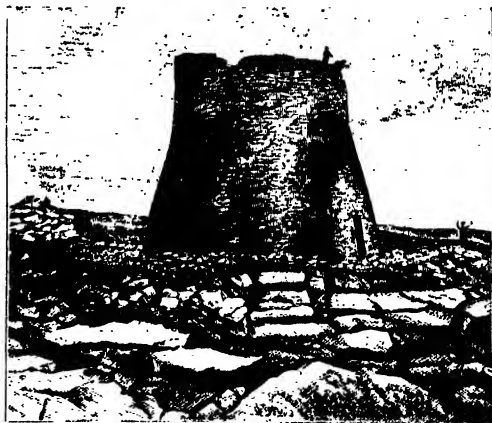
Brocage Bonds, or bonds securing a reward for the promotion of a marriage by influence to be used, are void by the law of England and of Scotland.

Broccoli, a well-known and much-esteemed garden vegetable, one of the many varieties which cultivation has produced of the *Brassica oleracea*, the common kale or cabbage. Broccoli is said to have been originally brought to Italy from Cyprus about the middle of the 16th century. Its name is Italian. It is merely a variety of the Cauliflower (q.v.), with the same general characteristics, but a harder constitution, which enables it to withstand all but our severest winters. Many improved sub-varieties have been introduced within the past fifteen or twenty years, with greater delicacy of flavour and purity of colour, while the original hardy constitution of the race has remained unimpaired. Some of the varieties are early in coming into use from the time of sowing, and others late, and by a judicious selection and a careful study of the times at which each should be sown, broccoli may be made to span the period when cauliflower ceases, in October or November, till it may again be had in June. The trade in broccoli during winter and spring is very great. All British markets are supplied chiefly from Penzance in the early months of the year, the winter climate there being particularly favourable to its early production. The market-gardeners around Edinburgh are noted for the high excellence of the broccoli they produce in the later spring months, and are able to keep up the supply after that of the southern growers fails, and till the first crops of cauliflower come in. See BRASSICA.

In the cultivation of broccoli the seeds are sown in the open ground in April and May, thinly, so that the plants may not become crowded while they remain in the seed-bed. Deep rich loam is requisite to produce the best quality. The plants are finally planted out in June and July, at distances of from two to three feet apart, according to the vigour and bulk eventually attained by the individual sorts. Frequent stirring with the hoe or the fork between the plants is conducive to vigorous growth. In severe winters it is necessary to protect the plants by some means from frost. The most usual means practised is that of digging the soil away from the northern side of each plant, and laying the latter with an angle towards the north. The overhanging leaves prevent the lodgment of rain and snow in the hearts, and offer some protection also against frost, but the size of the heads is usually somewhat diminished by the check administered to the growth. When only small quantities are grown, they may be effectually protected by spreading litter over them when frost is severe, but in the case of large quantities this would prove too laborious and costly.

Brochs (O.N. *borg*; A.S. *burh*, *burg*; Eng. *burgh*, *borough*; Scot. *brough*, 'a fortified inclosure or castle'), the local name applied in the north of Scotland to the ancient, dry-built, circular castles, known also to the Gaelic-speaking people as *duns*,

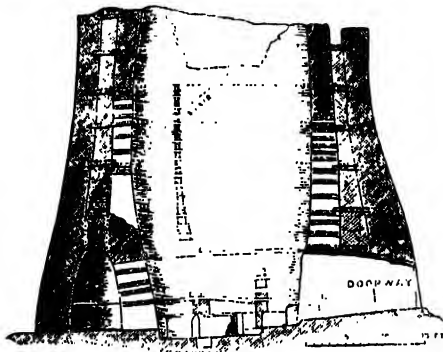
and to antiquaries (since Pennant's time) as 'Pictish towers,' of which Mousa and Clickemlin in Shetland, Dun Dornadilla in Sutherland, Dun Carloway in Lewis, and the two in Glenbeg of Glenelg (called Castle Tellve and Castle Troddan by Gordon) are the best-known examples. These circular castles appear to have been more thickly planted along the straths of the northern counties, and around the shores and in the lochs of the northern and western isles, than the later *peels* in the Border valleys. The sites or ruins of more than two hundred are known in the three northern counties. They occur also in very considerable numbers in Ross, Inverness, and Argyll, and a few examples are known in the counties of Perth, Forfar, Stirling, and Berwick. It is only in recent years that the structural characteristics of the brochs and their relation to the other antiquities of the country have been disclosed, chiefly by means of an extensive series of excavations made at the instance of the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland, the details of which, with plans, sections, and measurements of many of these singular edifices, are published in their *Transactions*. The general conclusion is that these structures, which are peculiar to Scotland, belong to a period subsequent to the colonisation of Britain by the Romans, and continued in use, at least in the more northern districts, till after the close of the Viking period of the Northmen, or approximately from about the 6th to about the 10th century. The typical broch, of which Mousa, situated on a small islet near Lerwick, in Shetland, is the best preserved



Broch of Mousa.

example, is a circular tower, built without mortar, the wall 15 feet thick, inclosing a circular area or court 30 feet in diameter. The exterior face of the wall has a slight batter or set inwards; the interior face is perpendicular, but has a ledge or set backwards, at a height of about 8 to 10 feet. There is no opening to the exterior except the door, which is always on the ground-level, and usually about 6 feet in height by about 30 to 36 inches wide. This doorway, or tunnel-like passage, into the interior court through the thickness of the wall, is provided with cheeks or rebates for a door, with holes in the wall behind them for a long horizontal sliding bar, and these are always placed at some distance within the passage-way, which is further defended by a guard-chamber opening in the thickness of the wall on one or both sides. Round the inside of the court, on the ground-floor, there are, in some cases, doors placed at intervals opening into chambers with beehive roofs, formed in the thick-

ness of the wall. In other cases the wall is solid, except on the left of the main entrance, where there is one opening or doorway, which gives access from the court to a stair in the thickness of the wall leading to the upper stories. Above the first 8 or 10 feet of its height the whole wall is divided, and carried up with a space of about 3 feet between its outer and inner sections, which is traversed horizontally by floors of flagstones at vertical intervals of little more than a man's height. These flagstones are securely bonded into both walls, and each horizontal series passing all round the building forms a floor to the vacant space or gallery above it, and a roof to the gallery below. The stair either crosses all the galleries at one slope, or goes from one to the next by making the floor of each gallery a longer or shorter landing to the next flight of steps. The galleries are



Section of Broch of Mousa.

lighted from the court or inner area of the tower, which is open to the sky. The windows are placed in perpendicular rows, separated from each other only by the thickness of the flagstone which forms the top of one window and the sole of the next above it. No broch being now complete in its upper parts, it is not known what may have been the original height, or the actual number of superposed galleries. Mousa is still 40 feet high, and shows six galleries, and Dun Carloway, which is still 34 feet high, shows five galleries. The brochs vary considerably in size on the ground-plan, the largest known being 70 feet in diameter, and the smallest 40 feet. The average of thirty-one examples is: Exterior diameter, 55½ feet; inner area or court, 28½ feet; thickness of wall, 13½ feet. Many of them have wells within the court, or near the exterior, in which case there is usually a covered way leading to them. Some have drains passing out of the court under the wall. Some are defended by outworks, others completely surrounded by ditch and rampart. In many cases they are placed on promontories cut off from the land by a ditch, or defended by ramparts, while in other cases they are built on islets in lochs, with a causeway of stepping-stones to give access to the islet. At Clickemlin there is a gatehouse with guard-chambers at the end of the causeway. But their most remarkable feature is the persistent uniformity of plan and construction which characterises the whole, though with such diversity of detail that no two are exactly alike. Their purpose appears to have been to provide places of secure refuge for the agricultural population, to which they might have recourse with their goods and cattle while the danger of plunder and murder by marauding bands was imminent. The brochs could only be reduced by investment, and as the

marauders' object was to scour the country quickly and get away with their plunder, they could not stay to besiege such strongholds. It is on record that Mousa was once besieged by Harold, Earl of Orkney, about 1155 A.D., but the earl failed to take it, because 'it was difficult to take by assault, and the besieged had made great preparations' to enable them to hold out. The affinities of the typical structure, however, are so distinctively Celtic that none of its essential features have been observed in any construction outside of the Celtic area. The general character of the relics obtained from the systematic excavation of the brochs (of which a collection of some thousands is deposited in the Scottish National Museum) is also, clearly Celtic, and of post-Roman times. They show that the occupants cultivated grain, kept flocks and herds, and hunted the forests and fished the seas for their sustenance, that their tools and weapons were swords, spears, daggers, axes, knives, and chisels of iron, and their ornaments, rings, bracelets, pins, and brooches of brass and silver. They made these implements and ornaments themselves, as the moulds, crucibles, and cakes of rough metal found in different brochs testify. Of the bones and horns of animals they made pins, needles, bodkins, buttons, combs, spindle-whorls, and playing-dice, and many other furnishings of everyday life and industry. They made beads and bracelets of jet or lignite, and they had finer beads of variously coloured vitreous pastes, enamelled on the surface with spiral and other patterns. They also made beads and discs of highly polished stone, such as serpentine, marble, and mica-schist. From the commoner varieties of stone they made querns or hand-millstones, mortars, pestles, hammer-stones, whetstones, bowls, cups with handles, lamps, and culinary vessels of various kinds. Their pottery was often fine in shape and finely ornamented. They practised spinning and weaving to a large extent, as many as eighteen weaving-combs and thirty spindle-whorls having been found in a single broch.

For early notices of brochs, see Gordon's *Itinerarium Septentrionale* (1720); Pennant's *Tour in Scotland* (1769-72); Low's *Tour through Orkney and Shetland* in 1774, published at Kirkwall (1879); Pococke's *Tours in Scotland, 1747-60*, published at Edinburgh by the Scottish History Society (1887). For recent excavations of brochs, with plans and detailed descriptions, see *Archæologia Scotica*, vol. v., and Dr Joseph Anderson's *Scotland in Pagan Times* (1883).

Brochure, a French word (from *brocher*, 'to stitch'), equivalent to the English word Pamphlet (q.v.).

Brocken (*Mons Bructerus* of the Romans), popularly known as the *Blocksberg*, the highest summit of the Harz Mountains, is situated in Prussian Saxony, about 20 miles WSW. of Halberstadt, and has an elevation of 3740 feet above the sea. It holds an important place in the folklore of North Germany. There the pagan worship lingered long after the introduction of Christianity, and there the superstition of the 16th century annually assembled the witches on Walpurgis Night (q.v.), to hold their revels on its summit. The mountain is also interesting for the phenomenon known as the 'Spectre of the Brocken' (see MIRAGE). Two carriage-ways lead up to the hotel on the treeless, granite-strewn summit, where snow lies generally from November to June; visitors are numerous during the summer months; and in clear weather a fine view is obtained.

Brockhaus, FRIEDRICH ARNOLD, the founder of the well-known firm of Brockhaus in Leipzig, and publisher of the *Conversations-Lexikon*, was

born at Dortmund, May 4, 1772. In 1802 circumstances led him to Holland, but he returned to Germany in 1810, and in the following year commenced business in Altenburg. Before this, however (in 1808), he had purchased the copyright of the *Conversations-Lexikon*, which had been commenced by Löbel in 1796, and was completed in 1811. In 1812 a second improved edition of the work was commenced under the supervision of Brockhaus as editor. In 1817 his business had so increased that he found it necessary to leave Altenburg for Leipzig, where, in the following year, he commenced book-printing in addition to book-publishing. Through all the enterprises of Brockhaus as a publisher, a zealous devotion to the cause of liberty and general enlightenment may be traced. He died August 20, 1823. See his *Life and Letters* (3 vols. 1872-81). The business was afterwards carried on by his sons Friedrich (1800-65) and Heinrich (1804-74); from 1850 by the latter alone, and now by Heinrich-Rudolf and Heinrich-Eduard, his sons. The *Conversations-Lexikon* has continued to be a conspicuous success; its 13th ed. (for the first time illustrated), in 16 vols., was published, with a supplementary volume, 1882-87. The 4th ed. of an abridged edition of the work was published in 1885 in 2 vols. Another publication, issued by the house (since 1831), is the monumental work, *Allgemeine Encyclopädie der Wissenschaften und Künste* of Ersch and Gruber, begun in 1818, and still unfinished (168 vols. up to 1888).

HERMANN BROCKHAUS, third son of F. A. Brockhaus, was born at Amsterdam, January 28, 1806; studied at Leipzig, Göttingen, and Bonn, and lived successively in Copenhagen, Paris, London, and Oxford. From 1848 till his death, he held at Leipzig the chair of ordinary professor of the Sanskrit Language and Literature. Among his several works on oriental literature may be mentioned the edition of the Fables of Somadeva, *Kathā Sarit Sāgara* (1839-66); of the Persian version of the 'Seven Wise Masters' (1845); and of the 'Songs of Hafiz' (1854-60). He died at Leipzig, January 5, 1877.

Brockram (signifying 'broken rock') is the local name given to the breccias of Lower Permian age which occur in the north of England, or near Appleby and Kirkby-Stephen. These breccias consist largely of fragments of limestone set in a red sandy matrix, and are occasionally quarried for limestone and building-stone.

Brockton, formerly called North Bridgewater, is a post-village of Massachusetts, U.S., 20 miles S. of Boston. It manufactures boots. Pop. (1880) 8007.

Brockville, a town of Ontario, on the left bank of the St Lawrence, 125 miles SW. of Montreal. It is on the Grand Trunk and the Brockville and Ottawa railways, and a port of call for steamers on the St Lawrence. It took its name from Sir Isaac Brock (1769-1812), who fell in the battle of Queenstown. Pop. (1881) 7609.

Brodie, SIR BENJAMIN COLLINS, Bart., surgeon, was born at Winterslow Rectory, Wiltshire, in 1783. He studied under Sir Everard Home at St George's Hospital, to which he was in 1808 elected assistant-surgeon, and afterwards surgeon. He had previously lectured both on anatomy and on surgery. In 1810 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society, and in 1811 received their Copley medal. In 1834 he was created a baronet, and he held the appointment of serjeant-surgeon to Queen Victoria. He was made D.C.L. of Oxford in 1850; was president of the Royal Society, a corresponding member of the Institute of France, and a foreign member of other learned societies

and academies in Europe and America. Among his works were: *Lectures on Local Nervous Affections* (1837), *Introductory Discourse on the Duties and Conduct of Medical Students* (1843), *Psychological Inquiries as to Mental Faculties* (1854); and an *Autobiography*, forming part of the collected edition of his works (1865). He died at Broome Park, Surrey, 21st October 1862.—His son, Sir B. C. BRODIE, born in 1817, was in 1855 appointed professor of Chemistry at Oxford. He was the discoverer of graphitic acid. He died 24th November 1880.

Brody, a town of Galicia, is situated on a swampy plain, surrounded by forests, 89 miles ENE. of Lemberg by rail. The privileges which, as a free commercial town, it had enjoyed since 1779, were abolished in 1880, and its importance has somewhat diminished, although it still has a large trade in country produce. Leather and flax manufactures, breweries, refineries, and fur-dressing are carried on. The trade is almost entirely in the hands of the Jews, who form three-fourths of the inhabitants, so that Brody has been called the 'German Jerusalem.' Pop. (1880) 20,071.

Broglie, a prominent French family, of Piedmontese origin; its most important members have been the four dukes of the name: (1) FRANÇOIS MARIE, first Duc de, marshal of France, born 1671, took part in every campaign from 1689, and died in 1745.—(2) VICTOR FRANÇOIS, his son, born 1718, was the most capable of the French commanders in the Seven Years' War. Made a marshal in 1759, he entered the Russian service after the Revolution, and died in 1804.—(3) ACHILLE CHARLES LEONCE VICTOR, grandson of the last, and son of Prince Claude Victor (born 1757, guillotined 1794), born in 1785, was distinguished as a Liberal politician and an earnest advocate for the abolition of slavery. He was foreign secretary (1832-34) and prime-minister (1835-36) under Louis-Philippe; after 1851 he lived in retirement, and died in Paris, 25th January 1870. He was a member of the Academy, and published *Écrits et Discours* (3 vols. 1863), whilst the fourth and last volume of his *Souvenirs* appeared in 1887.—(4) JACQUES VICTOR ALBERT, his eldest son, born 13th June 1821, early entered the field of literature, and was elected an Academician in 1862. Returned as a deputy in 1871, he was till May 1872 ambassador at London; he then became leader of the Conservative right centre, and with a view to force a monarchical government on France, he brought about the resignation of Thiers, and the election of MacMahon, in 1873. He was twice premier—in 1873-74 and in 1877—resignation being on both occasions forced on him by Gambetta's exposure of his reactionary tactics. His most important works are his orthodox *L'Église et L'Empire Romain au IV. Siècle* (6 vols. 1856-69), *Le Secret du Roi* (3d ed. 2 vols. 1879), and two hostile works on Frederick the Great, from family papers (1882 and 1884).

Brogue (Irish and Gaelic *brog*), a light shoe formed of one piece of hide or half-tanned leather, gathered round the ankle, which was formerly much in use among the native Irish and the Scottish Highlanders, and of which there were different varieties.—The term brogue is also used to signify the peculiar pronunciation of English that distinguishes natives of Ireland.

Broiling is a convenient and expeditious mode of cooking small pieces of meat, by laying them on a gridiron over a bright fire, or even on the coals themselves. This is perhaps the most primitive mode of preparing meat for eating, as may be supposed from the great ease and simplicity with which the operation is managed. Broiling is, in fact, a quicker sort of roasting. The albumen

of the outside being sealed up at once, the meat is cooked in its own juices and rendered extremely nutritious. But to broil meat so as to preserve its odour, juice, and fat, requires care. The fire should be perfectly clear. Just before setting the gridiron over, some salt should be sprinkled on it to prevent the flare. The gridiron should be perfectly clean, and warmed and greased with suet before using. The meat should never be touched with a fork, but turned rapidly with the broiling tongs. In large ranges there should be a broiling stove, and an apparatus for broiling suited to it; by this the heat of the fire can be easily regulated. But for all ordinary purposes, a fire of charcoal, or of common coal, and a grooved gridiron, to preserve the gravy, is all that is necessary. Sometimes a gridiron is used to hang before the fire, when a dinner is being dressed and the top of the fire occupied; this is convenient, but it is an inferior way of cooking, the meat being roasted rather than broiled.

Broke. SIR PHILIP BOWES VERE, rear-admiral, born at Broke Hall, near Ipswich, 9th September 1776, entered the service in 1792, was made captain in 1801, and appointed to the *Shannon* frigate, 38 guns, in 1806. In her he fought the memorable duel with the American *Chesapeake* frigate, off Boston, 1st June 1813, which has made 'brave Broke' ever since a hero in popular English song. The Americans were confident of success, but proved no match for Broke's hardy and thoroughly disciplined men, who, after delivering with excellent effect two terrific broadsides, sprang across the gunwale, and, after a moment's struggle, ran up the English colours fifteen minutes after the commencement of the action. A blow received in boarding seriously affected his health, and he retired from active service with a baronetcy. He died in London, 21 January 1841. See his *Life* by Dr Brighton (1866).

Broken Knees. The part commonly termed the knee of the horse corresponds to the carpus or wrist of man, and from the peculiar conformation of a quadruped, is much exposed, and liable to serious injury. By *broken knee* is meant the abrasion or more serious injury of the front of the joint by a fall; and if, even after the wound has healed, the scar remains to indicate that the horse has once fallen, and is 'broken-kneed,' then that horse is regarded as unsafe, unsound, and is seriously deteriorated in value.

A horse may fall from various causes: (1) Defective conformation, which induces 'speedy cutting' and 'brushing,' consequently pain and falling; (2) diseases of the feet, either intrinsic or extrinsic, causing the animal to shuffle more or less in its gait, and to stumble; (3) brain affection, causing a sudden stumble and fall; (4) accident pure and simple, such as putting the foot on a large stone or broken post in the ground. See **SHOEING OF HORSES.**

After a fall, it is important at once to determine the extent and depth of the wound. If it be merely a superficial wound, the case is a simple one; and unless the skin is much bruised, the hair will grow, and the animal not be permanently blemished. The sheath, however, through which the tendon over the joint passes, may be opened, and the tendon itself injured. The wound is then gaping, heals rather slowly, and sloughs are thrown off. Lastly, the joint itself may be opened, and this is indicated by a discharge of the joint-oil or synovium, and by the bones being seen. The worst form of accident is that when the bones of the joint are fractured. The system suffers when the wounds are serious, and severe fever sets in.

In treatment, first cleanse the wound by pouring

or squeezing from a sponge warm water on it, and ascertain by looking, but not by probing, the extent of the injury. If the injury be slight and no joint-oil escape, tie the animal's head to the pillar reins, to keep it from lying down, and from injuring the part by knocking it against the wall or manger. Give opening medicine, bran mash, and a little hay or grass. Dress the wound daily with antiseptic lotions or with antiseptic lint. If the injury be a serious one, and is accompanied by fever, the animal must be at once placed in 'slings,' and in addition to the before-mentioned treatment should receive febrifuges and anodynes. When the bones are broken, the animal should be destroyed. When the wound is thoroughly healed, the hair may not grow rapidly, nor may the swelling disappear; in this case its production may be accelerated by the use of a mild cantharidine ointment, which should act as an irritant, but not as a blister. In some cases of severe broken knee, it is advisable to fix the limb so that the animal may not move the joint. In veterinary jurisprudence, a broken knee is regarded as a *blemish*, not as an unsoundness. An animal once broken-kneed never thoroughly regains its previous action.

Broken Wind is a disease or unsoundness of the respiratory organs of the horse, which was termed by some old English writers *puriness*. The nature of the malady is of a reflex, nervous origin, and appears in the form of difficulty in the act of expiration, the horse making an extraordinary or second effort to expel from the lungs the air which has readily entered them during inspiration.

A broken-winded horse is usually an animal that does not thrive, is lean, and has a dependent belly, the muscles of which are unusually active as expiratory muscles. The characteristic symptoms are best observed when the horse is exercised, the breathing becoming very laboured, the nostrils dilated, the eyes bloodshot, and even blue, showing imperfect purification of blood in the lungs. On watching the chest and flank, the expiratory effort is seen to be double, the animal taking two jerks to expel the air from the lungs. A broken-winded horse has a cough, which is low and hardly heard at a distance of a few yards, and which is usually accompanied by the passage of flatus from the anus. When the animal is oppressed by fast work, or dragging a load up a hill, the pulse is excessively rapid, and the heart beats energetically.

Low-bred horses are liable to broken wind, especially if improperly fed on innutritious and bulky food, and at the same time kept at hard and fast work. It is a dietetic disease, and is due to the irritation in the stomach, caused by indigestible food, being reflected from the nerves of the stomach to those of the lungs—in the same way as with ourselves, disease in one tooth seems to set all the other teeth aching. As a matter of fact the nerves of the stomach and lungs have a common origin, and consequently are easily affected one through the other. This indirect irritation causes firstly spasm, and later on relaxation of the little muscles around the air-tubes; consequently too much air gets into the lungs, and causes pressure on the walls of the air-vesicles, terminating in wasting and rupture of them. The result of the destruction of air-vesicles is a lessened area for the aeration of the blood, and is followed by debility and loss of condition. On post-mortem examination we find the stomach much distended with food of a dry nature, and its walls thinned. The lungs are lighter in colour, and float much more buoyantly than in health; little or no blood is seen in them, but they contain a large quantity of air, which makes them crackle when pressed.

The treatment of broken wind is very unsatisfactory; and we can only hope for mitigation of the symptoms by keeping the alimentary canal in proper order, administering occasional purgatives, and feeding on a proper quantity of the best oats, which should always be bruised; also by allowing the horse the best hay in spare quantities—viz. from 10 to 12 lb. daily. We may say that broken wind is incurable; and horses very frequently drop down exhausted when at hard work, and die either from congestion of the lungs, hemorrhage, or simple suffocation.

Broken wind is so bad a form of unsoundness, that horse-dealers sometimes attempt, and even successfully, to hide the defect at the time of the sale, and this they do by causing the animal to swallow *shot or grease*. A certain portion of lead weighing in the stomach has a wonderful effect in diminishing the symptoms, which become again obvious enough a few hours after the ruse has been practised on some unwary purchaser.

Broker, an agent employed to make bargains and contracts between other persons, in matters of commerce, for a compensation commonly called brokerage. A broker usually confines his attention to one particular market, as wool, sugar, or iron, and the special knowledge he thus acquires renders his services useful to the general merchant, who has no such intimate acquaintance with the trade. The broker is strictly a middle-man, or intermediate negotiator between the parties, finding buyers or sellers as required. He does not act in his own name, nor has he generally the custody of the goods in which he deals, thus differing from a factor, and he cannot sell publicly like an auctioneer. He is treated as the agent of both parties, though primarily he is deemed the agent of the party by whom he is originally employed. Besides ordinary commercial brokers, there are several other sorts, such as Stock-brokers (see STOCK-EXCHANGE), Share-brokers, Ship-brokers, Insurance-brokers, and Bill-brokers (q.v.). Persons who deal in old furniture and sell and distrain furniture for rent, are also called brokers, although differing entirely in their occupations from the preceding commercial agents. The business of a Pawnbroker (q.v.) is also of a different nature.

Brokers in London must be admitted by the lord mayor and aldermen, paying £5 on admission, and a like sum annually, under a penalty of £100; but they are not otherwise subject to the control of the Court of Aldermen. They are termed sworn or licensed brokers, and a list is kept by the city of brokers admitted, and of those who have been convicted of fraud or disqualified (33 and 34 Vict. chap. 60).

By the Larceny Consolidation Act, 24 and 25 Vict. chap. 96, sect. 76, it is enacted that any person who, being a banker, merchant, broker, attorney, or agent, and being intrusted for safe custody with the property of any other persons, shall in any manner convert or appropriate it to his own use, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and be liable to be kept in penal servitude from five to seven years, or to suffer some other punishment, by imprisonment for not more than two years, with hard labour or confinement. See FACTOR.

Brokerage is the remuneration or compensation allowed to a Broker (q.v.).

Bromberg, a town in the Prussian province of Posen, on the Brahe, 6 miles from its influx to the Vistula, and 99 miles SSW. of Danzig by rail. It has iron-foundries, machine-shops, and manufactures of cloth and paper, distilleries, breweries, and corn-mills. There is a considerable provincial trade both by shipping and railway. The *Brom-*

berg Canal, 17 miles long, by uniting the rivers Netz and Brahe, connects the Oder and Elbe with the Vistula. Pop. (1843) 8878; (1885) 36,294.

Brome, RICHARD, a minor dramatist, of whose life but little is known save that he was of humble origin, having been in his earlier days servant to Ben Jonson, that he lived in familiar friendship with Dekker, Ford, and Shirley, wrote as many as twenty-four popular plays, was a devout believer, though a hater of Presbyterians and Puritans, and died about 1652. His best plays are *The Northern Lass*, a comedy, written mostly in prose, and *The Jovial Crew*. The revival of the latter in 1819 delighted Charles Lamb, who speaks with enthusiastic warmth of this 'protest in favour of air, and clear liberty, and honest license, and blameless assertion of man's original blest charter of blue skies, and vagrancy, and nothing-to-do.' Other plays are *The Lancashire Witches*, written in collaboration with Heywood, *The Court Beggars*, and *The Queen and Concubine*. Brome was a poor poet, and the lyrics interspersed in the plays are very indifferent verse; some fair lines of his in memory of Fletcher are in the 1647 folio of Beaumont and Fletcher. Brome's dramatic works were reprinted in 3 vols. in 1873. See vol. ii. of Ward's *History of English Dramatic Literature* (1875).

Brome-grass (*Bromus*; Gr. *bromos*, 'a kind of oat'), a genus of grasses, very nearly allied to *Fesene* (q.v.). The species are numerous, and some of them are very common British grasses—none more so than the Soft Brome (*B. mollis*), an annual or biennial, which has very soft downy leaves, grows well on poor soils, and is readily



Brome-grass.

eaten by cattle, but is not much esteemed by farmers, either for the quantity or quality of fodder which it yields. The seeds of some species are unwholesome. *B. secalinus* (rye brome-grass) is a troublesome weed, especially in rye-fields, whence the legends of the transmutations of rye into brome through supernatural agencies. See GRASSES, and PASTURE.

Bromelia'ceæ, an order of monocotyledonous plants, allied to Amaryllidaceæ and Iridaceæ, and of course to Liliaceæ (q.v.), of which, in the larger sense, many systematists reckon all these mere sub-orders. They most resemble Amaryllidaceæ (with which they are practically continuous through *Agave*), but are usually distinguished by their

perianth-whorls differentiated as calyx and corolla, and by their habit. They are usually short stemmed, with close-set long rigid leaves, often spiny or scaly, channelled and sheathing at the base. The species are all natives of the warmer parts of America, although some of them are now naturalised both in Asia and Africa. The best-known plant of the order, and the only one much valued for its fruit, is the Pine-apple (q.v.). Some species, with their strong spiny leaves, form impenetrable thickets. Many of them are epiphytic, or grow upon trees without being parasites, and are often called air-plants. *Tillandsia usneoides*, Beard Moss or Spaniards' Beard of the West Indies and of the southern parts of the United States and Mexico, hangs from the trees like the lichens of colder climates; and gives the foliage of the cypress-groves, where it occurs, a peculiar and melancholy picturesqueness. Many species are known in cultivation, and grown suspended from balconies in South America, or greenhouse roofs in this country, chiefly on account of their peculiar mode of vegetation, sometimes although their flowers are often beautiful and fragrant. Many species are also cultivated as ornamental stove-plants. Species of this order also furnish valuable fibres. *Tillandsia usneoides*, already mentioned, yields a fibre, easily obtained and in great abundance, which is used instead of hair for stuffing mattresses. The fibres of the leaves of the pine-apple, and of some other species of this order, have been made into fabrics resembling the finest white muslin, whilst they are found also to possess sufficient strength for cordage. The produce of different species of *Bromelia* is often included along with that of the American Aloe or *Agave* (q.v.), under the name of *Pita* fibre or *Pita* flax, the appearance and properties of the fibres being very similar, as well as those also of the fibres of the species of *Yucca*. The fibre of the pine-apple is, in some countries, very frequently twisted into fishing-lines, and made into nets and into ropes intended for immersion in water, being very little liable to injury from this cause.—The pine-apple cloth of the Philippines, called *Pina muslin* and *Batiste d'ananas*, also sometimes erroneously called *grass-cloth*, from which it may be distinguished by its untwisted fibres (see *BEHMERIA*), is obtained from small-fruited varieties of this and allied species—e.g. *Billbergia orata*.—The fruit of *B. pinguin*, the Wild Ananas of the West Indies, affords a beverage employed in various ailments.

Bromic Acid, HBrO_3 , is the best-known compound of bromine and oxygen. It is prepared pure by acting on bromine, Br , with bromate of silver, AgBrO_3 , when bromide of silver and bromic acid are produced. Bromic acid is a very unstable acid, being readily decomposed by reducing agents. It forms a whole series of salts called Bromates, none of which are of importance. They are mostly crystalline, but their watery solutions readily decompose when evaporated. When heated, they liberate oxygen and form bromides (see *BROMINE*). Mixed with sulphur or charcoal, they explode by percussion, and in this and other properties resemble the chlorates. See *CHLORIC ACID*.

Bromine (Gr. *bromos*, 'disagreeable smell : ' sym. Br ; atomic weight, 80), one of the elements, occurs in combination in sea-water to the extent of about 1 grain to the gallon. It is found more abundantly in certain saline springs, especially those at Kreuznach and Kissingen in Germany. It is also present in marine and land plants and animals. In the extraction of bromine from concentrated sea-water, from which common salt has been separated in quantity, and which is then called *Bittern* (q.v.), or from salt springs, the liquor—which contains the bromine, as bromide

of magnesium, MgBr_2 —has a stream of chlorine gas, Cl , passed through it, which forms chloride of magnesium, MgCl_2 , and liberates the bromine. The liquid thus becomes of a more or less yellow tint, and if it be then agitated with ether, and allowed to settle, the latter floats up the bromine. The ethereal solution is then treated with potash, which principally forms bromide of potassium, KBr , and fixes the bromine, so that the ether may be distilled off. The residue is then treated with oxide of manganese and sulphuric acid in a retort with heat, which results in the liberation and distillation of pure bromine. Bromine is a deep red liquid of density 2.98 at 59° (15°C.), which readily evolves red fumes of a very irritating and suffocating nature. It is very poisonous, acting by destroying the animal tissues. When even a little of its vapour is inhaled, there is danger of spasm of the glottis and consequent suffocation. In medicine it has been found of service internally in scrofulous diseases, and as an application to ulcers or in hospital gangrene. It is sparingly soluble in water, more so in alcohol and ether, and its watery solution possesses great bleaching properties. When raised to the temperature of 145.4° (63°C.) it boils, and when reduced to 9.5° (-12.5°C.) it becomes a red crystalline solid. Treated with sulphuretted hydrogen, bromine yields hydrobromic acid, HBr , which is the analogue of hydrochloric acid, as bromine is of chlorine.

Bromides.—Bromine combines very rapidly with most of the metals, occasionally so as to cause ignition, as in the case of antimony, and forms a class of salts usually known as bromides, though perhaps they are rather hydrobromides (see *HYDROBROMIC ACID*). Bromide of silver, which is very sensitive to the sun's rays, is used in photography. Bromide of potassium, which is the most important of the bromides, may be prepared by the action of bromine on solution of caustic potash. The whole is then evaporated to dryness, and ignited along with charcoal. On solution in water and crystallisation, the bromide is obtained in colourless, cubical crystals, possessing a pungent saline taste, and which are very soluble in water. This salt has been used in a very large number of diseases, owing to its powerful sedative properties. Other bromides (such as those of sodium and lithium) are of comparatively little importance, although they possess similar medicinal properties. Hydrobromic acid combines with these the tonic effects of hydrochloric acid. In epilepsy, bromide of potassium affords marked relief. As a sedative in nervous excitement and sleeplessness, its use produces beneficial results, while in delirium tremens and tetanus large doses give relief. In excessively large doses, general depression, lowering of the temperature, and even death may result. And it should be known and remembered that the administration of bromine compounds in large doses and for long periods often leads to unpleasant effects, collectively termed *bromism*. The earliest and most common are skin eruptions, resembling Acne (q.v.) or boils; the further results are due to diminished activity of the nervous system—viz. lassitude, low spirits, weakened brain power, &c. All these symptoms soon disappear when the use of the drug is discontinued.

Bromley, a market-town of Kent, on the Ravensbourne, 10 miles SE. of London. Long the residence of the bishops of Rochester, it has a town-hall (1864), a college for clergymen's widows (1866), and a church, with the grave of Dr Johnson's wife. Pop. of parish (1851) 4127; (1881) 15,154.

Brompton is a district of London in the parish of Kensington, SW. Part of what was once Brompton is now known as South Kensington.

Brompton, once specially a quarter for artists, contains a fine consumption hospital and the Oratory (q.v.).

Brom'sebro, a village and castle of Sweden, 27 miles S. of Kalmar. Treaties were signed here between Sweden and Denmark in 1541, 1641, and 1645.

Bromsgrove, a market-town of Worcestershire, near the small river Salwarp, 12 miles NNE. of Worcester, and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile from a station on the Birmingham and Gloucester Railway. Situated in a richly wooded valley, it has a principal street a mile in length, a grammar-school (1553; re-founded 1693), and a fine old church, restored by Sir Gilbert Scott in 1858, with a spire 189 feet high, and monuments of the Talbots. The linen manufacture has been superseded by nail and button making. Pop. (1851) 4426; (1881) 7960.

Bromwich. See WEST BROMWICH.

Bronchi are the subdivisions of the trachea or windpipe. Opposite the third dorsal vertebra, the windpipe divides into two branches or bronchi, of similar structure to itself—namely, round and cartilaginous in front; and flat, with muscular and fibrous tissue behind, lined with mucous membrane. Of these bronchi, one goes to each lung, the right being little more than an inch; the left, about two inches in length. On entering the substance of the lung, the bronchi divide into smaller branches, which again subdivide, until they are no larger in diameter than $\frac{1}{16}$ th to $\frac{1}{32}$ th of an inch, and give origin to, or terminate in, small polyhedral sacs, which seem to cluster round their extremities, and open into them. These are the *air-cells*; they consist of elastic tissue, with a lining of mucous membrane, and beneath the latter, a layer of minute blood-vessels of the lung. See LUNGS, RESPIRATION.

Bronchitis, or inflammation of the lining membrane of the bronchial tubes, is a disease of very common occurrence in Great Britain and in the United States, and one of the greatest importance, for, though in most cases completely recovered from, it may, if carelessly treated, lead to premature and miserable old age, or even in some cases to speedy death. Moreover, besides occurring independently, it is an extremely common complication in other diseases—e.g. in fevers, and in affections of the heart or kidney. It is usually caused by exposure to cold; but persons whose occupations expose them to the constant inhalation of irritating dust (masons, needle-grinders, and many others), often suffer from a form of bronchitis which is extremely apt to lead to disease of the lungs. The first symptoms of acute bronchitis are generally those which distinguish a common cold—viz. shivering, headache, and sense of weariness, with occasional cough; but the cough continues, and recurs in paroxysms; there is a feeling of oppression on the chest and pain behind the breastbone on coughing, and the person *whoezes* when he breathes. He also breathes more rapidly, six or ten respirations in the minute more than he did when in health, his pulse is quicker, and his temperature a little above normal; and the ear applied to his chest, after these symptoms have continued for two or three days, will hear a rattling, as if air was bubbling through thickish fluid, which indeed is the case; he is breathing through an extraordinary amount of mucus secreted by the inflamed lining membrane of the tubes. During his paroxysms of cough, this mucus is spit up. If the inflammation extend no further than the larger bronchial tubes, it is termed *tubular* bronchitis, and is seldom a fatal disease in the first attack. When the minute ramifications of the bronchial tubes are chiefly or alone affected, either from the

first or by downward extension of the inflammation, the danger to life is very great; this form is called *capillary* bronchitis, and is most often seen in children, though happily less frequently than tubular bronchitis. In such a case, the cough and associated pain may be less severe, but all the other symptoms—feverishness, distress, prostration, &c.—are much more intense than in the milder form. The breathing may be so embarrassed that the patient can no longer lie down, but requires to sit or stand up, and use all his muscles of respiration. Though he coughs, he spits very little, till about the third day, when he expectorates large quantities of yellow fluid. At last, prostration becomes so complete that he ceases to spit, and dies suffocated by the accumulated mucus, from the fifth to the seventh day.

A patient who has once had acute bronchitis is very apt to suffer from it again, and after one or many attacks the disease may become chronic. *Chronic* bronchitis leads to important structural changes in the lungs, especially Emphysema (q.v.), to consequent embarrassment of the respiration and circulation, with secondary changes in other organs, and is generally fatal, though, it may be, not for many years. The patient is always liable to severer attacks, much resembling acute bronchitis, and often induced by very slight causes.

The treatment of bronchitis must vary with the patient's constitution; but in most cases, counter-irritation, applied through the medium of mustard or hot turpentine fomentations, will be found very useful. These remedies act more rapidly than a blister, and may be frequently repeated. It is of the greatest importance that the patient should remain in a warm, equable, and moist atmosphere. In the early stages, before free expectoration is established, ipecacuanha is generally the most useful remedy; but it should be remembered that patients suffering from bronchitis are very easily depressed, especially after the first few days, and then stimulating expectorants, such as ammonia, squills, balsams, should be added. In very acute cases, after a brisk purge, an emetic is often very useful to remove accumulations of mucus. In some cases of bronchitis, the persistence of the disease depends upon some constitutional weakness (gout, syphilis, &c.); and no treatment will effect a cure unless it include remedies for the particular condition which may be present.

In chronic bronchitis, avoidance of the causes which lead to 'catching cold' is of the utmost importance. Residence during the winter in a mild, equable climate, or confinement to a well-warmed house, is sometimes the only measure that will be of much service. The exacerbations must be treated on the same principles as acute bronchitis. In the bronchitis of old persons, chloric ether will be found very useful, and may be combined with sedatives, as henbane; but opium must be given with great caution, or not at all, as it tends to diminish the expectoration of mucus from inflamed tubes. The pectoric elixir (compound tincture of camphor) is an old and popular remedy in bronchitis, but enough has been said to impress on the reader the danger of tampering with bronchitis. In every case where it is possible, a skilled medical man should be employed, to determine, by the stethoscope, not only the disease but its exact situation and cause; and as it is but too likely to recur at some future period, or symptoms caused by it to appear, a skilled opinion has a permanent value to the patient. See CATARRH.

Bronchocele. See GOITRE.

Bröndsted, PETER OLUF, a Danish archaeologist, born near Horsens, in Jutland, 1780, studied at Copenhagen, where in 1813, after some years

spent in travels and excavations in Italy and Greece, he was appointed extraordinary professor of Philology. Returning to Rome in 1818 as agent of the Danish government, he was enabled to carry on his researches for several years. He died rector of the Copenhagen University in 1842. Brøndsted's principal work is his *Reisen und Untersuchungen in Græckenland* (Stuttgart, 1826-30), of which only 2 vols. were published.

Brongniart, ALEXANDRE, an eminent French scientist, born at Paris, 1770, became in 1797 professor of Natural History at the École des Quatre Nations, and afterwards in the Museum of Natural History. Appointed in 1800 director of the porcelain manufactory at Sèvres, he held that office for the remainder of his life, and revived the almost lost art of painting on glass. In his *Essai d'une Classification des Reptiles* (1805), he proposed the fourfold division of reptiles into Saurians, Batrachians, Chelonians, and Ophidians. His *Traité Élémentaire de Minéralogie*, published in 1807 at the instance of the Imperial University, became a text-book for lecturers. In 1814 appeared his monograph on Trilobites, a name which, as well as a basis of classification for those singular crustacea, naturalists owe to Brongniart. In 1815 he was elected a member of the Academy, and shortly after made a careful study of the geology of Italy and Switzerland, and of Scandinavia. In 1829 he published the *Tableau des Terrains qui composent l'Écorce du Globe*, and in 1835 he collaborated with Cuvier in preparing the admirable *Description Géologique et Minéralogique des Environs de Paris*. In 1845 appeared his *Traité des Arts Céramiques*. He died October 7, 1847.—His son, ADOLPHE THÉODORE, was a botanist of some note. He was born in Paris (1801), in 1833 became professor of Botany at the Jardin des Plantes, and in 1852 was made inspector-general of the Scientific Faculties of France. He died in 1876. His principal work is the *Histoire des Végétaux Fossiles* (2 vols. 1828-47).

Broni, a town of Northern Italy, with mineral springs, 11 miles SE. of Pavia. Near by is the castle of Broni, where Prince Eugène obtained a victory over the French in 1703. Pop. (1881) 5147.

Bronn, HEINRICH GEORG, a German naturalist, born at Ziegelhausen, 1800, was educated at Heidelberg, where in 1828 he commenced a course of lectures on natural history and palæontology. In 1833 he was nominated professor of Physics, and was afterwards appointed to the zoological lectureship. In 1834 appeared his most important geological work, *Lehrbuch Geognostica*; in 1841-49 his *Geschichte der Natur*; and in 1850 his *Allgemeine Zoologie*, which was the first attempt to develop zoology in its entirety with reference to extinct organisms. Bronn died 5th July 1862.

Brontë, a town of Sicily, situated at the western base of Mount Etna, 33 miles NW. of Catania. The lava streams of 1651 and 1843 lie on either side, but the district around is fertile, and produces wine. Lord Nelson was created Duke of Bronte by the Neapolitan government in 1799. Pop. (1881) 16,427.

Brontë, CHARLOTTE, one of the most gifted English novelists, was born at Thornton, in Yorkshire, on the 21st April 1816. Her father, originally Patrick Prunty (1777-1861), who was a clergyman, belonged to Ireland; her mother was a native of Cornwall. Her life almost to its close was one of sorrow and struggle. In 1821 the family removed to the parsonage of Haworth, a village situated amid the Yorkshire moors, and in the following year Charlotte's mother died. In her eighth year she was sent to Cowan's Bridge School, the Lowood of which she has given so dark a picture

in *Jane Eyre*. After the deaths of two of her sisters at Cowan's Bridge, Charlotte, whose health had broken down, was taken back to Haworth, and remained there until 1831, when she was sent to a school at Roehead kept by Miss Wooler, with whom she formed a lifelong friendship. Mr Brontë's austere and gloomy nature cast a shadow over his children's lives. His means were narrow, and his daughters, Charlotte, Emily (born 1818), and Anne (born 1820), were forced to seek a livelihood as governesses. To fit themselves for higher educational work, Charlotte and Emily studied at Brussels, where they lived in a *pension* from 1842 to 1844. In 1846 the three sisters published a volume of poems bearing on its title-page the names Currer, Ellis, and Acton Bell—Currer Bell being the pseudonym of Charlotte. The book attracted little notice. Its authors then turned to prose fiction: Charlotte writing *The Professor*; Anne, *Agnes Grey*; and Emily ('Ellis Bell'), the strange, moving romance of *Wuthering Heights*. *The Professor* having been rejected on the score of deficiency in plot-interest, Charlotte set to work upon *Jane Eyre*, which was published in 1847, and gained a great but not an uncontested success. Her sister Emily and her brother Branwell died in 1848, and after the death of Anne, in the following year, Charlotte was left alone with her father in the gloomy Haworth parsonage. A third novel, *Shirley*, appeared in 1849, and in 1852 *Villette*, which was her own favourite book, and which contains in Paul Emmanuel the best character she ever drew, was given to the world. She was married in 1854 to Mr Nicholls, who had been her father's curate at Haworth. Her brief married life was a happy one, though her husband had no sympathy with her in her literary work, which, indeed, he would have preferred her to abandon. A new story, *Emma*, had been begun, however, before her death, which occurred on March 31, 1855. Her life and writings are very closely connected. She is herself the heroine of *Jane Eyre* and of *Villette*, while *Shirley* was intended for the portrait of her sister Emily. Her range was not wide, but in imaginative strength her stories rank with the greatest in literature. Her peculiar power lies in delineating and in suggesting intense passion without having recourse to unusual or exciting situations. Except in part of *Jane Eyre*, where she endeavoured, against the bent of her genius, to construct a sensational plot, her scenes and incidents are those of uneventful, everyday life. Her style, though unequally sustained, is at its best admirably terse and vivid. Emily Brontë revealed in *Wuthering Heights* a genius in some ways higher and finer, though far less mature than Charlotte's. The story is as wild as a dream; but the strange, passionate figures are the creations of a daring and fiery imagination, and the beautiful descriptions of moorland scenery have hardly been surpassed as instances of the dramatic treatment of landscape in fiction. See *The Life of Charlotte Brontë*, by Mrs Gaskell (1857); *A Note on Charlotte Brontë*, by A. C. Swinburne (1877); *Charlotte Brontë, a Monograph*, by T. W. Reid (1877); A. Mary F. Robinson's study on Emily (1883), and Augustine Birrell's on Charlotte (1887).

Bronze. It is usual to speak of bronze as an alloy of copper and tin. But neither ancient nor modern bronzes can be said to consist always of only these two metals. In many instances, zinc, lead, and even silver, are found in Greek and Roman bronze objects, although the general result of analysis of these shows a composition of from 80 to 90 parts copper to 10 or 12 of tin. Some of the fine French bronze statues of the time of the Renaissance are made of an alloy of nearly this composition—copper 92, tin 2, zinc 5, lead 1. Much of our

modern statuary consists of bronze varying from 10 parts copper to 1 of tin—a proportion recommended by Sir H. Davy—to 8 parts copper plus 2 of tin. Some zinc or lead, or both, as well as other metals, are occasionally substituted for part of the tin.

Mr W. Graham has classified the alloys of copper and tin in this way: 12 to 20 parts copper with 1 of tin yield red-coloured alloys; 5 to 10 parts copper with one of tin yield alloys of strength; 2 to 4 parts copper with 1 of tin yield alloys of sound (bell-metal); $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 part copper with 1 of tin yield alloys of reflection (speculum metal). The alloys of strength here referred to include the bronze used for statues, and also that, sometimes called gun-metal, employed for bearings and other parts of machinery, as well as the alloys of which cannon are, or perhaps we should rather say were, made. A good deal of the bronze for all three purposes is very similar in composition.

A bulky and valuable volume of reports on the strength and other properties of metals for cannon, by officers of the Ordnance Department of the United States Army, published in 1856 (H. C. Baird, Philadelphia), contains a section on the manufacture of bronze guns. The bronze used in casting the various guns tested was of the same composition—namely, copper 8 parts, tin 1 part. It had a mean density of 8.519, and an average tenacity of 27,793 lb. per square inch. It is clearly seen by the results of these experiments, that bronze made of the same mixture may vary considerably in its quality. The report states that 'the same kind of copper, and of tin, mixed in the same proportions, and melted in like manner, was used in all the castings; yet the table exhibits a remarkable diversity in the results.'

General Uchatius (1811–81) of Vienna devised a plan of hardening Austrian bronze guns by forcing hardened steel pistons into them. The metal is then called *steel bronze*.

Alloys of copper, tin, and zinc, employed for parts of engines and other machinery, are frequently called brass, as well as gun-metal, and are referred to under the head BRASS; and see ALUMINIUM.

History.—The brass referred to in the Bible was no doubt bronze (see BRASS). The Egyptians, Greeks, Etruscans, Romans, and other ancient nations, employed bronze not only for art objects pure and simple, but for a great number of useful articles, very many of these, however, being artistically decorated. The magnificent collection of bronzes in the National Museum at Naples shows, almost at a glance, how extensive was the use of this alloy for articles of daily and domestic use. It is believed that both the Greeks and Romans, for such objects as swords, spears, saws, razors, and other tools, were able to make an alloy of copper and tin which surpassed modern bronze in some properties, and that they possessed some method of tempering bronze, the secret of which has been lost. See BED, LAMP, MIRROR, SCULPTURE, SWORD, and VASE.

Reference is made in the next article to the use of bronze in northern countries in prehistoric times during the Bronze Age. Bronze has been used from early times for statues and statuettes, chiefly representations of deities, as well as for ornamental purposes, in India and China. The Japanese, who are very clever workers in inlaid metals, make bronze of several colours, such as black, blue, purple, and green. These are all different mixtures.

Phosphor-bronze.—It is difficult to make ordinary bronze a quite homogeneous compound. An alloy more perfect in this respect is formed when copper is mixed with tin phosphide instead of metallic tin. The phosphorus, which is added to the extent of from 0.25 to 2.5 per cent., makes the bronze harder, more elastic, and of greater tenacity. This alloy

suits best for machinery purposes, for which it is now largely employed, when the proportion of tin is from 7 to 8 per cent. Phosphor-bronze is used for bearings of shafts, piston-rings, pump-rods, propellers, boiler-fittings, and other parts of engineering work. Ornamental castings are also made of it. See CAST, FOUNDRY, and BRASS.

Bronze Age, a term in prehistoric archaeology, denoting the condition or stage of culture of a

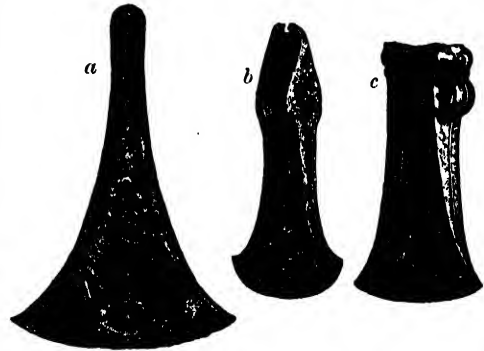


Fig. 1.—Bronze Axes :
a, flat, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length; b, flanged, 6 inches; c, socketed, 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches.

people using bronze as the material for cutting-implements and weapons. As a stage of culture, it comes in between the use of stone and the use of iron for these purposes. It is not an absolute

division of time, but a relative condition of culture, which in some areas may have been reached earlier, in others later, while in some it may have been prolonged, and in others brief, or even, as in the Polynesian area, it may have been non-existent in consequence of the people passing directly from the use of stone to that of iron. A bronze-age people in one region may thus have been contemporary with a stone-age people in another, and with an iron-age people in a third; that is to say, the succession of the three ages was not necessarily synchronous, either in contiguous or in widely separated areas. The Homeric poems depict the culture of a people passing from the use of bronze to that of iron. The Mexicans and Peruvians, on the other hand, were still in their bronze age in recent times. The bronze age of Europe generally is marked by the use of certain forms of implements and weapons, as well as by certain conditions of life and customs of burial, which differed from those of the preceding age of stone and of the succeeding age of iron.

The implements and weapons of the bronze age include knives, saws, sickles, awls, gouges, hammers, anvils, axes (fig. 1), swords, daggers (fig. 2), spears (fig. 3), arrows, shields (fig. 4). The forms of each class differ in different areas, and vary with advancing time. Blades and axes,

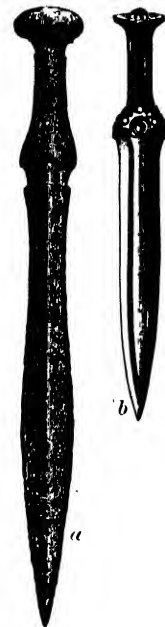


Fig. 2.
a, Bronze sword found in Edinburgh, 20 inches in length; b, Danish bronze dagger, 13 inches in length.

which were at first made with tangs to be inserted in the handles, became socketed for the insertion of the handles; and articles which it was at first the custom to finish in the mould were finished with the hammer, and shields, and vessels made of hammered

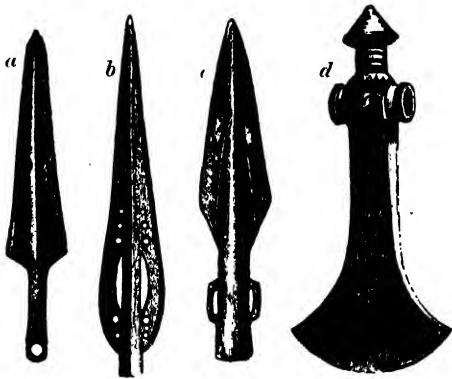


Fig. 3.

"a, Tanged bronze spear-head, 10 1/2 inches in length; b, socketed bronze spear-head, 19 inches; c, looped bronze spear-head, 9 inches in length; d, Danish battle-axe, 15 inches.

plates were ornamented with chasing and repoussé work. The ornamentation of the bronze age consists chiefly of concentric circles, spirals, and bosses. The workmanship is always of a very high order, the shapes graceful, and the finish fine. The moulds used for casting were of stone, or bronze, or clay. The system of coring was carried to great

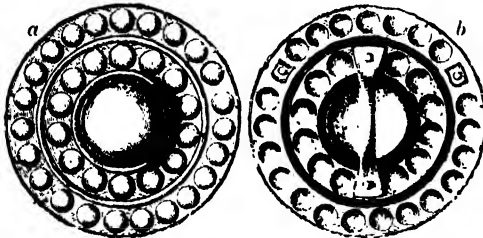


Fig. 4.

Bronze shield (a, front; b, back view), 13 1/2 inches in diameter.

perfection, and many of the more difficult castings were turned out in a manner that would do credit to the most expert of modern workmen. The composition of the bronze varied considerably, but may be stated in general as about 90 per cent. of copper to 10 per cent. of tin. See Evans's *Bronze Implements of Great Britain*; Chantre's *Age du Bronze en France*; Anderson's *Scotland in Pagan Times* (2d series, *The Bronze and Stone Ages*, 1886); and works named under ARCHEOLOGY.

Bronze-wing and **Bronze Pigeon**, names given in the Australian colonies to certain kinds of wild pigeon, on account of the lustrous bronze colour with which their wings are variously marked. In other respects also they are beautiful birds.—The Common Bronze-wing or Bronze-winged Ground Dove (*Phaps chalcoptera*) is distributed over all the Australian colonies. It is often seen in flocks, feeds on the ground, and builds its nest chiefly on low branches of trees growing on meadow-lands or near water. It often flies long distances to water, and may be followed as a guide. It is a plump bird, often weighing fully a pound, and is acceptable at every table.—The

Brush Bronze-wing or Little Bronze Pigeon (*P. elegans*) is not so plentiful nor so widely distributed, found chiefly in Tasmania and the southern parts of Australia. It inhabits low swampy grounds, never perches on trees, resembles a partridge in its habits, and makes a loud burring noise like a partridge when it takes wing on being alarmed.—The Harlequin Bronze-wing (*P. histrionica*) is found in the north-western parts of New South Wales in great flocks, feeding on seeds.—Some of the species of *Ocyphaps*, another of the genera or sub-genera of the Columbidae, are also sometimes called Bronze-wing. Their partridge-like appearance and habits have gained for them the name of Partridge Pigeon (see PIGEON, COLUMBIDÆ).

Bronzing. An imitation of bronze may be produced on the surface of other alloys and metals either by corrosive chemical solutions, which is the most efficient way, or by coating them with varnish and bronze powder. In most large towns bronzing-liquor for brass and zinc can be purchased where chemicals are sold. Bronzing is very largely applied to brass-works of various kinds, and especially to gas-fittings. For this purpose the following solutions are used, but the brass is first pickled with nitric acid and scoured with sand and water, or it may be treated with a potash solution.

For dark olive-green bronze, muriatic acid and arsenic; sometimes iron scales are added. Afterwards brush with black lead and coat with yellow lacquer. For steel-gray bronze, boiling solution of chloride of arsenic. For brown bronze, solution of the nitrate or perchloride of iron. For black bronze, solution of the chloride of platinum. To produce on new bronze an imitation of the patina on an antique bronze, a mixture in hot water of sal-ammoniac, cream of tartar, common salt, and nitrate of copper is used. Salt of sorrel, sal-ammoniac, and vinegar is another mixture employed.

Iron castings are very effectively bronzed by covering them with an electro deposit of copper in the form of a thin film or layer, which can then be darkened by any of the chemical bronzing solutions, and either lacquered or varnished. The copper surface is often simply varnished. Many beautiful foreign statuettes in zinc are also bronzed in this way. See ELECTRO-METALLURGY.

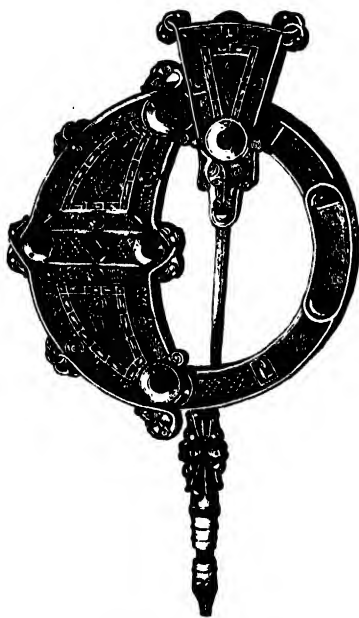
A brown colour, sometimes called a *bronzing*, is given to the surface of iron and steel objects by a concentrated solution of trichloride of antimony (*liquid butter of antimony*), having a specific gravity of 1.35. This has been a good deal used for gun barrels.

Coating with Gold or Bronze Powders.—Metal, wood, plaster of Paris, and other materials can be coated with these in the form of a paint. Doors, friezes, cornices, and other parts of rooms are now frequently bronzed in this way. When bronze powder is used, the wood or plaster first receives three or four coats of yellow oil paint, then two coats of a mixture of the bronze powder with flat varnish, and finally this is covered with another layer of varnish. If it is desired to give an object with bas-reliefs or other raised ornaments the appearance of a bronze, changed more or less to green by time and exposure, perhaps the most tasteful way is to partially gild the projecting portions and paint the rest of the surface of a sombre green, running the colour partly over the gold.

Bronzite, silicate of magnesia and ferrous oxide, a rock-forming mineral belonging to the Pyroxene group (q.v.).

Brooch (from a root signifying to pierce; comp. Eng. *to brooch*; Fr. *brocher*, 'to spit,' or 'to stitch'; Wel. *proc*, 'to stab'), an ornamental pin or instrument for fastening the dress, consisting for the most

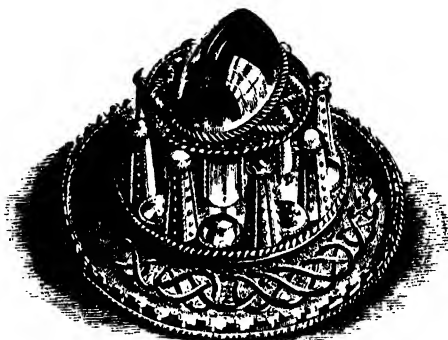
part either of a ring or disc, or of a semicircle, there being a pin in either case passing across it, fastened at one end with a joint or loop, and at the other with a hook. The oldest known brooches are those found in graves assigned to the early iron age of Southern Europe. They are made of bronze, and consist of a bent or bow-shaped body, with a spring pin coming from a spiral twist at one end, and its point fitting into a loop of the bow at the other end, like the modern 'safety' shawl-pin. They are exceedingly varied in form, often presenting grotesque imitations of the shapes of animals. The form which prevailed in Northern Europe was more massive, having a cross-bar at one end, and covered with chased ornamentation inlaid with gold. In Scandinavia a peculiar form of brooch of brass of oval bowl-shape, covered with dragonesque ornamentation, plated with gold and studded with bosses and coloured pastes, was characteristic of the Viking period. The early Celtic brooches of Scotland and Ireland were penannular, the ring being incomplete, with expanded ends, while the pin, which was loosely looped upon the ring, was greatly longer than the diameter of the brooch. They were made of bronze or silver plated with gold; the flat ring, divided into panels, was richly ornamented with interlaced or spiral patterns, or dragonesque filigree work, peculiar to Celtic art, and studded with settings of amber or coloured glass. The most elaborate work of art of this description is the Tara Brooch, preserved in the museum of the Royal Irish Academy at Dublin, of which a woodcut is subjoined. The finest in



The Tara Brooch.

Scotland is the so-called Hunterston Brooch, which was found in 1830, on the estate of Hunterston, in the parish of West Kilbride, Ayrshire. It is of silver, richly ornamented with gold filigree, elaborately worked into lacertine and ribbon patterns, and set with ornaments of amber; diameter, $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches. On the reverse is an inscription scratched in runes: 'Maelbritha owns this brooch.' The later form of the Highland brooch of brass or silver is annular, having a pin of the length of the diameter of the ring. Those of brass are decorated with chased

patterns of interlaced work, scrolls of foliage, and grotesque animals. Those of silver have their decoration often inlaid with niello, and sometimes enriched with settings. The Ugadale Brooch, in



Brooch of Ugadale.

the possession of Hector Macneal of Ugadale, in Kintyre, which is here figured, is a characteristic example of a form of reliquary brooch of West Highland origin. The Brooch of Lorn, in the possession of Macdonald of Dunolly, near Oban, has the reputation of being identical with one torn from the breast of Robert Bruce by Alexander of Lorn, the ancestor of Macdonald, in a personal contest with the king, but it is also identical in form and character with the Lochbuy Brooch, now in the British Museum, and classed as a work of the 16th century. They are all about $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, having a circle of jewelled obelisks rising round a central capsule, crowned by a large rock-crystal. The capsule is removable, and discloses a cavity, designed, doubtless, for the purpose of a reliquary.

Brooke, HENRY, dramatist and novelist, was born about 1703, at Rantavan, County Cavan, Ireland, the son of a wealthy clergyman. In 1720 he entered Trinity College, Dublin, and in 1724 went to study law in London, where he became the chosen friend of Pope and Lyttelton. From the heart of this brilliant literary society he was recalled to Ireland by a dying aunt, who left him guardian of her child, a girl of twelve, whom he afterwards married. His poem, *Universal Beauty* (1735), is supposed to have supplied the foundation for Erasmus Darwin's *Botanic Garden*. In 1739 he published his play, *Gustavus Vasa*, full of the noblest sentiments and the most inconceivable characters, the acting of which was prohibited at Drury Lane; Dr Johnson writing a satire in vindication of the licensers of the stage. It was afterwards produced in Dublin as the *Patriot*. In 1740 Brooke was taken ill, and returned finally to his native country, where he published several books. He died at Dublin, in a state of mental debility, 10th October 1783. The sonorous eloquence of his plays has not saved them from oblivion; and his novel, *The Fool of Quality*, is the sole survivor of his numerous works. It is distinguished by humour, close observation, simplicity of style, and a religious and philanthropic tone that highly commended it to John Wesley. A new edition was published in 1859, with a preface by Kingsley, who considered that the reader, in spite of the defects of the book, would learn more from it of what was pure, sacred, and eternal, than from any book since Spenser's *Faerie Queene*.

Brooke, SIR JAMES, rajah of Sarawak, in Borneo, and governor of Labuan—a man strongly

imbued with the spirit of the old adventurers of the Elizabethan time—was born at Benares, 29th April 1803, and educated at Norwich. He entered the East India army (1819), was seriously wounded in the Burmese war, and returned home on furlough (1826). The voyage out to join his regiment was so protracted that he was unable to reach India before his furlough had expired; his appointments consequently lapsed, and he quitted the service in 1830 and returned to England. He now conceived the idea of putting down piracy in the Eastern Archipelago, and of carrying civilisation to the savages inhabiting these islands. He purchased a small brig and made a voyage to China. On his father's death (1835) he inherited £30,000, and after a cruise in the Mediterranean, sailed in a schooner-yacht from London for Sarawak, a province on the north-west coast of Borneo, in 1838. When he arrived there (1839), the uncle of the sultan of Borneo was engaged in a war with some rebel tribes. Brooke lent his assistance, and in return had the title of Rajah and Governor of Sarawak conferred upon him, 24th September 1841, the native governor being forced to resign. Brooke immediately set about reforming the government, instituted free trade, and framed a new code of laws. The murderous custom of head-hunting, prevalent among the Dyaks, he declared to be a crime punishable with death, and vigorously set about the extirpation of piracy. Revisiting England in 1847, he received a warm welcome, and was invited by the Queen to Windsor. He was created a K.C.B. in the year following; and the island of Labuan, near Sarawak, having been purchased by the British government, he was appointed governor and commander-in-chief, and British commissioner and consul-general in Borneo. Certain charges brought in 1851 against Brooke in the House of Commons in connection with the receipt of 'head-money' for the slain pirates, were declared by a Royal Commission to be unsubstantiated; the 'head-money' was received, not by Brooke and his associates, but by the British ships-of-war that had co-operated with him. In 1857 Brooke, who had been superseded in the governorship of Labuan, but who still acted as rajah of Sarawak for the sultan of Borneo, was attacked at night in his house by a large body of Chinese, who were irritated at his efforts to prevent opium-smuggling. The Chinese committed great havoc on his property; but Brooke soon collected a force of natives, attacked the Chinese, and defeated them in several successive fights. He was in England in 1858, returned to Borneo in 1861, and visited England again twice before his death. He had the satisfaction of seeing the independence of Sarawak recognised by the English government. The country prospered greatly under his régime; he found the chief town a place of some 1000 inhabitants, he left it a town of 25,000; and the exports to Singapore, which in 1840 amounted to £25,000, were in 1858, £300,000. Brooke died at Burrator, in Devonshire, 11th June 1868, and was succeeded at Sarawak by his nephew. See SARAWAK; also *Letters of Sir James Brooke* (1853), *Jacob's Raja of Sarawak* (1876), *St John's Life of Sir James Brooke* (1879).

Brooke, STOPFORD AUGUSTUS, writer and preacher, was born in Letterkenny, Donegal, in 1832. After a brilliant course at Trinity College, Dublin, he took orders, and after holding various curacies, was incumbent of St James's Chapel from 1866 to 1875, thereafter of Bedford Chapel, Bloomsbury, where his sermons, at once rich in thought and graceful in literary form, made him one of the chief preachers in London. In 1872 he was appointed chaplain-in-ordinary to the Queen. In

1880, through a conscientious inability any longer to believe in miracles, he seceded from the Church of England, but continued to preach in his proprietary chapel in Bloomsbury. Brooke showed fine literary sense and spiritual sympathy in his *Life of Frederick Robertson of Brighton* (1865); and his reputation did not suffer by his *Theology in the English Poets* (1874), *Primer of English Literature*, and *Milton* (1876), and six volumes of *Sermons* (1868-88).

Brook Farm, a community on Fourier's principles, 8 miles SW. of Boston, organised in 1840 by George Ripley, and largely an outcome of the Transcendental movement of the time. Here, on an estate of 200 acres, a company of scholars and educated men and women settled down to a communistic experiment, in which every member should do his share of the necessary manual work. The philanthropy, 175 feet long and three stories high, was burned down before it was occupied; and the attempt ended in hopeless failure. Hawthorne was one of the founders, and lived for some months on the farm, in which he invested all his savings; a charming memorial of this singular enterprise is his *Blithedale Romance*.

Brooklime (*Veronica Beccabunga*), a species of speedwell, having a superficial resemblance to watercresses, which it also slightly resembles in taste, if not also in anti-scorbutic properties, abundant in ditches, watercourses, and wet places near springs in Britain, and common throughout the palaearctic region. See SPEEDWELL, VERONICA.

Brookline, a suburban town, about 4 miles SW. of Boston, U.S., by rail or tramway, with numerous handsome villas and parks, and manufacturing of philosophical instruments, &c. Pop. (1885) 9196.

Brooklyn, the third city of the United States, and capital of King's county, New York, is situated on the west end of Long Island, opposite New York City, by J. B. Lippincott Company, from which it is separated by a strait called East River, nearly a mile in width, running from Long Island Sound to New York Bay. Twelve or more lines of steam-ferries ply between the different points of Brooklyn and New York, and a magnificent suspension bridge (finished 1883), 5989 feet in length by 85 in breadth, and with a river span of 1595½ feet, intended for foot-passage, carriages, and railways, extends from one city to the other (see BRIDGE). Branches of the Long Island system of railways have their west terminus in Brooklyn, running thence to Greenport and Sag Harbour near the east end of the island, and five or more lines connect this city with Coney Island, a famous bathing-place 10 miles distant. Two lines of steam elevated railways and numerous lines of horse-cars traverse the streets of Brooklyn, making easy communication between the suburban sections and the ferries. Although not a port of entry, the amount of foreign and domestic freight that comes to its warehouses is enormous. Freight-cars are brought to its docks on floats, and great numbers of canal-boats from the interior discharge their cargoes here. Some of these docks are among the most extensive works of the kind in the United States, covering from 40 to 60 acres each, and are lined with immense storehouses for grain and other freight.

At the south-east extremity of the city, upon a high ridge overlooking New York Bay and its environs, is the beautiful Greenwood Cemetery, covering about 400 acres, and containing many fine monuments; and near at hand are the Ridgewood reservoir and Prospect Park, a public pleasure-ground of 540 acres, which has cost, including two noble boulevards connected with it, extending

respectively 3 and 2½ miles to Coney Island and East New York, nearly \$12,000,000. The city proper has a water front of 10 miles, and within its

It is divided into 26 wards, and according to the census of 1880 was the third city in population in the United States. The population in 1810 was 4402; in 1830, 15,396; in 1850, 96,838; in 1870, 306,009; in 1880, 566,603; in 1888 (estimated), 775,000.



Brooklyn Suspension Bridge.

area of 25 sq. m. are carried on large and varied industries, among which are embraced the refining of sugar and petroleum, the manufacture of glass, chandlery, clothing, carpets, chemicals, paints, oil-cloth, metallic wares, tobacco, steam-boilers, lace, hats, buttons, paper, felt goods, &c., and the building and repairing of ships.

Brooklyn has 13 national banks, 14 savings-banks (2 of which have deposits of \$22,000,000 each), 8 daily, 2 weekly, and many monthly periodicals. Its school system embraces a high school, a training school for the public school teachers, 70 grammar and primary schools (employing 1817 teachers, and costing \$1,800,000 annually), 2 medical colleges, a Roman Catholic college, and numerous convents, academies, and seminaries, attended by about 60,000 pupils. An average of 75,000 children attend the public schools daily. Brooklyn is 'the City of Churches': of such edifices there are 58 Methodist, 54 Roman Catholic, 39 Protestant Episcopal, 32 Baptist, 25 Congregational, 24 Presbyterian, 21 Lutheran, 16 Dutch Reformed, 9 Jewish, &c. The public buildings are not generally imposing; among the most notable are the court-house, erected at a cost of \$543,000; the hall of records, costing \$328,000; the municipal building, costing \$200,000; an academy of music, with a seating capacity of 2400, &c. Its charitable institutions comprise lunatic and deaf-mute asylums, homes for destitute children, for the aged, the idiotic, and the deformed, and numerous pharmacies, dispensaries, infirmaries, hospitals, &c. There is a fine government post-office, and a United States navy yard, which occupies about 40 acres of ground, with extensive ship-houses, workshops, and military stores, and a dry-dock which cost about \$1,000,000.

First settled in 1636, the town was organised by the Dutch governor of New Amsterdam in 1646, and named *Brouckelen* from a place of the same name in the Netherlands, 8 miles NW. of Utrecht. It was incorporated as a city in 1834, to which Williamsburg (now 'Brooklyn E.D.,' or Eastern District) and Bushwick were added in 1855, and in 1886 the town of New Lots (East New York) was annexed.

Brooks, CHARLES WILLIAM SHIRLEY, editor of *Punch*, was born in London, the son of an architect, 29th April 1816. In 1832 he was articled to an Oswestry attorney, but literature had more charms for him than the law. From clerk he became, like Dickens, a reporter, and settling in London, wrote dramas, contributed to some of the leading periodicals and journals, and for five sessions wrote the Parliamentary Summary for the *Morning Chronicle*. By its proprietors he was sent in 1853 on a mission to report on the con-

dition of labour and the poor in Russia, Syria, and Egypt; and a result of his observations appeared in *The Russians of the South* (1856). In 1851 he formed a connection with *Punch* which lasted during his lifetime. He wrote its 'Essence of Parliament,' and on Mark Lemon's death in 1870 succeeded him as editor. In his novels he showed a thorough knowledge of contemporary life and literature; the chief are *Aspen Court* (1855), *The Gordian Knot* (1860), *The Silver Cord* (1861), and *Sooner or Later* (1868). He died in London, 23d February 1874. A volume of his *Wit and Humour* appeared in 1875.

Broom, a name given to a number of species of shrubs of the closely allied genera *Cytisus*, *Genista*, and *Spartium*, of the natural order Leguminosae, sub-order Papilionaceae—all of them having long slender branches, along which are produced axillary flowers.—Common Broom, *Cytisus (Sarcobatus) scoparius*, the trivial name being from the Lat. *scopa*, 'long twigs,' or 'a besom'), is a well-known native of Britain, Europe, and Northern Asia, ranging also as far as the Canaries and the Azores, growing in dry soils, and ornamenting hedge-banks, hills, and bushy places, in May and June, with its large yellow flowers, which are on short stalks, drooping, solitary, but produced in considerable number along the straight slender branchlets. The lower leaves have three oblong leaflets, the upper ones are simple; the branches are angular and of a very dark green, very tough, and much in use for making besoms, as also in Belgium, &c., for baskets. They have also been used for tanning and dyeing; and their fibre has been woven into a coarse strong cloth, and even made into paper. In South Germany it is sometimes planted on sandy wastes for the sake of its fibres; while its ashes are also valuable additions to the soil on account of their high percentage of potash. The whole plant is very bitter, and the young tops and seeds are diuretic, hence the plant is a very unsuitable ingredient of fodder. The flowers were formerly employed in medicine (*flores spartii*), and as a yellow dye; they are much

visited by bees for cross-fertilisation, for which they are very beautifully adapted (see fig.). The mode of diffusion of the seed by the explosive rupture of the dry pod-valves in hot weather is

also worthy of notice.

Broom inhabits colder climates than furze, reaching to a greater elevation on mountains, and being found beyond the northern limit of furze. It usually varies in size from 2 to 6 feet, but in some localities grows much larger, the wood then being of great value to cabinet-makers and turners.

Although sometimes annoying to the forester, it is also capable of rendering him service as a quick-growing shelter to young trees,



Branch of Common Broom :
a, flowering branch.

especially on wind-swept and sandy soils.—Irish Broom (*Cytisus* or *Sarothamnus patens*), not unfrequent as an ornamental plant in British shrubberies, is not at all a native of Ireland, but of Spain and Portugal.—Portugal Broom or White Broom (*C. albus*), a native of the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, is very often planted in Britain as an ornamental shrub, and is much admired for the beauty of its fascicled white flowers, which are produced upon long filiform branches. Its leaves have three leaflets. It sometimes attains a height of 15 or 20 feet.—Spanish Broom (*Spartium junceum*) is a native of the south of Europe, generally growing in dry soils and rocky situations, and attaining a height of 8 feet or upwards. Its branches are upright, round, and rush-like, a characteristic of this genus. They are smooth, and bear only a few small simple leaves, which soon drop off. It is the *Spartium* of the ancients, and the fibre of the branchlets has been used from time immemorial in some parts of Italy, France, and Spain, for making canvas, nets, ropes, &c., and even for the preparation of a kind of linen. Its twigs also are employed for basket-making, and the finer ones for tying up the grapes. In the south of France, the plant is cultivated on dry unproductive soils. The branchlets are made into bundles, dried, beaten, steeped, and washed, in order to the separation of the fibre. It possesses medical properties similar to those of the common broom.—A white-flowered species (*S. monaspermum*), occasionally to be seen in British shrubberies, grows abundantly on the loose sands of the coasts of Spain, and produces a similar fibre. It is mentioned by Barth as growing in great abundance in Africa to the south of the Great Desert. Many species somewhat resembling these are occasionally to be seen in Britain among ornamental

plants, some of them often in greenhouses. The Canary Isles produce some remarkable for the fragrance of their flowers.—Dyer's Broom (*Genista tinctoria*) is, with other members of the same genus, a well-known source of yellow colouring matter. This European shrubby plant is thoroughly naturalised in some parts of North America. The name broom is not given to those species of *Cytisus* and *Genista* (q.v.) which do not display in a marked degree the character of having long slender twigs.—Butcher's Broom (q.v.) is a plant of an entirely different family.

Broom-corn, a grass cultivated in North America for the manufacture of brooms and whisks, which are made of the tops of the culms and the branches of the panicle. See SORGHUM.

Broome, SIR FREDERICK NAPIER, was born in Canada in 1842, and emigrated to New Zealand in 1857. Seven years later, on a visit to England, he married Lady Barker, whose *Station Life in New Zealand* (1869) quickly became popular. In 1869, too, Broome, who had meantime returned to England, formed a connection with the *Times*, and began to contribute prose and verse to the magazines. In 1875 he was appointed Colonial Secretary of Natal, two years later of Mauritius, and at the close of 1882, Governor of Western Australia. He was knighted in 1877.

Broomrape. See OROBANCHÆÆ.

Brora Beds are a series of strata occurring at Brora, a village in Sutherlandshire, of the same age as the Inferior Oolite of Yorkshire. They are chiefly remarkable for the occurrence in them of a seam of coal of good quality $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet thick, being the thickest stratum of true coal hitherto discovered in any secondary strata in Britain.

Brose (Gaelic *brothas*), a dish sometimes used in Scotland, made by pouring boiling water, milk, or the liquor in which meat has been boiled, on oatmeal, and mixing the ingredients by immediate stirring. Butter may be added, and sweet milk when the brose is made with water. It is *kail-brose*, *water-brose*, or *beef-brose*, according to the liquid used. *Athole-brose*, a famous Highland cordial, is a compound of honey and whisky.

Brosley, a small town of Shropshire, on the Severn, 15 miles SE. of Shrewsbury, famous for its manufacture of excellent clay tobacco-pipes. Its 'churchwardens,' or long clay pipes, are in request all over England. Pop. of parish (1881) 4458.

Brosses, CHARLES DE, historian, was born at Dijon in 1709, and died president of the parliament of Burgundy, 7th May 1777. Among his works were: *Lettres sur Herculanum* (1750); *Histoire des Navigations aux Terres Australes* (1756), in which he introduced the names Australia and Polynesia; *Du Culte des Dieux Fétiches* (1760), the word *fetich* being first used by him in the sense now usual; the ingenious *Traité de la Formation Mécanique des Langues* (1765); and *Histoire de la République Romaine* (1777). His *Lettres écrites d'Italie en 1739-40* was edited by Colomb in 1885. See Marnet, *Le Président de Brosses* (1875).

Broth is an infusion or decoction of vegetable and animal substances in water. It is customary to use more or less meat, ox-flesh or mutton, with bone, and certain vegetables, as cabbage, greens, turnips, carrots, pease, beans, onions, &c. The whole are mixed together in cold water, heat slowly applied, and the materials allowed to simmer for some hours. The meat yields up certain ingredients, whilst others are retained in the residual flesh. Flesh heated with water yields to the water albuminous matter, gelatin, kreatin, extractive matters, lactic acid, salts, fat, saccharine matter; and leaves in the boiled meat fibrin, coagulated albu-

men, gelatinous tissue, fat, nervous matter. The vegetables yield albuminous constituents, colouring and mucilaginous matter, and volatile oils and salts. The real nutritive material present in broth is less than is generally thought, though it aids in satisfying the cravings of the appetite, and acts to a certain extent as a mild stimulant. See SOUP, BEEF-TEA.

Brothels. LAW AS TO. See NUISANCE, PROSTITUTION.

Brotherhoods. RELIGIOUS, were societies instituted for pious and benevolent purposes, and were numerous in the middle ages. Where the rules of monastic life appeared too narrow and severe, the Romish Church favoured a freer form of consecrated life without vows other than that of devotion to good works or penitential exercises, but in many other respects, as in living together and the like, resembling the spiritual orders. Such brotherhoods or confraternities were, in earlier times, those of Mary, of the Scapular, and of the Rosary; in later times, that of the Sacred and Immaculate Heart of Mary for the conversion of sinners, that of Francis Xavier or the Mission Brotherhood, and that of Christian Learning (*Freres ignorantins*) for the education of the people. The bridge-building brotherhood (*Frates Pontifices*) originated in Southern France towards the end of the 12th century, and was recognised by Pope Clement in 1189. Their occupation was to keep up hospices at the most frequented fords of great rivers, maintain ferries, and build bridges. Other brotherhoods were the Familiars and Cross-bearers of the Inquisition in Spain, and the *Frates Calendarii* in North Germany and the Netherlands. The great brotherhood of Common Life was founded about 1376 by Geert Groote (born 1340; died 1384) and Florentius Radewin (born 1350; died 1400) at Deventer. Its members were sometimes styled Brethren of Good Will, also Hieronymites and Gregorians, from Hieronymus and Gregory the Great, whom they claimed as patrons. Community of goods, ascetic habits, industry, and the use of the vernacular language in divine service, were some of the chief points insisted on by the brethren who were not fettered by monastic or any other vows. Their principal occupations were the copying of the Bible and other books for the common purse, prayer, and the instruction of the young, and their services in the last direction can hardly be overestimated. Their most famous houses were those of Windesheim, near Deyenter, and Agnetenberg, near Zwolle. They became numerous in the Netherlands and North Germany, but also spread themselves in Italy, Sicily, and Portugal, so that in 1430 they reckoned more than 130 societies. The last was founded in Cambrai in 1505. The most important and distinguished members of the society were Gerhard Zerbold of Zutphen, the famous Thomas-a-Kempis, and the learned Cardinal Nicholas Cusa.—Female societies of a similar character sprung up at the same time with those of the Brothers of Common Life. At the head of each was a superior or directress who was styled the *Martha*. See Kettlewell's *Thomas-a-Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life* (2 vols. 1882).

They were usually founded at first without ecclesiastical authorisation, on account of which several of the confraternities that either did not seek or did not obtain the recognition of the church, assumed the character of sects, and were suspected of heresy. To this class, among others, belonged the Beghards and Beguines (q.v.), the Brothers and Sisters of the Free Spirit, the Apostolic Brethren (q.v.), the Flagellants (q.v.), who, tolerated by the church for a while, at last incurred

its displeasure and were severely persecuted. The *Brothers of Christian Schools* are noticed at SCHOOLS. Even within the Protestant churches single brotherhoods have been formed, as the Rauhes Haus, founded by Wichern at Hamburg in 1833; those formed by Father Ignatius and the Cowley Fathers at Oxford are Anglican brotherhoods. Several similar institutions for women exist within the Church of England. See SISTERHOODS.

Brothers. a name given to three isolated mountains near the coast of New South Wales, between Harrington Inlet to the south, and Port Macquarie to the north. They are valuable as landmarks.—The name is also common to several groups of small islands.

Brothers. LAY, an inferior class of monks, not in holy orders, but bound by monastic rules, and employed as servants in Monasteries (q.v.).

Brothers. RICHARD, the originator of the Anglo-Israelite craze, was born in Newfoundland in 1757, and in 1772 entered the British navy, which he quitted with a lieutenant's half-pay in 1789. Refusing, from conscientious scruples, to take the oath requisite to enable him to draw his half-pay, he was reduced to great distress, and ultimately placed in the workhouse. In 1793 he announced himself as the apostle of a new religion, 'the Nephew of the Almighty, and Prince of the Hebrews, appointed to lead them to the land of Canaan;' and in 1794 he published a book, *A Revealed Knowledge of the Prophecies and Times*. For prophesying the death of the king, and the destruction of the monarchy, he was committed in 1795 to Newgate, and thence soon transferred to a lunatic asylum. His disciples included Nathaniel Hall the M.P. and orientalist, Sharp the engraver, and Finlayson, a lawyer from Fife, with whom, after his release in 1806, he chiefly resided till his death on 25th January 1824.

Brough. See BROCHS.

Brougham. HENRY, LORD BROUGHAM AND VAUX, was born in Edinburgh, 19th September 1778. His father, Mr Henry Brougham, was the descendant of an old Westmoreland family, and his mother, Eleanor Syme, a woman of great worth and beauty, was a niece of Robertson the historian. Brougham received his education at the High School and at the university of Edinburgh. He gave early promise of future ability, some scientific papers written by him at the age of eighteen finding admission to the *Transactions of the Royal Society*. In 1800 he was admitted to the Scotch bar; in 1802 he helped to found the *Edinburgh Review* (q.v.), to whose first twenty numbers he contributed eighty articles. His Liberal views shut him out from the hope of promotion in Scotland, and a character which he had acquired for eccentricity and indiscretion excluded him from all legal practice, except the unremunerative practice of the criminal courts. In 1805 he settled in London; in 1806 was for three months secretary to a mission to Lisbon; and in 1808 was called to the English bar.

In London he first made his mark at the bar of the House of Commons as counsel for the Liverpool merchants who petitioned against the Orders in Council. Shortly after, in 1810, he entered parliament, and four months later brought in and carried his first public measure—an act making participation in the slave-trade felony. He was welcomed by the opposition leaders, to whose party he had attached himself, as a most powerful assistant in their attacks upon the government. In 1812 he succeeded in carrying the repeal of the obnoxious Orders in Council, and then ventured to contest the membership for Liverpool against Canning. He was defeated, and remained without

a seat till 1816, when he was returned for Winchester, and again became an active member of the opposition. By this time he had also established some reputation in the courts of law. He never, indeed, acquired a very large practice, but he repeatedly distinguished himself by speeches of great vigour and ability in the defence of persons prosecuted for libel by the crown. His most famous appearance as an advocate, however, was in defence of Queen Caroline (1820). His eloquence and boldness, though they forfeited for him the favour of the crown, gained him that of the people, and for the ten years between 1820 and 1830 Brougham was the popular idol. He made no bad use of his power. In 1822 he used it, though in vain, in support of a scheme of national education; and to his activity was due, in great measure, the establishment of the London University, of the first Mechanics' Institute, and of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. In 1830 he delivered a powerful speech against slavery, and in consequence of it—so he himself believed—was invited to stand, and returned, as member for the great popular constituency of the county of York. The aristocratically disposed Whigs would, had they dared, have excluded Brougham from the Reform ministry; but, in addition to his enormous popularity, he was virtually their leader in debate in the Commons, and thus, in spite of his unmanageableness, was indispensable. After various intrigues he was offered, and was persuaded, to accept a peerage and the chancellorship. He took his seat in the Lords in November 1830, and assisted materially in carrying the Reform Bill through that house. But his arrogance, self-confidence, and eccentricities, which sometimes verged on insanity, rendered him as unpopular with his colleagues as he was on the bench. He went out with the Whig government in 1834, and on its reconstruction five months later, found himself quietly shelved. He never held office again, never thenceforth exerted any appreciable influence on any great political movement, though still as before he continued to forward every measure for social progress, and was founder of the Social Science Association (1857).

It is as a law-reformer that Brougham will be best remembered. He took up Romilly's uncompleted task of carrying into practice the ameliorations suggested by Bentham. His efforts in this direction began as early as 1816, when he introduced into parliament a bill to remove various defects in the law of libel. In 1827, in a memorable six hours' speech, he enumerated the defects in nearly every branch of English law, and made proposals for dealing with law-reform on a proper scale. These, as might have been expected, met with little encouragement. It has been the fortune of many of his measures to be carried afterwards, in a mutilated form, by other hands. After he left office, Brougham also succeeded in carrying various reforms in the law, among which may be noted some very extensive changes in the law of evidence. His acts and bills, as well as those regarding the slave-trade, education, and other public questions, as those touching on law-reform, were collected and published by Sir J. E. Eardley Wilmot (1857). The large volume they form is the most fitting monument that could be preserved of the activity, perseverance, and public spirit of the man.

As an orator, more especially as a debater in parliament, Brougham was, among the men of his time, inferior only to Canning. He was wont, however, to indulge in his speeches in too large an admixture of exciting elements; argument was mingled with fiery declamation; ridicule,

sarcasm, invective, were freely used; and these he dealt out with a vehemence and energy that at times carried him far beyond bounds. The power of ready, rapid, and forcible diction were eminently his. In many other fields besides oratory he won a high reputation. He cultivated mathematical and physical science, and ventured upon the domains of metaphysics, history, theology, even romance. His miscellaneous writings are upon an almost incredible variety of subjects, and, numbering 133, fill 11 vols. in the collected edition (1855-61; 2d ed. 1873). They were, however, intended more to serve purposes of the moment, than as permanent additions to our literature; and though they display great powers of rapid comprehension and nervous clear exposition, it cannot be said that we are indebted to their author for any new truths in politics or morals, or any original discoveries in science.

While not engaged in parliament, Brougham chiefly resided at Cannes, in the south of France, where he had built a château in 1835, and where he died 7th May 1868. Two daughters had long predeceased him, and the title passed to his brother William (1795-1886). Brougham's memoir of his own Life and Times (3 vols. 1871) was written in extreme old age, and is very untrustworthy. Peacock hit him off well in *Crotchet Castle* as 'the learned friend'; and Rogers remarked of him, as he once was leaving Panshanger, 'There goes Solon, Lysurgus, Demosthenes, Archimedes, Sir Isaac Newton, Lord Chesterfield, and a great many more in one post-chaise.' O'Connell's gibe, on Brougham's elevation to the woolsack, was less kindly: 'If Brougham knew a little of law, he would know a little of everything.'

Broughton, RHODA, a popular novelist, was the daughter of a clergyman, and was born 29th November 1840. One of her first novels, and perhaps her best, is *Not Wisely but Too Well* (1867). Others are *Cometh up as a Flower* (1867), *Red as a Rose is She* (1870), *Nancy* (1873), *Joan* (1876), *Belinda* (1883), and *Doctor Cupid* (1886). Though Miss Broughton has not written too rapidly, like so many of our Victorian novelists, her later work has sadly fallen off in quality. Her plots are usually but ill constructed, her cynicism is shallow and unreal, and her stories too often contain equivocal situations unjustified by dramatic necessity; but the work shows a vigorous individuality, and the style is clever and graphic, though too often marred by a vulgarity that seems in grain. 'In Miss Broughton's determination not to be mawkish or missish,' says Mr Trollope, 'she has made her ladies do and say things which ladies would not do and say.' Her heroines need not be so often plain, so often extravagantly worship or detest their parents, nor take such an unconscionable time in dying; while her abuse of italics and the present tense are devices that are merely monotonous, and add no strength to the work of so clever a writer.

Broughty-Ferry, a town of Forfarshire, on the Firth of Tay, 3½ miles E. of Dundee. It is connected with Tayport, in Fife, by a railway-ferry over the firth, here a mile broad, which, before the opening of the Tay Bridge, to the westward, formed the chief connection between Edinburgh and Fife with Dundee. Many Dundee merchants occupy fine villas at Broughty-Ferry, and it enjoys all the amenities of a favourite watering-place. On the shore stands a castle, which, built in 1498, was held by the English 1547-50. In 1860-61 it was repaired as a defence for the Tay. Pop. (1861) 3513; (1881) 7923.

Broussa, BRUSA, or BOURSA, the ancient *Prusa*, where the kings of Bithynia usually resided; situated in Asiatic Turkey, at the foot of Mount

Olympus, in Asia Minor, 13 miles S. of the Sea of Marmora. Broussa is pleasantly situated, facing a beautiful and luxuriant plain. The water-supply is good, and water flows down the centre of some of the streets, which are clean, but for the most part narrow and dark, and the bazaars very good. It contains about 200 mosques, some of which are very fine buildings, also three Greek churches, an Armenian and several synagogues. The old citadel stands on a rock in the centre of the town. Both Greeks and Armenians have an archbishop here. The silks of Broussa are much esteemed, but the production of the silk-factories, many of which are in the hands of Europeans, has fallen off. Wine is largely produced by the Greeks, and fruit is exported; carpets and tapestry are also made. As capital of a vilayet (often called Khodavendighiar), Broussa is the official residence of a Turkish pasha, and the seat of a Turkish tribunal. Broussa is subject to frequent earthquakes. In ancient times it was famous for its thermal baths, which are still much esteemed; they are sulphurous, and spring out of the flank of Mount Olympus. During the terrible earthquakes of 1855, they ceased for a time to flow, but soon returned with a fuller current than before. Meerschaum clay is also obtained from a hill in the vicinity. Prusa is said to have been built by Prusias, king of Bithynia. It was plundered by the Saracens in 950, but retaken and fortified. The sultan Othman besieged it in 1317; and in 1327 his son Orkhan, the second emperor of Turkey, captured it, and made it the capital of his empire, and it continued so until the taking of Constantinople by Mohammed II. in 1453. The first six sultans of the Ottoman empire are buried here. Ibrahim Pasha occupied the city in 1833; Abd-el-Kader found refuge here from 1852-53. The population of Broussa amounts to about 37,000 souls, of whom 5000 are Greeks.

Broussais, FRANÇOIS JOSEPH VICTOR, the founder of a theory of medicine, was born at St Malo, 1772, and served as a surgeon in the navy and army. In 1820 he was appointed professor at the military hospital of Val-de-Grace. In 1830 he became professor of General Pathology in the Academy of Medicine in Paris, and afterwards was made a member of the Institute. He died at Vitry in 1838. His peculiar views are fully explained in his chief work—the *Essai de la Doctrine Médicale Généralement Adoptée* (1816), which asserts the following principles: that life is sustained only by excitation or irritation; that this excitation may be either too strong (*surexcitation*) or too weak (*adynamie*). These abnormal conditions at first manifest themselves in a specific organ of the body, but afterwards, by sympathy, are extended to other organs, as in fever—i.e. all diseases are originally *local*, and become *general* only by sympathy of the several organs. His theory and practice, which strongly resemble the Brunonian system of John Brown (q.v.), gained many adherents in France, who took the name of the 'Physiological School.'

Broussonetia. See MULBERRY.

Brouwer (sometimes written BRAUWER), ADRIAN, a Dutch painter, was born at Oudenarde (now in Belgium) in 1605 or 1606, of extremely poor parents, studied at Haarlem under Franz Hals, and about 1630 settled at Antwerp. Here, under the influence of Rubens, who thought highly of him, he attained to great brilliancy of colour; and from the beginning he had shown great power of strong and graphic characterisation. His favourite subjects were scenes from tavern life, country merrymakings, card-players, smoking and drinking groups, and roisterers generally. His life

was dissipated and embarrassed by debt; and he died of the plague in an Antwerp hospital in 1638, not yet thirty-three years of age. His influence was marked on Teniers the younger, Van Ostade, and others. His best pictures are at Munich, St Petersburg, Madrid, Dresden, and Vienna. See *Lives* by Schmidt (Leip. 1873) and Bode (Vienna, 1884).

Brown, MOUNT, in the Rocky Mountains, near the source of the Columbia River, and on the borders of British Columbia and Alberta, is 16,000 feet high.

Brown, CHARLES BROCKDEN, an American novelist, of Quaker ancestry, was born at Philadelphia, January 17, 1771. After abortive studies in law he adopted literature as a profession, the first American to do so. *Wieland* (1798), the earliest of his fictions, was followed in 1799 by *Ormond, or the Secret Witness*, in which the character of Constantia Dudley was greatly admired by Shelley. Other novels were: *Arthur Mervyn, or Memoirs of the Year 1793*—the fatal year of yellow-fever in Philadelphia; *Edgar Huntly, or the Adventures of a Sleep-walker* (1801); *Clara Howard* (1801); and *Jane Talbot* (1804). He died of consumption, February 22, 1810. Brown had great imaginative and psychological ingenuity. He invents incidents and analyses feelings with remarkable subtlety, but his success is marred by lack of reality and extravagance. As a novelist he owed much to Godwin. A life of Brown by W. Dunlap was prefixed to the edition of his novels in 7 vols. (Boston, 1827); there is another edition in 6 vols. (Philadelphia, 1857; reissued, 1887). See his *Life* by C. I. Stevenson.

Brown, FORD MADOX, historical painter, one of the most intellectual, forcible, and unconventional artists of our time, grandson of the founder of the Brunonian system of medicine, was born at Calais in 1821. His earlier studies were conducted mainly at Antwerp, under Baron Wappers, who, in his turn, had been influenced by the Romantic school of France; and, after a brief period spent in portrait-painting in England, he resided for three years in Paris, where he produced his 'Manfred on the Jungfrau' (1841), and 'Parisina's Sleep' (1842), works intensely dramatic in feeling, but sombre in colouring. In 1844-45 he contributed three subjects to the Westminster cartoon competitions, preliminary to the mural decoration of the Houses of Parliament, works praised by Haydon, though they gained no prize; and one of them was carried out in 1861 as an oil-picture, titled 'Wilhelmus Conquistator,' one of the most dignified and monumental of the artist's productions. A visit to Italy about 1845 led him to seek greater variety and richness of colouring, and its results were seen in 'Wyclif reading his Translation of the Scriptures to John of Gaunt' (1848), and 'Chaucer reciting his Poetry at the Court of Edward III.' (1851). Already his art had been developing new aims, which demanded fresh methods for their expression; and gradually he formed a style characterised by great originality, force, and directness, much in harmony with that of the Pre-Raphaelites, and, in point of time, anticipating their efforts. In 1850 he was a contributor of verse, prose, and design to the Pre-Raphaelite magazine the *Germ*, and in his youth Rossetti worked in his studio. Among the most important works in his fully developed manner are 'Cordelia and Lear,' 'Christ washing Peter's Feet,' 'Work,' 'The Last of England,' 'Romeo and Juliet,' 'The Entombment,' 'Cromwell dictating the Vandois Despatch to Milton,' and, in landscape, the 'English Summer Afternoon.' In 1865 he held an exhibition of his collected works in London, the interesting and valuable descriptive catalogue of which was written by himself. He is known to

some extent as a book-illustrator, and among the examples of stained glass which he has designed may be mentioned the windows in St Oswald's Church, Durham. Since 1879 he has been engaged upon a great series of subjects from the history of Manchester for the decoration of the town-hall of that city. They are executed by the Gambier-Parry process, the earlier works being painted directly upon the prepared surface of the walls, and some of the later upon canvas.—His son, OLIVER MADOX BROWN, author and artist, was born at Finchley, 20th January 1855. At the age of twelve he executed a water-colour subject—'Margaret of Anjou and the Robber'—of very considerable merit; two years later his 'Chiron' was shown at the Dudley Exhibition; in 1870 his equestrian 'Exercise' found a place on the line in the Royal Academy; and already two of his designs, 'The Deformed Transformed' and 'Mazeppa,' had been engraved. In 1871-72 he wrote his first novel, published in an altered and mutilated form in 1873, under the title of *Gabriel Denver*, and reprinted in original form and under its first title of *The Black Swan* in his *Literary Remains* (1876). As the work of a lad under seventeen, it is a marvellous production. The tales of *The Drude Bluth* and *Hobditch's Legacy*, with some minor narrative pieces, were left incomplete at the time of their author's death. As a poet he was no less precocious. At the age of fourteen he had written several remarkable sonnets; and from time to time he produced lyrics and other fragments in which the dominant note is that same passionate intensity which is the main characteristic of his fiction. His career of most exceptional promise was cut short in 1874, when he died of blood-poisoning on the 5th November. His biography, by J. H. Ingram, was published in 1883.

Brown, Sir GEORGE, British general, was born at Linkwood, near Elgin, in 1790, and entered the army in 1806. He served through the Peninsular campaign (1808-13), and in 1814 joining Ross's expedition against the United States, was wounded at the battle of Bladensburg, and obtained his lieutenant-colonelcy. In the Crimean war (1854-55) he commanded the Light Division, and was severely wounded at Inkermann. In 1855 he was created a G.C.B., and in 1856 was gazetted 'General for distinguished service in the field.' In 1860 he became commander-in-chief in Ireland, and he died at Linkwood, 27th August 1865.

Brown, GEORGE LORING, American artist, born in Boston, 2d February 1814, spent more than twenty years in the art-centres of Europe, and returned to America in 1860 with a high reputation as a landscape-painter. His works include American and Italian landscapes of considerable merit, among the more important being 'The Crown of New England' (1861), purchased by the Prince of Wales; 'Niagara by Moonlight' (1876); and several effective Venetian scenes.

Brown, HENRY KIRKE, sculptor, born at Leyden, Massachusetts, in 1814. He studied for some years in Italy, and returning in 1846, settled at Brooklyn, where he executed the first bronze statue ever cast in America. Besides several subjects in marble, his notable works include statues of Lincoln in Brooklyn and New York, an equestrian statue of General Scott in Washington, and a colossal equestrian statue of General Washington in Union Square, New York. He died July 10, 1886.

Brown, JOHN, of Haddington, author of the *Self-interpreting Bible*, was born in 1722 at Carpow, near Abernethy, Perthshire. A poor weaver's child, at the age of eleven he lost both father and mother, and himself shortly afterwards all but died

of four fevers. His schooling was scanty; but, as a herd-boy on the Tayside hills, he studied Greek, Latin, and Hebrew with such success that the neighbours declared he had dealings with the evil one. Once, after folding his flock, he set off for St. Andrews, 24 miles away, and stood the next morning in a bookseller's shop, inquiring the price of a Greek Testament. The man laughed at him; but a professor, who was in, said he would give him one if he could read a verse. Ay, could he; and so the Testament was his. Then he turned pedlar, a pedlar like him in Wordsworth's *Excursion*; during the '45 served in the Fife militia; and from 1747 to 1750 was a schoolmaster at Gairney Bridge, near Kinross, and at the Spittal, near Penicuik. The vacations were devoted to theological study in connection with the Associate Burgher Synod; and in 1751, having the year before been licensed to preach, he was called to the congregation at Haddington. He was a man of great learning, knowing Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, Syriac, Persian, and Ethiopic, French, Spanish, Dutch, German, and Italian; open-handed, on a stipend of from £40 to £50 a year; not narrow-minded, the age and his station considered; a kindly humorist, though harrowing self-doubts tormented him all his life through; and a powerful preacher, witness David Hume's well-known remark: 'That's the man for me, he means what he says; he speaks as if Jesus Christ was at his elbow.' In 1768 he accepted the unsalaried Burgher chair of Divinity; in 1784 he refused the pastorate of the Dutch Church at New York; and on 19th June 1787 he died at Haddington. Of his twenty-seven ponderous works, published between 1758 and 1804, and dealing with the Scriptures, church history, &c., the most widely known are the *Dictionary of the Bible* (1768) and the *Self-interpreting Bible* (2 vols. 1778), whose object was 'to condense within a reasonable space all the information which the ordinary reader may find necessary for attaining an intelligent and practical knowledge of the sacred oracles.' See his *Memoirs and Select Remains*, edited by the Rev. W. Brown (Edin. 1856).

JOHN BROWN, D.D., his grandson, was son of the Rev. John Brown of Whitburn (1754-1832), and nephew to the Rev. Ebenezer Brown of Inverkeithing, whose eloquence amazed Brongham and Jeffrey. Born in 1784, he studied at Edinburgh University from 1797 to 1800, and then, not yet sixteen years old, left home with his father's blessing and a guinea, to keep school for three years at Elie, meantime attending, during the summer vacations, the Burgher Theological Hall at Selkirk. In 1806 he was ordained to a pastorate at Biggar; in 1822 accepted a call to Rose Street Church, Edinburgh; and thence in 1829 was translated to Broughton Place. Created a D.D. of Jefferson College, Pennsylvania, in 1830, he was elected professor of Exegetical Theology in 1834; during 1840-45 was engaged in the vexatious atonement controversy; and died 13th October 1858. He published close upon twenty religious works; but for us the interest is in the man himself, strong, saintly, learned, yet with a passion for riding, and 'a steady liking, nay hunger, for a good novel.' See Dr Cairns's Memoir of him (1860), and especially the letter, appended thereto, by his son.

That son, DR JOHN BROWN, the essayist, was born at Biggar, 22d September 1810. Till 1822 his education was undertaken by his father, who had lost his first wife in 1816; then, when the family removed to Edinburgh, the boy had four years at a classical academy and the High School. In 1826 he entered on the arts course at the university, and in 1828 on the medical, at the same time becoming pupil and apprentice to Syme, the eminent surgeon. In 1833, after a year spent at Chatham

—the great cholera year—as a surgeon's assistant, he graduated M.D., and at once established a practice in Edinburgh. It never was large, for he was something besides a doctor, and nothing at all of a money-getter. His life was quiet and uneventful, save that its latter years, all but the last one, were clouded by fits of the darkest depression. The end came somewhat suddenly, but sweetly, on 11th May 1882. He is buried beside his father in the New Calton Cemetery. Almost all Dr John Brown's writings are comprised within three volumes—the two *Horæ Subsecivæ* ('leisure hours,' 1858-61), and *John Lerch and other Papers* (1882). Editors and publishers had to 'pester' him to write, for he was distrustful, as few men, of his powers, believing that none should venture to publish aught 'unless he has something to say, and has done his best to say it aright.' Herein lay the secret of his writing so little, and of that little's hyper-excellence. Dogs, children, old-world folk, friends gone before, and lowland landscapes—these are the subjects which he wrote on best; his essays on art and medical topics are good, but it is not by them that he will be remembered. Humour is the chief feature of his genius—humour with its twin-sister pathos; we find them both at their highest perfection in his sketches of 'Rab' and 'Marjorie'—the uncouth mastiff and the dear dead child. Then, silent Minchmoor, the Euterkin's wild pass, and peaceful Inchnalmon—he is to them what Wordsworth is to Yarrow; himself to Yarrow he applied that most exquisite epithet, 'fabulosus as ever Hydaspes.' Writing of nothing that he did not know, he wrote, too, of nothing that he did not love, or at least did not greatly care for. Hence both the lucidity and the tenderness of his essays. They rank with Lamb's, and with Lamb's alone in the language. See Swinburne's Sonnet, the articles by Andrew Lang in the *Century* (December 1882), and Dr Walter Smith in *Good Words* (July 1882).

SAMUEL BROWN, M.D., chemist, was a grandson of the 'founder of the Brunonian dynasty,' and a son of Provost Samuel Brown of Haddington (1779-1839), who in 1817 established the East Lothian itinerant libraries. Born in 1817 at Haddington, he was educated there till 1830, when he entered the Edinburgh High School. Thence in 1832 he passed on as a medical student to the university, and, after a visit to St Petersburg (1837-38), graduated M.D. in 1839, but immediately surrendered himself to the fascination of chemistry. One idea possessed him to the close of his brief life—the possibility of reconstructing the whole science of atomics. The most crushing failures in experiment could not shake his conviction that chemical elements, usually considered simple, might be transmuted into one another. In 1843 he delivered in Edinburgh four critical lectures on the atomic theory, and stood the same year for the chair of Chemistry. But having perilled his claims on the experimental success of his theory, and being once more doomed to disappointment, he withdrew from the candidature, and devoted himself with a kind of mournful austerity, and with more than the earnestness of a mediæval alchemist, to the solitary work of his laboratory. A prey for seven years to sharp, incessant pain, he died at Edinburgh, 20th September 1856. He was author of the *Tragedy of Galileo* (1850), a monograph on his father (1856), and two volumes of *Essays, Scientific and Literary* (1858). See an article in the *North British Review* for November 1856.

Brown, JOHN, M.D., founder of the Brunonian system of medicine, born in 1736, of poor parents, in Bunkle parish, Berwickshire, was educated at the grammar-school of Duns. At school he was looked upon as a prodigy, his physical powers were great,

he possessed strong intelligence, and an extraordinary memory. After acting as teacher and tutor in Duns and Edinburgh, he obtained leave from Monro, professor of Anatomy, and the other professors, to attend their lectures free; meanwhile he was tutor to the children of the celebrated Dr Cullen, and became his assistant in his university lectures. Conceiving himself slighted by Cullen, he commenced giving lectures himself upon a new system of medicine, according to which all diseases are divided into the sthenic, or those depending on an excess of excitement, and the asthenic, those resulting from a deficiency of it; the former to be removed by debilitating medicines, as opium, and the latter by stimulants, such as wine and brandy. His system, in which he freely exposed the errors of former systems, and those of Dr Cullen, gave rise to much opposition, but his partisans were numerous; for a time his opinions had some influence, and what was true in his lectures has been gradually adopted in ordinary medical treatment. In 1779 he took the degree of M.D. at the university of St Andrews, and in 1780 published his *Elementa Medicinæ*. He was noted for the freedom with which he wrote and spoke Latin. A portrait and Life by Dr Beddoes was prefixed to the second edition in 1795, and Brown afterwards issued an English translation. The book was reprinted on the Continent and in America. He was also author of *Observations on the Present System of Spasms as Taught in the University of Edinburgh* (1787), and a *Short Account of the Old Method of Cure*. Being overwhelmed with debt, for which he was at one time thrown into prison, in 1786 he removed to London, where he was again in difficulties. Just as his prospects had begun to brighten, and as he had arranged with a publisher to produce a work on gout for £500, with literary work mapped out for ten years to come, he was struck down by apoplexy, of which he died, 17th October 1788. His works were edited, with a memoir by his son, Dr William Cullen Brown (3 vols. 1804). The merits and demerits of the Brunonian system continued to be matter of controversy both in Europe and the colonies long after the death of its founder. Vol. ii. of Thomson's *Life of Cullen* (1859) is largely occupied with a discussion of the system; and Hirschel published, in German, a *History of the Brunonian System* (1846).

Brown, JOHN, of Ossawatimie, abolitionist, was born in Torrington, Connecticut, May 9, 1800. Descended in the sixth generation from Peter Brown, a Mayflower pilgrim, he preserved the stern religious enthusiasm of his ancestors. In 1805 his father, Owen, removed to Hudson, Ohio, and in 1812 had a contract to supply Hull's army with beef. John, already a vigorous lad, accompanied his father to Detroit, and acquired a hatred of both war and slavery. He became a tanner and land-surveyor, and from 1825 to 1835 lived at Richmond, Pennsylvania, where he was made postmaster. Returning to Ohio he engaged in land speculations, which proved disastrous, and then turned shepherd. In 1846 he removed to Massachusetts, but in 1848 purchased a farm at North Elba, New York. He wandered much through the country in prosecution of anti-slavery enterprises, in which he was assisted by his family. He was twice married and had twenty children. In 1854 five of his sons removed from Ohio to Kansas, and he joined them in the next year after the border conflict had begun. Brown became a leader in the strife, and two of his sons were arrested by United States cavalry. Soon after the town of Lawrence was sacked by border ruffians, he ordered five pro-slavery men at Pottawatomie to be slain as dangerous. Ossawatimie,

Brown's home, was burned August 30, 1856, and his son killed. When the war in Kansas ceased, Brown began to drill men in Iowa, using rifles which had been sent to him from Massachusetts. His scheme then was to establish a stronghold in the mountains of Virginia as a refuge for runaway slaves. This plan was disapproved by the few to whom he mentioned it, and he resumed anti-slavery work in Southern Kansas. In June 1859 he hired a farm near Harper's Ferry, and here gathered twenty-two men, of whom six were coloured. Boxes of rifles, pistols, and pikes were also received. On Sunday night, October 16, with eighteen men, he broke into the United States armoury in the town and took several citizens prisoners. On Monday some fighting took place, and Colonel Robert E. Lee, with a company of marines, arrived from Washington. Lieutenant J. E. B. Stuart, who accompanied them, recognised Brown, whom he had met in Kansas. Brown, with six men, now driven into the engine-house, refused to surrender, and continued to fight until his two sons were killed and himself severely wounded. Brown was tried by a Virginia court for conspiracy to produce insurrection, for treason, and for murder. He was convicted and hanged at Charlestown, Virginia, December 2, 1859, having shown the utmost firmness throughout his imprisonment. Four of his men were executed with him, and two others later; six escaped. The raid was investigated by a committee of the United States senate. Its full effects were not seen until the civil war was over. Brown's life has been written by James Redpath (1860) and by F. B. Sanborn (1885).

Brown, ROBERT, an eminent botanist, the son of an Episcopal clergyman, was born at Montrose, Scotland, December 21, 1773, and educated there and at Marischal College, Aberdeen. While a student of medicine at the university of Edinburgh, he evinced a strong taste for botanical studies. He became, in 1795, ensign and assistant-surgeon in a Scottish Fencible regiment, with which he went to Ireland. In 1798 he visited London, and was introduced to Sir Joseph Banks, who gave him the free use of his collections and library. Devoting himself to the study of botany, he resigned his commissions in 1800, and the following year was, on the recommendation of Sir Joseph Banks, engaged as naturalist in the expedition sent out under Captain Flinders for the survey of the Australian coasts. On his return in 1805 he brought home, nearly four thousand species of Australian plants, a large proportion of which were new to science. Soon after, he was elected an associate and appointed librarian to the Linnean Society. To the *Transactions* of the Edinburgh Wernerian Society, and those of the Linnean Society, he contributed memoirs on *Asclepiadeae* and *Proteaceae*, and published *Prodromus Florae Novae Hollandiae et Insulae Van Diemen's* (vol. i. 1810); a supplement to this work appeared in 1830, relating to the *Proteaceae* only. He also wrote the *General Remarks on Botany*, attached to the narrative of Captain Flinders' expedition (1814). His adoption of the natural system of Jussieu led to its general substitution in place of the Linnean method. Brown's numerous memoirs in *Transactions* of societies, and other contributions to botanical science, secured for universal approval the title conferred on him by Alexander von Humboldt of 'facile princeps botanicorum.' In 1810 Brown received the charge of the library and splendid collections of Sir Joseph Banks, which in 1827 were transferred to the British Museum, when he was appointed keeper of the botanical department in that establishment. In 1811 he was elected F.R.S.; in 1832, D.C.L. of Oxford; and in 1833 was elected one of the foreign

associates of the Academy of Sciences of the Institute of France. In 1839 the Royal Society awarded him their Copley medal. Sir Robert Peel granted him a pension on the Civil List of £200 a year. He was president of the Linnean Society from 1849 to 1853. Darwin thought him 'chiefly remarkable for the minuteness of his observations, and their perfect accuracy.' His knowledge was extraordinarily great; much of it died with him, however, owing to his morbid fear of committing himself to mistakes. Brown died in London, June 10, 1858. A collected edition of Brown's works was published in Germany in 1825-34. The Ray Society in 1866-68 reprinted his complete works, except the *Prodromus*, under the editorship of Mr J. J. Bennett. See BOTANY.

Brown, THOMAS, a Scottish metaphysician, born in 1778 at the manse of Kirkmabreck, Kirkcudbrightshire, went to Edinburgh in 1792, and for several years attended the university, though without ever completing the arts curriculum. He began the study of the law, but shortly abandoned it for medicine, and became in 1806 the partner of Dr Gregory in his large practice. His strong bent, however, was for literature and philosophical speculation. At the age of twenty he had published a refutation of Darwin's *Zoonomia*, and he contributed at the outset to the *Edinburgh Review*. In 1804 appeared his essay on *Cause and Effect*, in which he holds that there is nothing in a cause but the fact of immediate and invariable antecedence to the change called its effect. Dugald Stewart, professor of Moral Philosophy in the university, being obliged, from bad health, to retire in 1810, Brown was appointed colleague and successor, which office he continued to discharge till his death during a visit to London, 2d April 1820. He was popular as a professor; and his *Lectures*, published after his death, reached its 19th edition in 1851, although the book has now fallen into neglect. He also wrote a good deal of rather indifferent poetry. Brown attempted to overturn the psychological system of his predecessors, Reid and Stewart, and to substitute a new and simplified scheme of mental phenomena. The greater part of this new philosophy was the production of his first session as professor, the writing of each lecture being begun on the evening previous to its delivery. A philosophic system thus improvised could not be but crude and inconsistent, however acute and imaginative its author might be. From their subtlety and originality his works were valuable in their time, as suggesting and advancing the solution of many problems; but the lack of a coherent system, due to their incompleteness, will largely account for their having been superseded by later writings. Brown's chief contribution to psychology is the establishment of a sixth or *muscular sense*.

Brown, TOM, 'of facetious memory' in Addison's phrase, was born at Shiffnal, Shropshire, in 1663. His studies at Christ Church, Oxford, were most probably cut short by his irregularities, but are remembered by his clever extempore translation and application to Dr Fell, the dean of Christ Church, of Martial's epigram, 'Non amo te, Sabidi:' 'I do not love thee, Dr Fell, the reason why I cannot tell.' After a few years of teaching at Kingston-on-Thames, he settled in London, where he made an uncertain living by writing satirical poems and pamphlets, many of them remarkable more for their vigour and scurrility than their wit. He is principally interesting now as the assailant of much better men than himself, among them Dryden, Sherlock, Tom Dufey, and Sir Richard Blackmore. He lived a shifty and

disreputable life, and died 16th June 1704, being fittingly buried near his friend, Mrs Afra Behn. His works were collected into 3 vols. (1707-8).

Brown, SIR WILLIAM, founder of the Liverpool Free Library, was born at Ballymena, County Antrim, in 1784, and sailed in 1800 with his parents for Baltimore, U.S. Returning in 1809, he established at Liverpool a branch of his father's linen business, and laid the foundation of one of the largest mercantile firms in the world. A liberal reformer and able advocate of a decimal coinage, he took a prominent part in local and public affairs, and unceasingly promoted the education of the people. In 1844 he vainly contested South Lancashire, but was returned for it in 1846, and was thrice afterwards re-elected. In 1857, at a cost to himself of £40,000, he founded the Free Public Library of Liverpool, and in 1859 he raised a corps of volunteer artillery. He was made a baronet in 1863, and died 3d March 1864, leaving a fortune of £900,000 personality.

Brown Coal. See LIGNITE.

Browne, CHARLES FARRAR, American humorist, commonly known by his pseudonym 'Artemus Ward,' was born in Waterford, Maine, 26th April 1834. Having learned type-setting in a newspaper-office at Skowhegan, Maine, he soon removed to Boston, and thence to Toledo and Cleveland. Meantime he had become a reporter and contributor to the newspapers. In 1858, under the style of 'Artemus Ward, showman,' he wrote for the *Cleveland Plaindealer* a description of an imaginary travelling menagerie. This was followed by letters professedly from the same source, in which grotesque spelling and an inextricable interweaving of business puffery and moralising served to convey sound sense and shrewd satire. The letters were widely circulated, and the author was invited to a share in the editorship of a new comic paper, *Vanity Fair*, in New York. In the stress of war times the paper failed, after a brilliant career, and in December 1861 'Artemus Ward' entered the lecture field. Under the title, *The Babes in the Wood*, he delivered a telling satire on the dull twaddle which had been imposed on the public by pompous bores. Such was its success that a theatrical manager in California telegraphed to him, 'What will you take for forty nights in California? Answer immediately.' His prompt reply, 'Brandy-and-water,' assured him a welcome among the miners. Making his way thither by stage-coach over the plains and Rocky Mountains, 'Ward' had some experience with the Indians, and especially with the Mormons, 'whose religion,' he afterwards explained, 'is singular, but their wives are plural.' As an adjunct to his lectures on these attractive topics, he got a panorama, whose artistic wretchedness furnished occasion for countless jokes. In 1864 the lecturer was disabled by pulmonary consumption. In 1866, having rallied somewhat, he went to England, where he was received in the most friendly manner. He contributed to *Punch*, still in the character of 'the genial showman.' In November he opened the exhibition of his panorama in Egyptian Hall in London, and achieved great popularity as a representative of American humour. Though the seal of death was on his features, he did not abate any of his quaint originality and amusing satire. His keen observation and graphic revelation of human nature stood forth from a background of truisms, which removed for a time any suspicion that the satire was aimed at the audience. In February 1867 Browne went for the benefit of his health to the Isle of Jersey, but returned to die at Southampton, England, 6th March 1867. He was deeply beloved by his asso-

ciates, and tenderly devoted to his mother, to whom he left a modest competence. His writings were gathered into several volumes: *Artemus Ward, His Book* (1862); *Artemus Ward, His Panorama* (1865); *Artemus Ward among the Mormons* (1866); *Artemus Ward in England* (1867).

Browne, EDWARD HAROLD, divine, was born 6th March 1811, at Morton House, Bucks, and educated at Eton, and at Emmanuel College, Cambridge, where he became fellow and tutor. He became professor of Hebrew at Lampeter (1841), and Norrisian professor of Divinity at Cambridge (1854); was consecrated Bishop of Ely in 1864, and translated to Winchester in 1873. His works comprise several volumes of sermons, a book on the Pentateuch, and the well-known *Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles* (1850; 12th ed. 1882).

Browne, HABLOT KNIGHT, artist, the 'Phiz' of many clever and humorous book-illustrations, was born at Kennington, Surrey, 15th June 1815. He early showed a strong taste for drawing, and was apprenticed to Finden; but the laborious methods of line-engraving were little to his taste, and he took to the freer processes of etching and water-colour painting, and in 1833 gained a medal from the Society of Arts for an etching of 'John Gilpin.' In 1836 Browne succeeded Seymour and R. W. Buss as illustrator of Dickens's *Pickwick*, competing successfully against Thackeray for the work; and he soon enjoyed a reputation which was continued and preserved by his designs to *Nicholas Nickleby*, *Master Humphrey's Clock*, *Martin Chuzzlewit*, *Domby*, *David Copperfield*, *Black House*, *Little Dorrit*, and *A Tale of Two Cities*. He also illustrated many of Lever's and several of Ainsworth's novels. He laboured for thirty years with unceasing activity, save for occasional breaks during the hunting-season, and a little travel. In 1867 he was struck with paralysis; he died at West Brighton, 8th July 1882. His son, W. Gordon Browne, is also known as a book-illustrator. See Life, by D. C. Thomson (1884).

Browne, ROBERT, founder of the Brownists, was born about 1550 at Toilethorpe, Rutlandshire, and after graduating at Cambridge in 1572, was a schoolmaster in London, and an open-air preacher. In 1580 he began to attack the order and discipline of the Established Church, and soon after formed a distinct church on congregational principles at Norwich. Committed by Bishop Freake to the custody of the sheriff, he was released through the influence of his kinsman, Lord Burghley; but in 1581, with his followers, was obliged to take refuge at Middelburg, in Holland. In 1584 he returned, *via* Scotland, to England, and reconciling himself to the Established Church, in 1586 became master of Stamford grammar-school, in 1591 rector of a church, Northamptonshire. Of a very violent temper, he was, when eighty years old, sent to Northampton jail for an assault on a constable, and in jail he died about 1633. The Brownists continued, notwithstanding their leader's defection, to subsist as a separate sect for some time both in Holland (among the English there) and in England. From Holland many of them sailed for America in 1670, the rest being absorbed in the Presbyterian Church in 1701; in England, they may be said to have given birth to the Independents or Congregationalists.

Browne, SIR THOMAS, author of the *Religio Medici*, was born in London, October 19, 1605, the son of a mercer of good family at Upton in Cheshire. His father died early, and his mother married again, leaving her son to the care of a rapacious guardian who seems to have made inroads upon his ward's fortune of £6000. He was educated at Winchester College and at Broadgate Hall (now

Pembroke College), Oxford, graduating B.A. in 1626 and M.A. in 1629. He next studied medicine, travelled in Ireland, France, and Italy, continued his medical studies at Montpellier and Padua, graduated as Doctor of Medicine at Leyden about 1633, and at Oxford in 1637, settling the same year at Norwich. He lived calmly throughout the troubles of the Civil War; maintained an active correspondence with some of the most learned antiquaries and scientists of his time, as Evelyn, Dugdale, Elias Ashmole, and Ray the naturalist; and was knighted by Charles II. on his visit to Norwich in 1671. He had married Dorothy Mileham in 1641, and his domestic letters that have been preserved give glimpses of a home-life of singular happiness. Of his twelve children, but one son and three daughters survived him. He died on the day on which he had completed his seventy-seventh year, 19th October 1682, and was buried in the church of St Peter's, Mancroft, where his coffin was accidentally discovered by some workmen in 1840. The skull, which was well preserved, was 'knave'd out of its grave' and placed in the hospital-museum—a 'tragical abomination' that the men of Norwich might well have spared their greatest citizen.

Sir Thomas Browne's greatest work is his earliest, the *Religio Medici*, written about 1635 at Shipden Hall near Halifax, after his return from his travels, when his life was still a 'miracle of thirty years.' He tells us in the preface that it was composed 'at leisurable hours' for his 'private exercise and satisfaction,' and that 'the intention was not publick.' Two surreptitious editions published in 1642 obliged the author to issue an authorised edition in 1643. The book did not need Sir Kenelm Digby's 'observations' to make it at once famous if not popular. It was translated into Latin, and had the honour to be inserted in the *Index Expurgatorius*. Certain passages gave rise to much undeserved misrepresentation of its author's religious opinions, although, as Dr Johnson says, 'it is no difficult task to replace him among the most zealous professors of Christianity.' The book indeed is a kind of confession of faith, though it is more of a contribution to piety than to faith. It is the spiritual self-revelation of a nature of rare beauty and attractiveness, and the sympathetic reader is startled by occasional passages that reveal a depth of insight into the dim mysteries of the spiritual life that seems as unconscious as it is unexpected. 'Wingy mysteries in divinity and airy subtleties in religion' had ever a strange charm for the speculative side of Browne's intellect. He loves to abandon his mind to a full sense of the mysterious in religion. 'There are not impossibilities enough,' he says, 'in religion for an active faith. . . . I love to lose myself in a mystery, to pursue my reason to an *O altitudo!*' The book, moreover, reveals a lofty toleration for conditions of life and opinion widely different from the author's own, and a rare width of spiritual sympathy, extending even to virtuous heathens and to those ceremonies which 'misguided zeal terms superstition.' It is startling to find such a sentence as the following in a seventeenth-century writer: 'Persecution is a bad and indirect way to plant religion. It hath been the unhappy method of angry devotion.' Unfortunately, the clear-sighted thinker was not in all points before his time. He makes avowal here of his belief in the existence of witches, and a pitiful commentary on this was his opinion given at the request of the Lord Chief-justice, Sir Matthew Hale, during the trial of two women for witchcraft at Bury St Edmunds in 1604, which doubtless helped to send the unhappy victims to their doom.

Sir Thomas Browne's next work was *Pseudo-*

doxia Epidemica, or Enquiries into very many received tenets and commonly presumed truths, which examined prove but Vulgar and Common Errors (1646), a strange amalgam of humour, acuteness, and credulity. This is by far the largest and most elaborate of his works, yet even it is entirely discursive and occasional. It contains the most remarkable out-of-the-way learning, lightened up by grave humour; here and there a really acute scientific remark alternating with a laboured and serious discussion of such old popular opinions about natural objects as have long since passed into absurdities.

In 1658 appeared *Hydriotaphia; Urn Burial, or a Discourse of the Sepulchral Urns lately found in Norfolk; and The Garden of Cyrus, or the Quincuncial Lozenge, net-work plantations of the Ancients, artificially, naturally, mystically considered*. The former is mainly an elaborate discussion of the burial-customs in various countries at various times, showing all the author's vast and curious learning set in language of such rich and gorgeous eloquence that its splendid roll is not surpassed by the very loftiest passages in Jeremy Taylor or Milton. The echoes of the sombre and sonorous eloquence of its concluding chapter—a solemn homily on death and immortality—will never die away from the ear of a reader with any sense for the finest cadences of majestic and impassioned English.

The *Garden of Cyrus* is the most fantastic of Browne's writings. Its aim is to show that the number five pervaded not only all the horticulture of antiquity, but that it recurs throughout all plant-life, as well as the 'figurations' of animals. From the date of the above (1658) Sir Thomas Browne published nothing, but after his death appeared (1683) a collection of *Miscellany Tracts* under the editorship of Archbishop Tenison. These were reprinted in the folio edition of his works published in 1686. The *Letter to a Friend upon occasion of the death of his intimate friend* first appeared in 1690. Not a few passages in this work were worthy of the master's hand. In 1712 appeared *Posthumous Works of the learned Sir Thomas Browne*, containing some new papers, together with a reprint of the *Letter to a Friend*. The *Christian Morals*, an incomplete work, evidently intended to have been a continuation of the *Religio Medici*, was first published in 1716 by Archdeacon Jeffery.

Sir Thomas Browne's works are unsystematic and unequal—there is an unpremeditated desultoriness throughout that strikes an observant reader. His thought, no less than his style, is strikingly original, marked by high and occasionally transcendent intellectual power, often expressed with quaint humour or searching pathos, and always carrying with it a strange impressiveness. His favourite theme throughout all his books is ever the mystery of death and what lies beyond the grave, and the visible signs of mortality mean as much to him as they did to Shakespeare himself as a text from which to descant on what transcends the little sphere of human life. His style is too peculiar, idiomatic, and indeed difficult, ever to be generally popular, and it must be admitted that his studious brevity often falls pitifully into obscurity. In his own words, 'the quality of the subject will sometimes carry us into expressions beyond mere English apprehensions;' and indeed no writer has equalled him in the free coinage of Latinisms. Our language was then in a transition stage as a medium for expressing high thinking in prose, and some extenuation for his long and sonorous Latinisms may be found in the difficulty of finding at that period, alike in sound and sense, adequate English words for ideas so remote and extraordinary. It may be well for our language that such words

as *manuduction, supputation, assuefaction, magnalities, omnity, opinionatry, and respiscency* have never passed into general usage; but at least it cannot be denied that in Sir Thomas Browne's pages even these are rhetorically in perfect harmony with the thought, and help to give his rhythm that roll which resembles nothing so much as the sound of the distant sea breaking in long billows on the shore. Browne's influence on English literature has been deep, if not wide in extent. No writer bears the impress of his influence more strongly marked, alike in style and cast of thought, than Charles Lamb, who indeed boasts that he was the first 'among the moderns' to discover his excellencies. De Quincey ranks Sir Thomas Browne with Jeremy Taylor as the richest and most dazzling of rhetoricians, and Mr Lowell calls him 'our most imaginative mind since Shakespeare:' perhaps it is truer to say that his supremest merit rests in his being the highest type of the profound humorist, to whom 'all existence had been but food for contemplation.'

The only complete collection of Sir Thomas Browne's works is the monumental edition of Simon Wilkin (4 vols. Pickering, 1835-36), the labour of twelve years. Dr Greenhill's scholarly edition of the *Religio Medici* appeared in 1881. The best life is still that by Dr Johnson, with Wilkin's 'Supplementary Memoir.'

Browne, ULYSSES MAXIMILIAN, COUNT, born at Basel, 23d October 1705, of an Irish Jacobite family, entered the Austrian service at the age of twelve, and became one of the foremost field-m Marshals' in the army of Maria Theresa. As governor of Silesia (1739-42), he had to face the first of Frederick the Great's attacks, and in the Seven Years' War he commanded the Austrians at Lobositz (1756). He was mortally wounded at the battle of Prague, and died June 26, 1757.

Browne, WILLIAM, English pastoral poet, was born at Tavistock in 1591. He had his education at Exeter College, Oxford, was next a student at the Inner Temple, then tutor to Robert Dormer, the future Earl of Carnarvon. According to Wood he was taken into the household of the Herberts at Wilton, where he 'got wealth and purchased an estate.' But little is known of his life. He was living at Dorking about the close of 1640, and seems to have died about 1643. His great work was *Britannia's Pastorals* (books i. ii. 1613-16; reprinted 1625). Browne here shows a fine descriptive faculty, and rich poetry gleams through his quaint and tedious allegorising. A third book was printed by the Percy Society in 1852; and by W. C. Hazlitt in his collective edition of Browne's works for the Roxburghe Club (2 vols. 1868). The only other work that needs mention is *The Shepherd's Pipe* (1614), a collection of eclogues. Browne was read by Milton and Keats, and himself was a devoted imitator of Spenser.

Brownian Movements. When small solid particles—e.g. of gamboge—suspended in water are viewed through the microscope, they are seen to be in incessant vibratory motion. The same movements are also manifested by microscopic germs, but are easily distinguished from those proper to the active state of these, there being no motion of translation in the former case. This observation was first made by the botanist, Robert Brown, whence the name. Its physical cause is somewhat obscure, but the late W. Stanley Jevons showed that these movements (for which he proposed the name *diapedesis*) varied greatly in proportion as the surface tension of the fluid was modified by the addition of other substances in solution. Soap greatly increases the amplitude of these vibrations, hence, according to Jevons, we have an at least

partial explanation of the facility with which it detaches foreign particles.

Brownie, a kind of domestic spirit in the folklore of Scotland, represented as a good-humoured drudging goblin, who attached himself to farm-houses and other dwellings in the country, and occupied himself over night, while the family were in bed, in doing any kind of work, as churning, thrashing corn, and the like. He was neither seen nor spoken to, but was known only by the obliging performance of his voluntarily undertaken labours, and his sole reward was a dish of cream left out for him. His services were much valued by good housewives, 'who,' says King James I., 'were so blinded as to believe that their house was all the sonnier, as they called it, that such spirits resorted there.' The resemblance of the Scotch brownie to the *Robin Goodfellow* of English, and the *Kobold* of German folklore is obvious, but perhaps they may be traced further to the *lares* or hearth spirits of the ancients. The Russian *domoroy*, Mr Ralston tells us, lives behind the stove, and in some families a portion of the supper is always set aside for him; for if he is neglected he waxes wroth and knocks the tables and benches about at night. Spirits with the same functions elsewhere are the Lithuanian *kanka*, the Finnish *paara*, and the French *lutin*.

Browning, ELIZABETH BARRETT, the most distinguished of modern poetesses, was born at Carlton Hall, Durham, March 6, 1806. Her father, Mr Edward Moulton, assumed the surname of Barrett on succeeding to estates in Jamaica. The family afterwards settled at Hope End, near Ledbury, in Herefordshire. Miss Barrett's childhood was nurtured amid beautiful scenery and the happiest of home influences. Her extraordinary talents were very early developed. At ten she was able to read Homer in the original, and at fourteen years of age she wrote an epic on *The Battle of Marathon*. About 1824 she seriously injured her spine, the result of an accident while endeavouring to saddle her horse. She was compelled for a long period to remain in a recumbent position. After her mother's death the family went to Sidmouth, and subsequently settled in London. Miss Barrett's *Essay on Mind, and other Poems*, was published when she was nineteen years of age. This was succeeded by *The Seraphim, and other Poems* (1839), in which volume was republished the fine poem on Cowper's grave. Shortly after this time she was taken to Torquay for the benefit of her health, and during her stay at that place a tragic incident occurred, which, in her own language, 'gave a nightmare to her life for ever.' Her brother Edward, who had gone down to see her, went out in a skiff with some friends, and the whole party were drowned in Babbicombe Bay. The shock was a terrible one for Miss Barrett, and even after her return to her father's town residence in Gloucester Place she remained an invalid, and was confined for many years to the sickroom. Her genius, however, was strongly fostered by her relative, Mr Kenyon. In 1844 appeared *Poems* by E. Barrett, which contained, amongst other stirring lyrics, *The Cry of the Children*, a noble outburst over the wrongs of young children employed in factories. Early in 1846 she first saw Robert Browning, whom she had described, when writing of himself and other poets, as a 'pomegranate which, if cut deep down the middle, shows a heart within, blood-tinctured, of a veined humanity.' The two were married in the following autumn, and in consequence of her fragile health, Mr Browning immediately took his wife abroad. *Poems* by E. B. Browning appeared in 1850, containing new poems, and an

entirely new translation of the *Prometheus Bound* of Æschylus. This remarkable version testified to the learning as well as the genius of the translator. The Brownings settled in Florence, where a son, Robert Barrett, was born to them in 1849. While in Italy they were visited by many friends, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Walter Savage Landor, W. W. Story, and others, who were invariably struck by the sweet demeanour and pure and loving spirit of Mrs Browning. She was described as 'a soul of fire inclosed in a shell of pearl.' In 1851 Mrs Browning wrote her poem entitled *Casa Guidi Windows*, in which she expressed her earnest sympathy with the movement for the regeneration of Italy, her adopted country. George Eliot observed of this poem that, *inter alia*, it is 'a very noble expression of the true relation of the religious mind of the past to that of the present.' *Aurora Leigh*, published in 1851, the authoress described as 'the most mature of my works, the one into which my highest convictions of work and art have entered.' It is a bold, beautiful, and strikingly human poem, into which all the treasures of its writer's mind and heart have been poured. In her later works an added strength and impressiveness are to be found, the result of the influence of her husband. In *Poems before Congress*, which appeared in 1860, Mrs Browning again manifested her interest in public affairs, and especially in the development of Italian freedom. It was her deep feeling for the Italian cause which led her to hail Napoleon III. with admiration and enthusiasm as the liberator of the land of her adoption from the yoke of despotism. Mrs Browning died at Florence on June 30, 1861. The same month had witnessed the death of the great and patriotic statesman Cavour, and it is said that his end hastened her own. A tablet, voted by the municipality of Florence, with an inscription by Tommaseo, has been placed to Mrs Browning's memory on the walls of Casa Guidi.

In 1862 the *Last Poems* of the deceased were published by her husband. These posthumous effusions included several translations written in early life. Mrs Browning's *Greek Christian Poets and the English Poets*, also published posthumously by Mr Browning, appeared in 1863. The work consisted of prose essays and translations, originally published in the *Athenæum* in 1842. Since Mrs Browning's death, various selections from her works, and illustrated editions of certain of her poems, have appeared in England and the United States. The genius of this writer is incontestable. Her view of life was lofty and serene, and she has inscribed in immortal verse the highest and most sacred aspirations of the human heart. As a poet, her diction was at times splendidly fervid, and always musical and beautiful. She had a fine sensibility, an almost painful delicacy of perception, and a true woman's heart. Her *Sonnets from the Portuguese* are amongst the best love poems in the language. Her genius taken as a whole, but few of her sex approach her in strength, imagination, and knowledge. Her letters also, like her achievements in verse, were full of learning, of poetic fancy, and of spiritual insight. She has adorned English literature with poems which can never cease to be held in remembrance by a grateful and admiring posterity. See her *Letters to R. H. Horne*, edited by Mayer (1876).

Browning, ROBERT, the most subtle and intellectual of contemporary English poets, was born at Camberwell, May 7, 1812. His father, a man of parts, was engaged in the city of London. The future poet, after receiving a local education, attended lectures at University College, and then travelled abroad. From his earliest years he had been accustomed to write verse, and while still a youth, acquired the

triple reputation of poet, musician, and modeller. *Pauline*, a dramatic poem, written at the age of nineteen, was published in 1833. Two years later appeared his *Paracelsus*, which revealed a greater force. Its energy, its boldness of thought, its lofty aspirations, and its grip of human passion, stamped the author as one of the most promising of the younger poets. In 1837 he wrote (for Macready) his first tragedy, *Strafford*, but this and subsequent plays were not of the usual popular stage order. *Sordello*, which for its involutions of thought has given more trouble to Browning's readers than any other of his works, appeared in 1840. In it the author traces the development of a soul, following his hero (an Italian poet named by Dante) until his ambition closes in death. A series of plays, tragedies, and dramatic lyrics was issued under the collective title of *Bells and Pomegranates* (1841-46). The plays included *Pippa Passes*, *King Victor and King Charles*, and *Colombe's Birthday*; and the tragedies *The Return of the Druses*, *A Blot on the 'Scutcheon* (produced at Drury Lane), *Luria*, and *A Soul's Tragedy*. Amongst the lyrics were *How they Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix*, *Soul*, *The Lost Leader*, and *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*—poems which became, and still remain, the most popular of all Browning's writings. In these lyrical efforts the poet pressed into his service, in a masterly degree, humour, pathos, passion, and tenderness; while the whole were distinguished for their ringing and melodious versification. Browning married in 1846 Elizabeth Barrett Barrett, herself a poetess of high and noble gifts, and with her he went to Florence, where they lived for fifteen years in perfect and happy union. In 1850 Browning published *Christmas Eve and Easter Day*, poems which defend catholicity in religion, the good to be discovered in the varying forms of Christianity. *Men and Women*, which appeared in 1855, contained some of its author's finest work, including the stirring poems of *Fra Lippo*, *Childe Roland*, *Andrea del Sarto*, *Evelyn Hope*, *Holy Cross Day*, and *Up at a Villa*.

After the death of his wife in 1861, the poet settled permanently in London with his only son. *Dramatis Personæ*, issued in 1864, again attested the strength of Browning's dramatic gifts in monologue. These poems included *Abt Vogler*, *Caliban*, *A Death in the Desert*, and *Rabbi ben Ezra*, in which the writer unfolded his views upon music, philosophy, and the higher questions affecting life and immortality. Browning was elected an Honorary Fellow of Balliol in 1867. The same year he was made M.A. of Oxford, and at a later period received the honorary degree of LL.D. from Cambridge. Other distinctions of a similar character have also been conferred upon him. Browning's generally-accepted masterpiece, *The Ring and the Book*, was published in 1869. It is an epic dealing with the passions of humanity in a manner most searching and complete, and having for its basis the narrative of a murder by an Italian count, as related by the various persons concerned in the tragedy. The intellectual labour involved in this stupendous achievement, which embraces 21,116 lines, is immense, and there are many poetic passages scattered throughout the work which are as splendidly beautiful as anything that has been written in verse since the 16th century. *Heré Riel*, a poem upon a French sailor hero, was published in 1871, the proceeds being given to the fund for the relief of Paris. From 1871 onward, works by Browning appeared in rapid succession. *Balanstion's Adventure* (1871), with the *Alkestis* of Euripides in an English dress, was the poet's first essay in Greek subjects; *Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau, Saviour of Society*, dealt with the career of Louis-Napoleon; *Fifine at the Fair* (1872) handled a

question in morals very powerfully; *Red-cotton Night-cup Country* (1873) told the story of a famous Norman law case; *Aristophanes' Apology* (1875) was a second venture amongst the great Greek poets; *The Inn Album* (1875) was a graphic story of a deeply-wronged woman; *Pacchiarotto, and How He worked in Distemper* (1876), gave the author an opportunity of defending his poetic methods; the *Agamemnon* of Æschylus (1877) was a graphic transcript of that famous work; and *La Saisiaz, the Two Poets of Croisic* (1878), advanced a strong vindication of the faith in a future life. Two volumes of *Dramatic Idyls* (1879-80) may be described as vigorous character sketches, each idyl having a distinct and leading purpose. All are intense in their realism, and across the page constantly breaks the strong lightning flash of genius. *Jocoseria*, a volume containing a number of narrative poems, was published in 1883; and in 1884 appeared *Perishable Fancies*, a work consisting of twelve poems, each dealing with some profound question touching the relations of man with the divine. *Parleyings with Certain People of Importance in their Day* was issued in 1887. Here again the author adopted his favourite method of developing through the medium of narrative his views upon important philosophical, literary, artistic, and other questions. The 'Browning Society' was established in 1881 for the purpose of promoting the study and influence of the poet's works, and the example of London has been followed by many other large centres in Great Britain, the colonies, and the United States. As a poet, Browning is distinguished for his capacity in the creation of real men and women, and also for the depth of his spiritual insight. His lyrical faculty, dramatic energy, and power of psychological analysis have rarely been equalled. Besides being one of the most erudite of poets, he has intense human sympathy and high imaginative gifts, and a profound and vigorous faith. His style is too frequently obscure and difficult, his versification hard and rugged, and his rhymes forced. Mr Browning's son, R. B. Browning (born 1849), is a promising artist. See the *Browning Society's Papers*, Furnivall's *Browning Bibliography*, Mrs Sutherland Orr's *Handbook to Browning* (1885), with minor works by Symons (1887) and Fotheringham (1887). A new and uniform edition of his works was begun in 1888.

Brownists. See BROWNE, ROBERT.

Brown Pigments, a term in art applied to those substances in which the three primary colours unite in unequal proportions, red being in excess. Brown pigments are chiefly mineral, and are used sometimes in a raw but usually in a burned state. The most important are Caledonian brown, Cappah brown, umber, terra di sienna, Mars brown, Cassel earth, sepia, and brown madder. According to the pigment, the character of the colour is a yellow-brown, red-brown, purple-brown, &c. For browns on glass and pottery, see these heads; and for brown dyes, see DYEING.

Brown-Séguard, EDOUARD, physiologist and physician, was born in Mauritius in 1818, his father being a sea-captain from Philadelphia, U.S., who married on the island a lady called Séguard. The son studied at Paris, and graduated M.D. in 1846. He devoted himself mainly to physiological research, and received numerous prizes, French and British, for the results of valuable experiments on blood, muscular irritability, animal heat, the spinal cord, and the nervous system. In 1864 he became professor of Physiology at Harvard, but in 1869 returned to Paris as professor of Pathology in the School of Medicine. In 1873 he became a medical practitioner in New York, treating specially dis-

eases of the nervous system; and in 1878 he succeeded Claude Bernard as professor of Experimental Medicine at the Collège de France. He has repeatedly lectured in England also. He has published lectures on *Physiology and Pathology of the Nervous System* (Phila. 1860), on *Paralysis of the Lower Extremities* (1860), and on *Nervous Affections* (1873). See *Notice sur les Travaux Scientifiques de Brown-Séguard* (Paris, 1883).

Brownson, ORESTES AUGUSTUS, a versatile American writer, born at Stockbridge, Vermont, in 1803. In turn a Presbyterian, a Universalist, and next a Unitarian pastor, in 1844 he found rest in the Roman Catholic communion. Throughout his life he wrote with ability and warmth in defence of his opinions at the time, and took an active interest in social and political questions. His most important work was published in the *Boston Quarterly Review*, and afterwards in *Brownson's Review*. He died at Detroit, April 17, 1876. Among his books are *Charles Elwood, or the Infidel Converted* (1840), *The Spirit-rapper* (1854), and *The Convert* (1857), all with an autobiographic interest; and *The American Republic, its Constitution, Tendencies, and Destiny* (1865).

Brown Spar, a name often given by mineralogists to certain varieties of Dolomite (q.v.), or magnesian limestone, of not unfrequent occurrence, distinguished by a brownish or reddish colour, and a pearly lustre, upon account of which they are also sometimes called *pearl spar*.

Brownsville, a port of entry and capital of Cameron county, Texas, on the north bank of the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoros, about 35 miles from the mouth of the river in the Gulf of Mexico. It has a custom-house, and some river trade by steamers. The Rio Grande Railroad connects it with Point Isabel, 22 miles E., near the gulf. In May 1846 the town was occupied and fortified by a few United States troops, who maintained their position in the face of a heavy bombardment that lasted for 160 hours. Pop. (1870) 4905; (1880) 4038.

Broxburn, a mining and manufacturing village of Linlithgowshire, on the Union Canal, 12 miles W. of Edinburgh. It is chiefly notable for its shale-oil works. Those of the Broxburn Oil Company, built in 1878, employ about 1600 men, and turn out annually about 10,000,000 gallons of crude paraffin oil from the shale mined in the neighbourhood, besides paraffin candles, paraffin wax, sulphate of ammonia, and other bye-products. Pop. (1871) 1457; (1881) 3210.

Bruce, the surname of a family illustrious in Scottish history, descended from Robert de Bruis, a Norman knight, who accompanied William the Conqueror to England in 1066. The name, which is undoubtedly territorial, can probably be traced to the lands and castles of Bruis, near Cherbourg in Normandy. The first Robert de Bruis received extensive lands chiefly in Yorkshire. His son, the second Robert, was a companion in arms of Prince David of Scotland, afterwards David I., from whom he received a grant of the lordship of Annandale. At the commencement of the war in England between Stephen and Matilda, niece of the king of Scots, Robert de Bruis adhered to the former, and renounced his allegiance to David, resigning his lands in Annandale to his son Robert. In 1138 he was sent by the barons of the north of England to negotiate with David, who had advanced in support of his niece's claims as far as Northallerton, Yorkshire. In the battle of the Standard which followed, tradition relates that he took prisoner his son Robert, then fourteen years of age, who, as lord of Annandale, fought on the Scottish side. He died in 1141. His English estates were inherited by his eldest son, Adam, whose male line terminated in

Peter Bruce of Skelton, Constable of Scarborough Castle in 1271. Robert Bruce, second lord of Annandale, had two sons: Robert—who married a natural daughter of William the Lion, and died, without issue, before 1191—and William, whose son, Robert, fourth lord of Annandale, married Isabel, second daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon and Chester, brother of William the Lion, and thus laid the foundation of the royal House of Bruce. He died in 1245.

ROBERT DE BRUCE, fifth lord of Annandale, son of the fourth lord above mentioned, and the competitor with John Baliol for the crown of Scotland, was born in 1210. On the death of his mother, the Princess Isabel, in 1251, he did homage to Henry III. for her lands in England, and in 1255 was made Sheriff of Cumberland, and Constable of the castle of Carlisle. About the same time he was appointed one of the fifteen regents of Scotland during the minority of Alexander III. In 1264 he led, with Comyn and Baliol, the Scottish auxiliaries to the assistance of the English monarch at the battle of Lewes, where he was taken prisoner, but released after the battle of Evesham, the following year. On the Scottish throne becoming vacant at the death, in 1290, of Margaret, the 'Maid of Norway,' granddaughter of Alexander III., Baliol and Bruce claimed the succession, the former as great-grandson of David, Earl of Huntingdon, by his eldest daughter, Margaret; the latter as grandson, by his second daughter, Isabel. Edward I. of England, to whom the dispute was referred, decided in favour of Baliol in 1292. To avoid swearing fealty to his successful rival, Bruce resigned Annandale to his eldest son, Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick. He died at his castle of Lochmaben, Dumfriesshire, in 1295, leaving three sons and a daughter.

ROBERT DE BRUCE, Earl of Carrick, eldest son of the preceding, is said to have accompanied King Edward I. of England to Palestine in 1269, and was ever after greatly esteemed by that monarch. On his return to Scotland, he married, in 1271, Marjory, Countess of Carrick, and in her right became Earl of Carrick. In 1292 he resigned the earldom of Carrick to his eldest son, Robert, the future king of Scotland, then a minor. On the death of his father in 1295 he did homage to Edward for his English lands, and was appointed keeper of the castle of Carlisle, and in the following year, when Baliol renounced the authority of Edward, Bruce fought on the side of the English. After the battle of Dunbar, in which the Scots were defeated, and Baliol compelled to relinquish the sovereignty, he made application to Edward for the vacant crown, but was refused it. He afterwards went to live on his English estates, where he died in 1304.

ROBERT BRUCE, the most heroic of the Scottish kings, eldest son of the preceding, was born in 1274. In his youth he favoured the English interests, in the expectation, doubtless, of his father being preferred to the Scottish throne. In 1296, as Earl of Carrick, he swore fealty to Edward I. at Berwick, and the following year he renewed his oath of homage at Carlisle. Shortly after, he abandoned the cause of Edward, and with his Carrick vassals joined the Scottish revolt under Wallace. By the Capitulation of Irvine, however, Bruce speedily made his peace with the English monarch. In 1298, the year of the Scottish defeat at Falkirk, Bruce again rose against Edward. He had his lands wasted by the English, and he burned the town of Ayr. But Edward did not proceed to extremities against him. Though Bruce was one of the four regents of Scotland in 1299, he did not again fight against Edward till the final rising in 1306. But while publicly an adherent of the English king, Bruce had entered into

a secret alliance with Lamberton, Bishop of St Andrews, one of the most patriotic of the Scottish clergy. The decisive step was taken by the murder of Comyn at Dumfries. With John Comyn, called the Red Comyn, the nephew of Baliol, he seems to have entered into some agreement as to their rival claims to the throne. They met in the church of the Minorite Friars, Dumfries (10th February 1306); a quarrel took place; and Bruce, in a paroxysm of passion, stabbed Comyn with his dagger. Rushing out to his attendants, he exclaimed: 'I must be off, for I doubt I have slain the Red Comyn.' 'Doubt!' cried Kirkpatrick of Closeburn; 'I mak sikker!' (i.e. sure), and running into the church, despatched Comyn.

The motives and circumstances that led Bruce to the murder of Comyn are not quite clear, but the die was now cast. Bruce hastened to Lochmaben Castle, assembled his vassals, and asserted his right to the throne. Two months later, he was crowned king at Scone. An English army, under the Earl of Pembroke, nominated by Edward governor of Scotland, took possession of Perth, and surprised Bruce in the wood of Methven, compelling him to retreat into the wilds of Athole. At Dalry, near the head of Loch Tay, Bruce was attacked by Alexander, Lord of Lorn, chief of the Macdonalds, the Red Comyn's uncle, and compelled to retire. Sending his queen and her ladies to Kildrummie Castle, Aberdeenshire, under the charge of Nigel Bruce and the Earl of Athole, Bruce continued his wanderings in the West Highlands, and then took refuge in the little island of Rathlin, on the north coast of Ireland, where he remained all winter, supposed to be dead. In his absence, the English took the castle of Kildrummie, hanged Nigel Bruce and other chiefs who had defended it, and tore the queen and Princess Marjory from the sanctuary of St Duthac, at Tain. All Bruce's estates were confiscated, and himself and adherents excommunicated by the pope's legate at Carlisle. In the spring of 1307 Bruce landed in Carrick, and at midnight surprised the English garrison in his own castle of Turnberry; but before a superior force he retired into the mountainous districts of Ayrshire. At Loudon Hill in the same year he defeated the English under the Earl of Pembroke.

The death of King Edward in 1307 was the turning-point in the struggle of Bruce. In the following years the English were cleared out of the country and all the great castles recovered, with the exception of that of Stirling. It too was closely pressed by Edward Bruce, who entered into an arrangement with the governor, Sir Philip Mowbray, by which the latter bound himself to surrender it, if not relieved before 24th June following. This led to the memorable battle of Bannockburn (q.v.), 24th June 1314. The English, under Edward II., amounting, it is said, to about 100,000 men, were totally routed by Bruce with an army less than one-third that number. In 1317 Bruce passed over to Ireland to assist his brother Edward, elected king of that country, and defeated the Anglo-Irish at Slane, in Louth. In the year after Bannockburn the Scots repeatedly invaded England, taking the town of Berwick in 1318. The truce of 1323 for some time put a stop to the struggle; but on the accession of Edward III. in 1327 hostilities recommenced with a great Scottish inroad into the northern counties. The war was at last closed by the Treaty of Northampton (1328), recognising the independence of Scotland, and Bruce's right to the throne. His warfare was now accomplished, and suffering under the disease of leprosy, he spent the last two years of his life at Cardross Castle, on the northern shore of the Firth of Clyde. He died in

1329 in his fifty-fifth year, and the twenty-third of his reign. His heart, extracted and embalmed, was delivered to Sir James Douglas, to be carried to Palestine and buried in Jerusalem. Douglas was killed fighting against the Moors in Spain, and the sacred relic of Bruce, with the body of its devoted champion, was brought to Scotland, and buried in the monastery of Melrose. Bruce's body was interred in the Abbey Church of Dunfermline; and, in clearing the foundations for a third church on the same spot in 1818, his bones were discovered. He was twice married: (1) to Isabella, daughter of Donald, tenth Earl of Mar—issue, a daughter, Marjory, wife of Walter the High Steward, whose son ascended the throne as Robert II.; and (2) to Elizabeth, daughter of Aymer de Burgh, Earl of Ulster—issue, one son, who succeeded him as David II. (q.v.), and two daughters.

EDWARD BRUCE, king of Ireland, brother to the above, a chivalrous but rash and impetuous prince, was actively engaged in the struggle for Scotland's independence; and in 1308, after defeating the English twice, made himself master of Galloway. In 1315 the chieftains of Ulster tendered to him the crown of Ireland on condition of his assisting them to expel the English from the island. With a small army of 6000 men he embarked at Ayr, and reached Carrickfergus in that year, accompanied by Sir Thomas Randolph, Earl of Moray, and other Scottish knights of renown. His rapid victories soon made him master of the province of Ulster; and he was crowned king of Ireland in 1316, but was slain at the battle of Dundalk in 1318.

Bruce, JAMES, 'the Abyssinian,' was born at Kinnaird House, Stirlingshire, December 14, 1730. From Harrow he passed, in the winter of 1747, to the university of Edinburgh, with the intention of studying law; but changing his views, he went to London, and having, in February 1754, married the daughter of a wine-merchant's widow, became a partner in the business. His wife dying within a year, he made a tour on the Continent, and on his father's death in 1758 he succeeded to the estate of Kinnaird. In 1761 he retired from the wine-trade, and in 1763 was appointed consul-general at Algiers. He remained there about two years, studying the oriental languages, and acquiring the rudiments of surgery. He then went to Aleppo, where he took further instructions in the medical art, being resolved to travel in the character of a physician. In June 1768, he proceeded to Alexandria, and from Cairo set out on his famous journey to Abyssinia, which forms an epoch in the annals of discovery. Sailing up the Nile to Syene, he crossed the desert to Cosseir, and arrived at Jeddah in April 1769. After various detentions, he reached Gondar, the capital of Abyssinia, in February 1770; and on November 14 of that year, succeeded in reaching the sources of the Abawi, then considered the main stream of the Nile. This accomplishment of the chief object of his journey filled him with the greatest exultation. He remained about two years in Abyssinia, and returning by way of Sennaar and the desert of Assouan, after great hardship reached Alexandria, whence he embarked (March 1773) for Marseilles. In France he spent a considerable time visiting Buffon and other distinguished men, and in 1774 he returned to Scotland. His long-expected *Travels to Discover the Sources of the Nile, in the Years 1768-73*, were published in 1790, in five large quarto vols., with plates and charts. The work contained such curious accounts of the manners and habits of the people of Abyssinia that it startled the belief of many, and some of them were set down as fabrications. Among other doubters were De Tott in France, and Dr Johnson in England. Modern

travellers, including Pearce, Burekhardt, Belzoni, and others, have, however, testified to his general accuracy. Bruce died April 27, 1794, at Kinnaird, of a fall down-stairs.

Bruce, JOHN COLLINGWOOD, antiquary, born at Newcastle in 1805, graduated at Glasgow in 1826, and was trained for the Presbyterian ministry, but devoted himself to teaching. He was Moderator of the English Presbyterian Church in 1881. His works include *The Roman Wall* (1851; 3d ed. 1866); *The Bayeux Tapestry Elucidated* (1856); *Lapidarium Septentrionale* (1875), an account of all the Roman monuments in the north of England; and a *Handbook to the Roman Wall* (1863; 3d ed. 1885).

Bruce, MICHAEL, Scottish poet, was born 27th March 1746, at Kinnesswood, near the eastern shore of Loch Leven. A weaver's son, he tended sheep in his boyhood, but in 1762 was sent to Edinburgh University to study for the ministry. He had all his life to struggle with poverty; and after he left the university in 1765, and settled as a schoolmaster, first at Gairney Bridge, then near Tillicoultry, to poverty were added sickness and melancholy. He died of consumption, 5th July 1767, aged twenty-one. His tender and pathetic *Poems on Several Occasions*, seventeen in number, were published by the Rev. John Logan, his college friend, in 1770. The authorship of the *Ode to the Cuckoo*, and of some of his hymns, has proved a vexed question of literary controversy, Logan having been charged with appropriating poems by Bruce, and publishing them as his own. Logan's claim is defended by David Laing and J. Small (1873-78), Bruce's by Grosart (1865-80). See the *Life of Bruce* by Mackelvie (1837).

Brucea, a genus of Terebinthaceæ (q.v.), named after the famous Abyssinian traveller.—*B. antidysenterica* or *ferruginea* is an Abyssinian shrub, the leaves of which are said to be tonic, astringent, and useful in dysentery. Those of *B. sumatrana*, a native of the Indian Archipelago, China, &c., possess the same medicinal properties. They are intensely bitter, their properties resembling those of Quassia (q.v.).—The Abyssinian species acquired a factitious importance in the beginning of the 19th century, from a mistaken belief that it produced the dangerous False Angostura Bark (see ANGOSTURA BARK), and in this belief the name *Brucin* (q.v.) was given to an alkaloid really produced by the *Nux Vomica* (q.v.) and other species of *Strychnos* (q.v.).

Bruchsal, a town of Baden, on the Saalbach, 12 miles N.E. of Karlsruhe. The Old Town, around which are four suburbs, contains the castle of the prince-bishops of Spire, who resided here from the 16th century, and whose ancient tombs are pointed out in the church of St Peter. Bruchsal has a large prison organised on a modified form of the Pennsylvania system. Machinery, cigars, paper, and soap are manufactured, and there is an active trade in hops, tobacco, and corn. Pop. (1872) 9762; (1885) 11,657.

Brucin is one of the Alkaloids (q.v.) present in *Strychnos Nux Vomica*, and St Ignatius' bean, along with strychnine, &c. In action it resembles strychnine, but is only about one-twelfth of its strength, and on this account is seldom employed. It is mainly characterised by giving a blood-red colour with concentrated commercial nitric acid, and, indeed, the red colour always yielded by *nux vomica*, and occasionally by strychnine, when treated with nitric acid, is due to the presence of brucin. Brucin is capable of being converted into strychnine by heating it with five times its weight of dilute nitric acid, carbonic acid gas being given off.

Bruck, (1) a walled town, dating from the 3d century, on the Lower Austrian bank of the Leitha, 26 miles SE. of Vienna by rail. Pop. (1880) 4236.—(2) A town of Upper Styria, on the Mur, 108 miles SW. of Vienna by rail, with ironworks, &c. Pop. (1880) 3795.—(3) A market-town of Bavaria, 15 miles W. of Munich by rail, with the Cistercian monastery, Fürstenfeld, founded in 1266, now used as barracks. Pop. (1885) 3418.

Brückenau, a small town of Bavaria, on the Sinn, 17 miles NW. of Kissingen. The baths of Brückenau are picturesquely situated in the valley of the Sinn, about 2 miles from the town. The three warm springs are chiefly of use in nervous affections and cutaneous diseases. The grounds are tastefully laid out in gardens, and charming walks traverse the surrounding woods. Pop. (1885) 1592.

Brucker, JOHANN JAKOB, historian and biographer, born at Augsburg in 1696, studied at Jena, and became pastor at Augsburg, where he died 26th November 1770. A laborious and voluminous writer, he is chiefly remembered by his *Historia Critica Philosophiæ* (5 vols. 1742-44; new ed. 1767).

Bruges (Flem. *Brugge*), a city of Belgium, capital of the province of West Flanders, is situated in a fertile plain about 8 miles from the sea, with which it is connected by the three canals from Ghent, Sluys, and Ostend, the latter admitting ships of 500 tons. By rail it is 14 miles E. of Ostend, and 62 WNW. of Brussels. Bruges derives its name from its many bridges, all opening in the middle to admit of the passage of vessels. The inhabitants depend, nevertheless, for their supply of water principally upon rain-water, which is collected in large cisterns, public and private. The ramparts form an agreeable promenade, and the streets have a venerable and picturesque yet deserted aspect, the population being now scarcely a quarter of what it was during the middle ages. Among the most interesting buildings are Les Halles (1364), a cloth and flesh market, with the famous Belfry (q.v.); the Gothic hôtel-de-ville (1377), with a library of 100,000 volumes; the church of Notre Dame, with a spire 442 feet high, many valuable paintings, exquisite wood-carvings, a statue of the Virgin (said to be by Michael Angelo), and monuments of Charles the Bold and his daughter Murv, wife of the Emperor Maximilian; the cathedral of St Sauveur, with an ugly brick exterior, but a fine interior, containing the stalls of the knights of the Golden Fleece (q.v.); and St John's Hospital, with Hans Memling's masterpieces adorning the reliquary of St Ursula's arm. Bruges has manufactures of lace, woollens, linen, cotton, leather, soap, starch, and tobacco; and distilleries, sugar and salt refineries, and shipbuilding yards. During this century its central position on the railway and canal system of the country has to some extent restored the commercial importance of the city. Pop. (1886) 46,406, of whom almost half are in extreme poverty, the excellent charitable institutions being accordingly heavily taxed. Dating from the 3d century, Bruges by 1200 was the central mart of the Hanseatic League; and a hundred years later it may be said to have become the metropolis of the world's commerce. Commercial agents from seventeen different kingdoms resided here, and no less than twenty ministers from foreign courts had mansions within its walls. Its population at this time amounted to upwards of 200,000. In 1488 the citizens rose in insurrection, and imprisoned the Archduke Maximilian, and with the harsh measures of repression which ensued commenced the commercial decline of Bruges. Many

of the traders and manufacturers, driven forth from their own country by the religious persecutions of the following century, settled in England, and brought with them their manufacturing superiority. In the 16th century, however, the tapestry of Bruges was still celebrated. Taken by the French in 1794, in 1815 the city became a part of the kingdom of the United Netherlands, and in 1830 of the Belgian monarchy. At Bruges lived John van Eyck (1428-41), Caxton (1446-76), and Memling (1477-94). See James Weale, *Bruges et ses Environs* (4th ed. 1887).

Brugg, a town in the Swiss canton of Aargau, on the right bank of the Aar, and near the mouth of the Reuss, 36 miles ESE. of Basel by rail. Near it is the site of *Vindonissa*, the chief Roman station in Helvetia; and it was also the cradle of the House of Hapsburg, whose ruined castle, founded in 1020, crowns a wooded height 2 miles from the village. Nearer is the abbey of Königsfelden (1310; converted in 1872 into an asylum), in the vaults beneath which are interred many of the members of the Austrian royal family. Pop. 1435. Zimmermann was a native.

Brugsch, HEINRICH KARL, an eminent Egyptologist, born at Berlin, February 18, 1827. At twenty-one he published a Latin treatise on the demotic writing, and gave such promise as soon gained him the favour of King Frederick-William IV., by whose aid he was enabled to visit the museums of Paris, London, Turin, and Leyden. In 1853 he first visited Egypt, and took part in the French archaeologist Mariette's great excavations at Memphis. He was called to the chair of Oriental Languages at Göttingen, but returned to Egypt in 1870 on the invitation of the viceroy to take charge of the School of Egyptology at Cairo with the rank of Bey. In 1884 he went to Persia with the German embassy. The title of pasha was given him by the viceroy in 1881. Brugsch's works on Egyptology are numerous and of the first value. The chief are *Geographische Inschriften altägyptischer Denkmäler* (3 vols. 1857-60); *Geschichte Ägyptens unter den Pharaonen* (1877; Eng. trans. 1879); *Hieroglyphisch-demotisches Wörterbuch* (7 vols. 1867-82); *Grammaire Hiéroglyphique à l'usage des étudiants* (1872); *Dictionnaire Géographique de l'Ancienne Egypte* (1877-80); *Thesaurus inscriptionum Egyptiacarum* (1882, et seq.); and *Religion und Mythologie der alten Egypter* (1884).

Brühl, a town of Rhenish Prussia, 8 miles SSW. of Cologne by rail. It has a splendid castle, erected in the early part of the 18th century by the Elector Clement Augustus of Bavaria, and restored by the King of Prussia in 1842. After his banishment from France in 1651, Cardinal Mazarin took up his residence in Brühl. Pop. (1885) 4030.

Brühl, HEINRICH, COUNT VON, prime-minister of Augustus III., king of Poland and Elector of Saxony, memorable among unworthy ministers and venal statesmen. He was born in 1700 at Weissenfels, and in early life entered, as a page, into the service of the Duchess of Saxe-Weissenfels. His winning address and tact gained for him rapid promotion through several offices of state, until, in 1746, he became prime-minister to that idle and unpatriotic ruler, Augustus III. With the basest and most slavish sycophancy, he humoured the whims of his unworthy master, draining the coffers of the state, and burdening the country with debt, to supply him with money to squander on his follies. Yet he contrived to enrich himself, and to accumulate honours and titles. He kept a horde of servants, and maintained the most splendid establishment in the kingdom. The effect of his reckless robbery of the national finances made itself felt at the outbreak of the Seven Years' War,

when the country could furnish only 17,000 men to oppose Frederick of Prussia, who surprised and captured the whole Saxon army in its camp at Pirna. Augustus and Brühl fled to Warsaw. When peace was concluded, they returned to Dresden, where Augustus died on the 5th October 1763. His worthless parasite had the grace to follow him three weeks later (28th October).

Bruise, or **CONTUSION**, signifies an injury inflicted by a blow or sudden pressure, in which the skin is not wounded, and no bone is broken or dislocated. Both terms, and especially the latter, are employed in surgery to include all such injuries in their widest range, from a black eye to a thoroughly crushed mass of muscle. In the slighter forms of this injury, as in ordinary simple bruises, there is no tearing, but only a concussion of the textures, the utmost damage done being the rupture of a few small blood-vessels, which occasions the discoloration that is always observed in these cases. In more severe contusions, the subjacent structures—muscles, connective tissue, vessels, &c.—are more or less ruptured, and in extreme cases, are thoroughly crushed, and usually become gangrenous. The quantity of blood that is extravasated mainly depends upon the size and number of the ruptured blood-vessels, but partly also on the nature of the textures of the injured part. Thus, a lax tissue, as that of the eyelids, favours the escape of blood into the surrounding parts. Moreover, the constitution of the patient has some influence, and many persons, especially, according to Paget, pallid, fatty, soft-skinned women, though suffering from no apparent disease, as well as those affected with scurvy or with the 'hemorrhagic diathesis' (see **HÆMOPHILIA**), are subject to extravasations, and consequently to discolorations, very disproportionate to the injuries that cause them.

The most characteristic signs of a recent contusion are more or less Shock (q.v.), pain, swelling, and discoloration of the surface from effused blood (commonly known as *Echymosis*, q.v.). There is nothing special in the character of the shock, but it is worthy of notice that it is most severely felt in injuries of special parts—as the testes, the breasts, and the larger joints, which are often followed by remarkable general depression, faintness, loss of muscular power, and nausea. The immediate pain following the blow is succeeded by a feeling of numbness, which, after a varying time, unless the part is killed, gives place to a heavy, aching pain. Although some depression may usually be observed immediately after the infliction of the blow, swelling of the parts rapidly follows, as may be well seen when a child receives a blow on the head, or in the wale that rises after the lash of a whip. In lax parts, such as the eyelids, the swelling is often considerable, and may remain for a week or more; but in other parts it usually subsides in two or three days. The discoloration of the skin consequent on blows is of a more or less purple tint, varying from black to crimson or pink. 'Blackness,' says Paget, 'usually indicating intense injury, is probably due to the extravasation of a large proportion of entire blood; crimson or pink tints, to the prevalence of a blood-stained fluid; blue, to the degrees in which blackness is veiled by the cuticle and skin, as the colour of blood in veins is; and perhaps some of the shades of pink to the partial aëration of the blood by the penetration of air through the epidermis. After a variable time, proportionate to the severity of the injury, these colours fade out, passing most commonly through gradually lightening shades of brownish olive, green, and yellow.' The causes of these changes of colour are not clearly known; as, however, the changes are not observed in bruises

of parts removed from air and light, they are probably due to oxidation and actinic agency. When a severe bruise tends to a natural cure, and there is no inflammation or sloughing, the effused blood is generally absorbed, the liquid portion rapidly disappearing, while the blood-cells are more slowly removed. In some cases, it is possible that the effused blood may become organised into vascular connective tissue, which takes part in the repair of the injured tissue. We need not follow the course of a bruise in which active inflammation with suppuration ensues, or in which sloughing takes place, as these complications must be treated according to the ordinary rules for those affections. There are, however, one or two ill consequences following partial recovery, which require notice. Thus, in some organs, as the breast, abscess may ensue long after a blow; or a sensitive indurated lump may remain; or (more commonly) there may be long-continued pain, without change of texture; or, lastly, cancer may ensue. Blows on superficial bones, as those on the skull, are not unfrequently followed by very painful thickening of the periosteum; a muscle violently struck may be paralysed, and rapidly waste away; and constitutional diseases, such as gout and rheumatism, are well known to localise themselves with special severity in parts that have once been seriously bruised.

With regard to treatment, simple and not very severe bruises require little treatment but the rest necessary for the avoidance of pain; but the removal of the swelling and discoloration may be hastened by the application of various local stimulants, which seem to act by accelerating the circulation through the bruised part, and promoting the absorption of the effused fluid. Friar's balsam, compound soap-liniment, or poultices made with the roots of black bryony beaten to a pulp, are popular remedies of this class. Tincture of arnica has a great reputation; but experiments have made it very doubtful whether it is any more efficacious than simple spirit of the same strength. A solution of sulphurous acid, and hazeline and other preparations of the American Witch-hazel (q.v.), are of more value. They should be kept constantly applied to the bruised part on lint or cotton-wool. Pugilists, who are probably better acquainted with ordinary bruises than any other class of men, are in the habit of removing the swelling of the eyelids that often naturally occurs during a prize-fight to such an extent as to close the eyes, by at once puncturing the eyelids at several points with a lancet; and their favourite remedy for a black eye or other bruise on the face is a fresh beefsteak applied locally as a poultice. Bruises of a more severe nature, as when there is much breaking or crushing of the tissues, must, of course, at once be placed in the hands of a surgeon. See Sir James Paget on 'Contusions' in *Holmes's System of Surgery*.

Brumaire (Fr., 'foggy month'), a division of the year in the republican calendar of France. It includes the time from October 22 to November 20. The celebrated 18th Brumaire, which witnessed the overthrow of the Directory (q.v.) and the establishment of the sway of Napoleon, corresponds with November 9, 1799, of the Gregorian calendar.

Brummell, **GEORGE BRYAN**, better known as 'Beau Brummell,' was born in London, 7th June 1778, the son of Lord North's private secretary, and grandson of a gentleman's gentleman. At Eton, and during a brief sojourn at Oxford, he was less distinguished for studiousness than for the exquisiteness of his dress and manners; and after four years in the army, having come into a fortune of £30,000, he entered society on his true vocation of arbiter of elegancies. His success was brilliant;

but the pace was too hot, and his wit was, moreover, too fine for his twenty years' patron and admirer, the Prince Regent. They quarrelled in 1813, and gambling debts three years later forced Brummell to flee to Calais. He struggled on there, reckless as before, for fourteen years; from 1830 to 1832 held a sinecure consulate at Caen; and, after three years of drivelling imbecility, died in the pauper lunatic asylum of that old Norman city, 30th March 1840. See his *Life* by Jesse (1844; new ed. 1886).

Brunai, an independent Mohammedan territory in the NW. of Borneo, whose sultan was formerly overlord of the whole island. Area, about 18,000 sq. m.; pop. estimated at from 125,000 to 225,000, divided into trade castes. The capital, Brunai, on a river of the same name, is a miserable, dirty town, built on piles, with 30,000 to 35,000 inhabitants, who carry on considerable trade with Singapore and other ports.

Brunanburh, the scene in 937 of a bloody battle, in which Athelstan (q.v.) defeated an allied army of Welsh, Scots, and Danes. It is difficult to say whether Brunanburh was in Lothian, Northumberland, Yorkshire, at Brumby in Lincolnshire, or at Bromborough in Cheshire; and some have contended it was near Axminster in Devonshire. Of the Anglo-Saxon poem on the victory, preserved in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, there is a spirited version by Lord Tennyson.

Bruck, RICHARD FRANÇOIS PHILIPPE, classical scholar, was born at Strassburg, December 30, 1729. He was educated under the Jesuits in Paris, but abandoned his studies, and for some time was engaged as a military commissary during the Seven Years' War. A professor in Giessen, with whom Bruck happened to lodge while the army was in winter-quarters, revived in him the love of classical studies. Returning to Strassburg, he devoted all his spare time to Greek, and soon distinguished himself as an able but daring critic and emendator. His belief that all inaccuracies in ancient Greek writings were introduced by copyists often led him astray; but few critics, since the revival of learning, have done more for the progress of Greek literature. His first work, *Analecta Veterum Poetarum Græcorum* (1772-76), was followed by editions of Amæmon (1778), Apollonius Rhodius (1780), Aristophanes (1781-83), *Poëte Græci* (1784), Virgil (1785), and Sophocles (1786). The outbreak of the French Revolution interrupted Bruck's studies. During the Terror he was imprisoned, but was liberated after the downfall of Robespierre. His means had been so much reduced, that he was compelled to sell his valuable library. He died June 12, 1803.

Brune, GUILLAUME MARIE ANNE, a French marshal of the First Empire, was born at Brives-la-Gaillarde, 13th March 1763. At first a Paris bookseller, he was a member of the Cordeliers' Club, and a friend of Danton. In 1792 he was sent as civil commissary to Belgium, but he soon entered the army, fought in the Vendean war and in Italy under Massena, and after Rivoli, was made general of division. Sent by the Directory to Switzerland in 1798, he executed his orders with brilliant success. In 1799 he was appointed to the command of the army of Holland, where he achieved the reputation of being one of the best generals of his age. He defeated the Duke of York at Bergen, September 19, and forced him to capitulate at Alkmaar. In 1803 he was ambassador to Turkey; next year he obtained the dignity of marshal. In 1807 he became governor-general of the Hanseatic towns, but soon exciting the distrust of Napoleon, was recalled. After the return from Elba he joined the emperor, was made a peer, but, like many better

men, had his prospects blasted by Waterloo. On 2d August 1815 he was brutally murdered by an infuriated royalist mob at Avignon. See his *Life* (Paris, 1821), and Conchard's monograph on Brune's murder (Paris, 1887).

Brunel, ISAMBARD KINGDOM, engineer, only son of the following, was born at Portsmouth, 9th April 1806, and in 1823, after two years spent at the college of Henri Quatre, in Paris, entered his father's office. He helped him in the construction of the Thames Tunnel, and himself, in 1829-31, planned the Clifton Suspension Bridge, which, commenced in 1835, was completed only in 1864 with the materials of his own Hungerford Suspension Bridge (1841-45) over the Thames at Charing Cross (see BRIDGE, p. 445). He designed the *Great Western* (1838), the first steamship built to cross the Atlantic, and the *Great Britain* (1845), the first ocean screw-steamer. The *Great Eastern* (q.v.), the largest vessel ever built in the world, was built under his sole direction in 1853-58. In 1833 he was appointed engineer to the Great Western Railway, and designed and constructed the whole of the tunnels, bridges, viaducts, and arches on that line. Among docks at English seaports, in the improvement or construction of which he was engaged, may be mentioned those of Bristol, Monkwearmouth, Cardiff, and Milford Haven. Made a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1830, he was chosen on the Council of the Institution of Civil Engineers in 1845, and its Vice-president from 1850. He died suddenly, 15th September 1859. See his *Life* by his son (1870).

Brunel, SIR MARC ISAMBARD, engineer, was born, a farmer's son, at Haqueville, near Ronen, in France, April 25, 1769. He was destined for the church, but early showed an inclination for mechanics, and at school preferred the study of the exact sciences to the classics. In 1786 he became a sailor in the French navy. In the revolutionary period of 1793, having compromised himself by his political opinions, he escaped from Paris to the United States. His career as an engineer began in 1794, when he was appointed to survey for the canal which now connects Lake Champlain with the river Hudson at Albany. He afterwards acted as an architect in New York, for which city he was appointed chief-engineer, and erected an arsenal and cannon-foundry, with ingenious machinery for casting and boring. On his return to Europe in 1799, he married the daughter of William Kingdom, Plymouth, and settled in England. His mechanical skill was shown in various minor inventions, such as a writing and drawing machine, and a machine for winding cotton thread. A plan submitted by him to government for making block-pulleys for ships by machinery was adopted in 1803, and he was for many years employed in carrying it into execution in Portsmouth dockyard. On the completion of the machinery in 1806 the saving on the first year in the manufacture of the blocks was about £24,000. He received £17,000 from government as a reward for this invention. He was also successful in the construction of other public works—in Woolwich arsenal and Chatham dockyard, &c. He made experiments in steam-navigation on the Thames in 1812, but his proposals for the use of steam-tugs were declined by the navy board. The destruction of his sawmills at Battersea by fire (1814) led, with financial mismanagement, to his bankruptcy (1821), when he was thrown into prison for debt. He was released from prison on a grant of £5000 being made by government for payment of his debts. His most remarkable undertaking was the Thames Tunnel beneath the bed of the river, which, commenced in March

1825, was opened in March 1843. Assisted by his son, Isambard Kingdom Brunel, he for ten years pursued a course of experiments for employing carbonic acid gas as a motive power, but the cost of the machinery prevented its introduction as a substitute for steam. Among the less important of Brunel's inventions were machines for making wooden boxes; for ruling paper; for shuffling a pack of cards without using the hands; for the manufacture of nails; for making seamless shoes for the army; a knitting-machine; a preparation of tinfoil for ornamentation; and improvements in stereotype plates. Elected a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1814, he was appointed Vice-president in 1832, and was a member of various foreign societies. He was knighted in 1841; and died December 12, 1849, in his eighty-first year. See his *Life* by Beaunish (1862).

Brunelleschi, FILIPPO, one of the greatest Italian architects, was born at Florence in 1377. A goldsmith first, then a sculptor, he finally devoted himself to architecture, studying zealously perspective and geometry. At Rome he became imbued with classical traditions, and soon after his return to Florence in 1407, he offered his plan for completing the cathedral of Santa Maria del Fiore, founded in 1296, and now only wanting a dome. It was approved, spite of its boldness and novelty, but the work was not put into his hands till 1419. The great work was finished, all but the lantern, with which he intended to crown the whole, when he died at Florence in 1446. Brunelleschi's dome, measured diametrically, is the largest in the world, and served as a model to Michael Angelo for that of St Peter's. Besides this masterpiece he executed several other great works, such as the churches of Spirito Santo and San Lorenzo, as well as the designs for the Pitti Palace, which originated the beautiful style of Tuscan palace-architecture in the 15th century.

Brunhilda, (1) in the *Nibelungenlied*, the young and stalwart queen of Iceland, wife of Gunther, the Burgundian king. She hated passionately Kriemhild and her husband, Siegfried, who had once been her own lover; and she caused his murder by the hands of Hagen. Originally she was identical with the Norse Valkyrie *Brynhildr*, who for a fault was stripped of her divinity by Odin and sunk into a charmed sleep from which she was awakened by Sigurd (Siegfried).—(2) The daughter of the Visigothic king Athanagild, married King Sigibert of Austrasia in 567, and afterwards as regent for her two grandsons, Theodebert II., king of Austrasia, and Theodorik II., king of Burgundy, divided the government of the whole Frankish world with her rival Fredegond, who governed Neustria for the youthful Clotaire II. On the death of Fredegond in 598 she seized on Neustria, and for a while united under her rule the whole Merovingian dominions, but was overthrown in 613 by a combination in their own interests of the Austrasian nobles under the nominal leadership of Clotaire II., and put to death by being dragged at the heels of a wild horse.

Bruni, LEONARDO, a famous humanist, a native of Arezzo, and hence styled *Aretino*, was born in 1369. He first studied law at Florence and Ravenna, but afterwards turned his attention to classical literature. In 1405 he obtained the office of papal secretary, and as such served under four popes, the last of whom, John XXIII., he attended to the Council of Constance. On his patron's deposition he returned to Florence. His *Historia Florentina* procured for him the rights of citizenship, and at a later period, through the favour of the Medicean family, he was appointed state secretary. He died 9th March 1444. Bruni aided

in advancing the study of Greek literature mainly by his literal translations into Latin of Aristotle, Demosthenes, Plato, and Plutarch. Among his original works were *Commentarius Rerum suo Tempore Gestarum* (Ven. 1476), *De Origine Urbis Montium*, *De Romæ Origine*, *Epistolæ Familiæres*, and *Lives of Petrarch and Dante in the vernacular*.

Brünig, a Swiss pass (3396 feet), forming the shortest and easiest route between the 'Forest Cantons' and the Bernese Oberland. A road was formed in 1857-62, and in 1888 a Brünig branch of the Berne-Lucerne Railway was opened.

Bruni Island (North and South) lies off the south part of the east coast of Tasmania, from which it is separated by D'Entrecasteaux Channel. It has a length of 32 miles, a varying breadth of 1 to 11 miles, and an area of 160 sq. m. Coal is mined.

Brünn, a city of the Austrian empire, the capital of Moravia, is beautifully situated, partly on the slope of a hill, and partly in a pleasant valley at the confluence of the Schwarzwawa and the Zwittawa, 93 miles N. of Vienna by rail. Behind the city, on an eminence (984 feet), rises the castle of Spielberg, formerly the citadel, and now used as barracks, but notorious as the state-prison where Silvio Pellico was confined from 1822 to 1830. Surrounded by walls till 1860, Brünn possesses a steam-tramway and numerous other modern improvements. Among the most interesting buildings are the cathedral of St Peter; St James's Church, a Gothic edifice, with a tower 305 feet in height; the church of the Minorites; and the Augustine convent. The Stadttheater, opened in 1882, was the first continental theatre lit by electricity. Brünn is one of the most important manufacturing towns in the Austrian dominions. Its woollens are specially celebrated, and it has also large manufactures of machinery, linen, leather, paper, ironware, upholstery, liquors, and numerous chemical products. Pop. (1881) 82,660, 40 per cent. of whom were Czechs.

Brunne, ROBERT OF, the name by which Robert Manning, a monk of the order founded by St Gilbert of Sempringham, is usually designated. His monastery was in South Lincolnshire, near the modern town of Bourn, and he lived in the reigns of Edward II. and Edward III., and probably died about 1340. His chief work is his *Handlyng Synne*, a free and amplified translation into English verse of William of Waddington's *Manuel des Pechiez*, with such judicious omissions and excellent additions as made his version much more entertaining than the original. The purpose of the book was to convey religious instruction to the people in the agreeable form of moral anecdotes. It is of great importance from the linguistic point of view as one of our best landmarks in the transition from the early to the later Middle English. He also made a new version in octosyllabic rhyme of Wace's *Brut d'Angleterre*, and added to it a popular translation of the French rhyming chronicle of Peter Langtoft of Bridlington. Robert deliberately wrote in English instead of French, in order to reach the common people, to give them the means 'for to haf solace and gamen, in felawschip when tha sit samen [together].'

Brunnen, a village, the port of the Swiss canton of Schwyz, on the Lake of Lucerne, near the mouth of the Muotta, 17 miles by water, but 28½ by rail ESE. of Lucerne. Here in 1315, after the battle of Morgarten, the deputies of the Forest Cantons formed a league.

Brunnow, PHILIPP, COUNT VON, a Russian diplomatist, was born at Dresden in 1797, and entered the Russian service in 1818. He was present in a civil capacity in the campaigns of

1828 and 1829 against the Turks, and in 1839 he was sent on a special mission to London, where, in the following spring, he was accredited as permanent ambassador. In this capacity he soon acquired distinction as a diplomatist. After retiring from London on the outbreak of the war in 1854, he represented Russia in Frankfort, and, along with Count Orloff, was sent to the Conference of Paris in 1856. He was afterwards appointed to the court of Prussia; but in 1858 he returned to his old place in London, where he represented Russia at the conferences in 1864 and 1871. He was raised to the rank of count in 1871, and in 1874 retired to Darmstadt, where he died 12th April 1875.

Bruno, GIORDANO, a fervid, restless, profound philosopher, was born at Nola, in the kingdom of Naples, about the middle of the 16th century. He entered at an early age the order of the Dominicans, but soon began to express his doubts in regard to the doctrines of Transubstantiation and of the Immaculate Conception, in consequence of which he was obliged to flee from his convent. Henceforth his life was unsettled. In 1577 he went to Geneva, where he spent two years, but having excited the suspicion and dislike of the strict Calvinists of that city by his general scepticism, he judged it prudent to betake himself to Paris, where he delivered prelections on the 'Great Art' (Logic) of Raymond Lully. His disputes with the bigoted Aristotelians of the university of Paris compelled him, however, to leave France. He passed over into England, where he resided for two years in comparative quiet, enjoying the friendship of Sir Philip Sidney and the protection of the French ambassador, Michel de Castelnau. Here he composed his most important works, but at last, having incurred the displeasure of the clergy by his vehement denunciation of the Aristotelian philosophy and by other grave heresies, he returned to Paris in 1585. In 1586 he proceeded to the university of Marburg, where he matriculated, but was forbidden to lecture, and to Wittenberg, where he became professor. After spending some time in Prague, Brunswick, Helmstedt, and Frankfort-on-the-Maine, he resolved to go back to Italy. He fixed his residence at Padua; but venturing to settle in Venice, he was arrested by the officers of the Inquisition, and conveyed to Rome in 1593. He was now subjected to a long imprisonment and persecution, in the vain hope that he would recant; but when all the endeavours of his enemies proved ineffectual, he was brought to the stake, according to the accepted account, on the 17th February 1600, and burned as an obstinate heretic. The sole evidence, however, of this execution is a letter of Scioppius, the genuineness of which has been seriously called in question by Professor Desdovits (1885).

Bruno's writings, of which the most valuable are composed in Italian, display throughout a strong, courageous, excitable soul, susceptible of deep enthusiasm, full of mental unrest and scepticism, but guided by an unsatisfied yearning for truth. His speculations are sublime. The *Cena delle Ceneri*, or Evening Conversations on Ash-Wednesday, is an apology for the Copernican astronomy; the *Spaccio della Bestia Trionfante*, or Expulsion of the Triumphant Beast (Paris, 1584), is a satirical and somewhat heavy allegory in the style of the times, but which perhaps gives the clearest account of Bruno's philosophy. His greatest works are metaphysical, such as the *Della Causa Principio ed Uno* (On the One Sole Cause of Things), and the *Del Infinito Universo e Mondi* (On the Infinity of the Universe and of Worlds). The doctrine enunciated in these is Pantheistic (see PANTHEISM). Bruno held that the infinite soul of God did not merely inhabit or pervade the

universe, but that the universe was simply a manifestation of Him, and therefore itself divine. God was therefore, in the most literal and physical sense, all in all. Bruno's philosophy, in later times, was quite unappreciated and even neglected, until Jacobi drew public attention to it in his *Letters on the Doctrine of Spinoza*. Both Spinoza and Descartes were much indebted to Bruno. His influence is also discernible in the speculation of modern Germany; one of Schelling's notable works is entitled *Bruno*. Original editions of his works are very rare. Those in Italian were published by Wagner in 1830; some Latin ones by Gfrörer in 1834. See works on Bruno by Bartholmæss (Paris, 1846), Berti (Flor. 1868 and 1880), Sigwart (Tüb. 1880), Brunnhofer (Leip. 1883), and the *Life of Giordano Bruno, the Nolan*, by Miss I. Frith, revised by Professor Moriz Carrière (Lond. 1887). The *Eroici Furori* was translated by L. Williams in 1888. A novel based on Bruno's life, by C. E. Plumpton (Lond. 1884), has slight value.

Bruno, ST, the founder of the Carthusian order, was born at Cologne about 1040, and received his earliest education there. Subsequently he became rector of the cathedral school at Rheims. But the wickedness of his time soon began to weigh upon his soul, and in 1086, with six friends, he betook himself to the wild mountain of Chartreuse, near Grenoble. Here he founded the order of the Carthusians (q.v.), one of the most austere of all the monkish orders. Bruno and his companions had each a separate cell in which they practised the severities of the rule of St Benedict, keeping silence during six days of the week, and only on Sundays seeing one another. Pope Urban II., who was one of Bruno's most eminent scholars, in 1089 summoned the saint to Rome. He obeyed the call reluctantly, and steadily refused all offers of preferment. In 1094 he established a second Carthusian monastery at Della Torre, in a solitary district of Calabria, where he died in 1101. He was canonised in 1628; his festival is the 6th October. Bruno left no written regulations for his followers. These first appeared in a complete form in 1581, and were enjoined on all Carthusians by Innocent IX.

Bruno the Great, one of the most eminent men of his time, was born about 925, the third son of Henry the Fowler. He became archbishop of Cologne and chancellor of the empire under his brother Otto I., and afterwards, as a reward for his services, Duke of Lorraine. Distinguished alike for piety and learning, he strove to reform the monasteries and advance the love of learning among the clergy. He died at Rheims, 11th October 965.

Brunonian System. See BROWN, JOHN, p. 487.

Brunswick, DUCHY OF (Ger. *Braunschweig*), a state of Northern Germany, consisting of three larger and five smaller distinct parts, with a total area of 1423 sq. m. Pop. (1875) 327,493; (1885) 372,388. Of the three larger parts, the principal one, forming the circle of Wolfenbüttel, and including the capital, lies between Prussia and Hanover; the second, extending westward from Prussia to the Weser, divides Hanover into two parts; and the third, forming the Blankenburg district, lies to the south-east, between Hanover, Anhalt, and Prussia. The smaller parts are the isolated *enclaves* of Calvörde in the east, Thedinghausen in the west (not far from Bremen), and some very small demesnes on the Hanoverian boundaries. Brunswick belongs mostly to the basin of the Weser, which serves as a boundary on the west. Its surface is mostly mountainous, particularly in the southern portions of the country, but it has nevertheless level tracts of considerable

extent. The climate in the lowlands resembles the general climate of Northern Germany; but in the Harz district it is so much colder that harvest is generally a month later than in the plains.

The quarries and mines of Brunswick produce marble, alabaster, limestone, coal, iron, copper, lead, sulphur, alum, and salt in large quantities, with some little gold and silver. Agriculture constitutes the chief wealth of the duchy. The pasture-land is extensive, and great attention is paid to the rearing of cattle, and especially to the breeding of sheep, wool being an important article of commerce. A large number of persons are employed in the cutting and preparation of timber. The manufactures are comparatively unimportant.

The inhabitants are mostly Saxons, and with the exceptions of about 3000 Reformed, 10,000 Roman Catholics, and 1400 Jews, all adhere to the Lutheran Church. The people in the rural districts speak a very broad Low-German dialect; but good High-German is spoken by the educated classes. The government is a limited monarchy, the duke's power being restricted by the legislature. The annual revenue of Brunswick in 1887 was given at £471,000, and just balanced the expenditure. The public debt amounted in 1887 to £3,582,390, mainly incurred for the formation of railways. The civil list is not comprised in the budget, being paid out of the revenues of the state domains and other funds—about £40,000 a year. The private estates of the dukedom of Brunswick are very large.

Brunswick was included as a part of Saxony under the empire of Charlemagne. In 1235, with Lüneburg, it was made a duchy under Otto, who died in 1252, and was succeeded in 1267 by his son, Albrecht, founder of the older line of Wolfenbüttel. John, another son of Otto, was the founder of the older Lüneburg line, which became extinct with William of Lüneburg in 1369. In 1569 Henry, who styled himself Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg-Dannenberg, founded the new House of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel; and his brother William founded the new line of Brunswick-Lüneburg, and as such became ancestor of the House of Hanover (q.v.). The ancient ensign of the race is the white horse. Duke Frederick-William came to England in 1809, and with his 'Black Brunswickers' (so called from their uniform, in mourning for the losses at Auerstädt) entered the English service, fighting in the Peninsular war till 1813, when he returned to his duchy; in 1815 he died a soldier's death at Quatre Bras. At the death of the childless Duke William in 1884, the succession passed to the Duke of Cumberland, son of George V., the dethroned king of Hanover. As the heir refused to recognise the new constitution of the German empire, the imperial government declined to allow the succession to take place, and an interregnum occurred. In October 1885, Prince Albrecht, a nephew of the emperor, was elected regent of the duchy by the diet.

BRUNSWICK, the capital, stands on the Oker, in a level and fertile district, 143 miles WSW. of Berlin. It is supposed to have been founded in 861, by Bruno, Duke of Ostfalen; but Henry the Lion, in the 12th century, so greatly strengthened and beautified the city that he may be almost said to be its founder. In the 13th century Brunswick became a member of the Hanseatic League, and soon attained considerable commercial prosperity, but its importance declined with the decay of the League. The town is most irregularly built, with narrow and crooked streets, but possesses the advantage of an abundant supply of water. The cathedral (1173-1469), and the churches of St Martin, St Catharine, and St Andrew with its steeple 341 feet high, are among the principal

buildings; the old Rath-haus is a fine specimen of Gothic, and a number of the older houses are interesting for their quaintly carved wooden fronts. In the museum are some notable antiquities and works of art by Jan Steen, Albert Dürer, Holbein, Rembrandt, Raphael, Guido, Ruysdael, Michael Angelo, and Benvenuto Cellini. The industry of the town consists chiefly in manufactures of jute, woollen and linen, leather, sewing-machines, chicory, beet-sugar, tobacco, *papier-mâché*, and lackered wares, and in publishing. The old fortifications have been demolished, and their site converted into pleasant promenades. A fine avenue of linden-trees leads to the ducal palace, which, destroyed by fire in 1830 and 1865, is now an imposing edifice of 1869. Pop. (1871) 57,833; (1885) 85,174.

Brunswick, (1) a port of entry and capital of Glynn county, Georgia, on St Simon Sound, an inlet of the Atlantic, 186 miles SE. of Macon by rail. It has connection by steamer with Savannah and New York, and exports cotton and timber; naval stores are manufactured. Pop. (1880) 2891.—(2) A town of Cumberland county, Maine, 29 miles NE. of Portland by rail, is at the head of navigation on the Androscoggin River, whose falls or rapids supply water-power for cotton, paper, and other mills. It is the seat of Bowdoin College (1794), a Congregational institution of high standing, at which Nathaniel Hawthorne and Longfellow graduated; it has 15 resident professors and about 250 students, and the Maine Medical School is affiliated to it. Pop. of township (1880) 5384.

Brunswick Black is a varnish employed for coating over coarsely finished iron grates, fenders, &c., and is prepared by melting together asphalt, linseed oil, and oil of turpentine. For finer work, it has been superseded by Berlin Black, a similar composition of finer quality.

Brunswick Green is a pigment used in the arts, the composition of which is very variable. The native varieties sometimes consist of carbonates of copper, but the artificial compounds frequently contain arsenite of copper, Prussian blue, indigo, or chrome yellow. A superior product is obtained by the action of sal-ammoniac on copper filings, an oxychloride of copper being produced identical with the mineral Atacamite (q.v.).

Brunswick, NEW. See NEW BRUNSWICK.

Brushes. Few things are in more universal use than brushes. One kind or another is to be found wherever people dwell or are at work. The materials used for the manufacture of brushes are, taking first those of animal origin, hog's bristles, horse-hair, strips of whalebone, and to a smaller extent goat's hair, badger's hair, fitch (polecat), sable and camel's hair. Those of vegetable origin are principally aloë fibre, called also Mexican fibre (*Agave americana*); kittool fibre (*Caryota urens*); bass or piassaba fibre (*Attalea funifera*); and coconut fibre (*Cocos nucifera*). But many other vegetable fibres, as well as esparto grass and the like, are used locally for brushes or brooms in different parts of the world. Brushes of steel and brass wire are used for certain purposes.

For the stocks of the commoner kinds of brushes and brooms, native woods, such as sycamore (often called plane-tree), beech, elm, birch, chestnut, and oak, are employed, and ash for the handles of small brooms. Veneers or plates of rosewood and satinwood, of ivory, tortoise-shell, mother-of-pearl, xylonite, and silver adorn the backs and handles of toilet-brushes.

Bristles, though less so than they were, are still the chief material used in the manufacture of brushes. The chief sources from which they are

obtained are noted under BRISTLES. They are so far sorted into qualities when received by the manufacturers, who separate the larger and more valuable sizes by means of steel combs with one row of vertical teeth. The largest size stick in the teeth of the first comb, the next size in the second comb, and so on. Every bundle of the better qualities yields a small proportion of long and strong bristles which have a high value, and are not made into brushes but sold to shoemakers. The bristles are also sorted by hand and a size-stick or gage into various lengths, and by the eye into various colours, as black, gray, white, and other shades. Either before or after they are sorted, bristles require to be washed, and the 'whites' are bleached with sulphurous acid or other agent (see BLEACHING). French white bristles are generally beautifully bleached.

A hair-brush may be taken as an example of how the class known as 'drawn' brushes are made. With the assistance of a perforated lead or wood

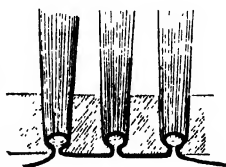


Fig. 1.

gauge the stock is drilled with holes for the tufts. These are formed by doubling the bristles, and are then drawn into their place by thin brass wire, which loops in tuft after tuft, and is continuous all through the filling of a single brush (see fig. 1, in which the bold line shows the wire). A back which conceals this wire-looping is then glued on and otherwise fixed. It may be stated that a hair-brush has the points of the bristles of unequal length, in order to penetrate the hair. Hat-brushes and baby's hair-brushes are made of horse-hair. The work of filling drawn brushes with bristles is very generally done by women working in their own homes.

Brooms, bunnister, and other 'set' brushes, many of which have long tufts, are made in a different way. The stocks are turned, cut to shape, and drilled with holes of the proper size, but in this style of work they are only sunk to a certain depth. The root ends of the tufts, which are also the root ends of the bristles, if they are not doubled, are first dipped into melted brushmakers' pitch, next tied with a string at the root, and again dipped into the pitch; this fixes the tuft when pushed with a certain twist of the hand into one of the holes of the stock. In some cases the stock is twisted with one hand, and the tuft held steady by the other. In this manner the broom or brush is filled with bristles.

A painter's round brush or sash tool is one of the simplest kinds of brushes, and is made in one way by fixing a bundle or tuft of bristles, previously dipped into a cement formed of rosin and linseed oil, to the end of a two-pronged wooden handle by a piece of twine, which is then coated with glue. There are other methods of binding the bristles of large round brushes, such as by an iron or copper ring, or by wire.

Whitewash and other flat brushes of similar shape consist, in some cases, of two, three, or more cylindrical brushes, placed side by side, and fastened separately on a projecting edge of a flat stock or handle. Each of these single brushes forming the compound brush is bound with twine or copper wire, the latter being now preferred. There are other kinds of the same shape differently made; one variety, for example, is merely a single brush of oblong form with the bristles held together by a strip of leather and nails; another sort is formed by tufts fixed with pitch in the manner of a hearth-broom. In those cases where the root ends of the

bristles are exposed, they are singed with a hot bar of iron. It is curious how sometimes one, sometimes another kind of these brushes is preferred for the same purpose in different districts of the country. The brushes used by artists are, for large sizes, made of hog's hair bound with tin, and for small sizes of sable and camel hair. The latter are either bound with quill or tin. A sable-hair pencil is the most costly brush for its size that is made. Softening brushes of badger's hair are used both by artists and grainers of wood.

Machine-made Brushes.—There are several kinds of mechanism in use for making brushes. The Woodbury machine, which has been extensively used in America, is perhaps the best known. Its chief parts are a comb with an arrangement for filling its divisions with bristles; a shaft to work devices by which the bristles are fed in tufts to plungers that double them, bind them with wire, and introduce them into the back of the brush; an arrangement by which the wire is fed to and through the bristles after doubling; and mechanism for centring the brush-back under the two plungers concerned in preparing and inserting the tuft. The machine is too elaborate for illustration here.

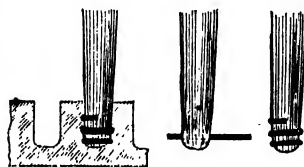


Fig. 2.

Fig. 2 shows how the tufts are bound with wire, which takes the form of a spiral, and by a movement of the plunger is made to screw its way into the hole in the brush-back.

In England, machinery is chiefly applied to the manufacture of the cheaper kinds of brushes from vegetable fibres, although it is not confined to these.

The fibres have to undergo a process of preparation. The tufts in these machine-made brushes are secured in different ways, such as by a cross wire, shown in fig. 3, or by a hard steel wire loop bent into a triangular shape, and placed as in fig. 4, with the shoulders pressed firmly on the sides of the drilled hole, and the points fixed to the bottom.

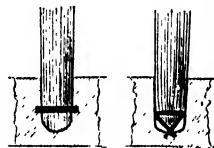


Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

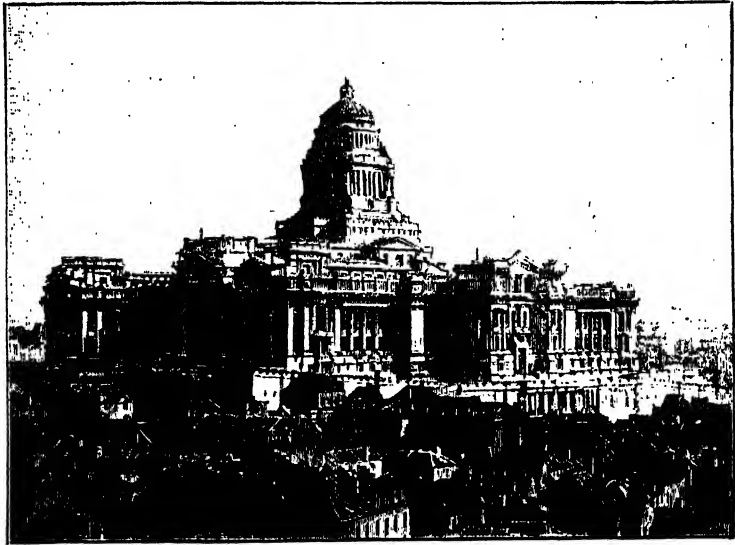
Brush Turkey. See TALIGALLA.

Brussels (Fr. *Bruxelles*), the capital of Belgium, is situated in a fertile plain on the ditch-like Senne, 27 miles S. of Antwerp, and 193 NE. of Paris. It communicates by canal with the Scheldt, and so with Antwerp, and railways connect it with Germany, France, and Holland, as well as with all the principal towns of Belgium. The city has a circumference of about 5 miles, and is built partly on the side of a hill; though some of the streets are so steep that they can be ascended only by means of stairs, Brussels may on the whole be pronounced one of the finest cities in Europe. The Upper Town is the newest and most fashionable quarter, and is the residence chiefly of the great and wealthy. The king's palace, public offices, chief hotels, and mansions of foreign ministers are here. It is also much more healthy than the Lower Town, which is greatly subject to fogs, owing to its intersection by the canals and the Senne, although the stream now passes under an arched covering, which supports a new boulevard. But the closely built old streets, with their numerous, handsome buildings, formerly belonging to the Brabant

nobility, but now occupied by merchants and traders, have a fine picturesque appearance, while some of the public edifices are unrivalled as specimens of Gothic architecture. This part has also several noble churches, but it is now wholly given over to trade. French is spoken in the upper division; but in the lower Flemish is prevalent, and in one quarter the Walloon dialect is spoken. The English language, owing to the large number of English who reside here for economy, is also very common. The walls which formerly surrounded Brussels have been removed, and their place is now occupied by pleasant boulevards extending all around the old town, and shaded by alleys of limes. The *Allée Verte*—a double avenue along the Scheldt Canal—forms a splendid promenade, and leads toward the country palace of *Laeken*, 3 miles north of the city. Besides the fine park in the Upper Town, covering an area of some 32 acres, ornamented with fountains and statues, and surrounded by the palace and other state buildings, Brussels has several other squares or places, among which the most noteworthy are: the *Place Royale*, with its colossal monument of Godfrey of Bouillon; the *Grand Place*, in which is situated the hôtel-de-ville, a splendid Gothic structure, erected in the beginning of the 15th century, with a spire of open stonework 364 feet high, and where, in 1568, the patriot counts, Egmont and Horn, were beheaded by order of the Duke of Alva; and the *Place des Martyrs*, where a memorial has been erected to those who fell here in the revolution of 1830. Among the churches the largest and finest is the cathedral of St Gudule, which dates from the 13th century, and is built in the pointed Gothic style, with many richly painted windows, and a pulpit considered to be the masterpiece of Verbruggen. In the *Palais des Beaux Arts* is the picture-gallery, containing the finest specimens of the Flemish school of painting; a valuable museum; and the public library, with 234,000 volumes and 22,000 MSS., many of the latter being beautifully illuminated. The observatory is well equipped. The new *Palais de Justice*, built in 1866-83 from designs by Poelaert at a cost of more than £2,000,000, is one of the most magnificent buildings in Europe. The royal palace and the national palace (for the chambers) are important buildings. There are several celebrated scientific societies, and educational institutions are both numerous and important. The university, founded in 1834, has over 1200 students. There are schools of painting and sculpture, and a conservatorium. The city contains also numerous charitable and benevolent institutions, and is the seat of the provincial government of South Brabant, as well as of the general government of the kingdom. Brussels is one of the chief centres of the industry of the country. Its lace is particularly famous. Of the esteemed carpets which pass under the name of Brussels carpets, only a few are manufactured here, most of those of Belgian make being produced at Tournai. It has also manufactures of damask,

linen, ribbons, embroidery, paper, jewelry, hats, soap, porcelain, mathematical and musical instruments, &c. Carriage-building is an important branch of industry; and printing and lithographic establishments are numerous. A great World Exhibition was held here in 1888. Pop. (1846) 123,874; (1866) 157,905; (1885) 171,751; with suburbs, 450,000.

As early as the 8th century, we find *Bruchsellæ*, then probably a villa of the Frank kings, mentioned in old chronicles; and that a church existed here in 906 is proved by a deed of the Emperor Otho I. Under Charles V. Brussels was made the court-residence in the Netherlands, and became afterwards, under Philip II., the chief arena of the revolution, and of the atrocities committed by the Duke of Alva and the Inquisition. The city suffered greatly in the war of Spain against Louis XIV.—in whose reign it was bombarded by Marshal Villeroi, and upwards of 4000 buildings destroyed



Palais de Justice, Brussels.

—and in that of Austria against Louis XV.; but still more from the continual prevalence of party animosities caused by the policy of Austria. Under the mild rule of Maria Theresa, it flourished greatly, and in this time many of its best institutions and public buildings were founded. In 1789 occurred the Brabant revolution under Joseph II.; and scarcely had Austrian rule been re-established, after a brief time of independence, when Brussels fell into the hands of the French (1792). After other changes of fortune, Brussels, with the other parts of Belgium, was incorporated with the kingdom of the Netherlands in 1815, and so remained until the revolution of 1830, by which it became the capital of the independent kingdom of Belgium.

Brussels Carpets. See CARPETS.

Brussels Sprouts, a sub-variety of *Brassica oleracea* (*B. O. bullata gemmifera*), so named on account of its peculiar habit, producing a bud-like cluster of leaves in the axil of each leaf from the base to the top of the stem. These buds or sprouts are the parts of the plant that are eaten, and are highly esteemed for their delicate flavour and wholesome quality. Brussels sprouts is one of the hardiest of green winter vegetables, which, though chiefly cultivated in the gardens of the rich, is, on account of the great weight of crop it yields, and

its extreme hardness, worthy of a considerable space being devoted to it in the gardens of the poor. There are strains of the plant distinguished from each other by greater or less tallness of stem, and by the larger or smaller size and compactness of the sprouts. As a rule, the shorter stemmed strains have the largest and most compact sprouts, and are consequently the most favoured. The superior strains once obtained by seed-growers and by market-gardeners are very carefully selected for the purpose of producing seed, only those individual plants which present the most perfect points being reserved for seed production. As regards cultivation, the plant, like all of the cabbage tribe, requires deep rich soil to bring it to fullest perfection. The seed is sown in the open ground in February or March, according to the character of the weather, and again in the first week of April to prolong the succession of crops. Those sown in February will come into use in October or November, and the later sowings successively for about six months. Having comparatively little spread of leaves, the plants may be set more closely than most other Brassicæ, from eighteen to twenty four inches apart each way being the usual distances allowed from plant to plant.

Brut, or **BRUTUS**, the eponymous Trojan hero who gave his name to the island of Britain, according to Geoffrey of Monmouth, Wace, Layamon, and all the earlier historians in verse or prose. The great-grandson of Æneas, he was banished from Italy, and after many adventures, found his way to Albion, then the abode of giants, who were not destroyed without desperate fighting.

Bruttium, the country of the Bruttii, anciently the name of the south-west peninsula of Italy. See **CALABRIA**.

Brutus, **LUCIUS JUNIUS**, in the legendary history of early Rome, the hero who overturned the monarchical and established the republican form of government. The son of a rich Roman, on whose death Tarquin the Proud seized the property and put an elder brother to death, he himself only escaped the same fate by feigning idiocy, whence the name *Brutus* ('stupid'). When the popular indignation was roused at the brutal outrage upon Lucretia, he placed himself at the head of the people, and drove the royal family from Rome. He was then elected one of the two first consuls (509 B.C.). With stern justice he sentenced to death his own two sons, detected in a conspiracy to restore the monarchy; and at last fell in mortal combat repelling an attack led on by one of the sons of Tarquin.

Brutus, **MARCUS JUNIUS**, born 85 B.C., appears to have spent the early years of manhood in exclusive devotion to literary pursuits, and not to have taken part in the political dissensions agitating Rome till he had attained a mature age. When the civil war broke out between Pompey and Cæsar, he sided with the former, but after the battle of Pharsalia made his submission to the latter, and in the following year was appointed governor of Cisalpine Gaul. On returning to Rome he divorced his wife in order to marry Portia, the daughter of Cato, of whose principles in politics he professed to be a disciple. The influence of Cassius prevailed upon him to join the conspiracy which ended in the murder of Cæsar (q.v.). The efforts of Brutus to retain popular favour afterwards being unavailing to counteract the effects of the eloquence of Antony, he was forced to leave first Rome, and then Italy. The remainder of his life was spent partly in Athens, partly in Asia Minor, and partly as the leader of a marauding force, which maintained itself by plundering the inhabitants of the eastern

shores of the Adriatic. Defeated by Antony and Octavian (Augustus) at Philippi (42 B.C.), he put an end to his life by falling upon his sword. Merivale takes a very unfavourable view of the character of Brutus, but he is the real hero of Shakespeare's *Julius Cæsar*.

Brux, a town of Bohemia, on the Biela, 78 miles N.W. of Prague by rail. In its vicinity are extensive coal-mines, and the famous mineral springs of Püllna and Seidlitz, from which the inhabitants of Brux prepare a considerable quantity of salts. Pop. (1863) 6308; (1880) 10,136.

Bruyère. See **LA BRUYÈRE**.

Bryant, **JACOB**, born at Plymouth in 1715, was educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge, and in 1756 became secretary to his old pupil the Duke of Marlborough. He accompanied him to Germany, and, on the duke's death there in 1758, found himself placed in such easy circumstances as allowed him to devote the rest of his long life to letters. He died near Windsor, 14th November 1804. The chief of his many works is the *Analysis of Ancient Mythology* (3 vols. 1774-76), which, largely based upon the Abbé Banier, might have served as the pattern of Mr Casaubon's 'Key' in *Middlemarch*.

Bryant, **WILLIAM CULLEN**, poet and journalist, was born of good New England stock at Cummington, Massachusetts, Copyright 1888 in U.S. November 3, 1794. William was by J. B. Lippincott trained to admire the poetry of Pope, and early encouraged to imitate him. The most noted fruit of these attempts was *The Embargo, a Satire by a Youth of Thirteen* (Boston, 1807). In 1810 he entered Williams College, but soon resumed his studies at home, and formed himself by loving study of such poets as his favourites, Blair and Kirke White, while watching with a keen eye the quiet life of nature as he rambled among the woods. His quickened imagination found expression in the majestic blank verse of *Thaumatosis*, which, published in the *North American Review* for September 1817, was at once acknowledged to surpass in grandeur and beauty anything previously written by an American. Meantime Bryant had studied law, had been admitted to the bar, and had settled at Great Barrington. Being called to contribute further to the *Review*, he sent both verse and prose; among the former *Lines to a Water-fowl*, and among the latter a criticism on American poetry. In 1821 he delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa Society at Harvard a poem in Spenserian verse called *The Ages*. In the same year he was married to Miss Frances Fairchild, who inspired his poem *O Fairest of the Rural Maids*; but he also lost his father, to whom he paid a tribute in his *Hymn to Death*. Other noted poems of this time are: *The Rivulet*, *The West Wind*, *Green River*, *The Forest Hymn*, and *June*, which were published in Boston periodicals. In 1825 the poet was induced by his friends to remove to New York to become editor of *The New York Review*, and when it failed a year later, he was made assistant-editor of the *Evening Post*. In 1829 Bryant became editor-in-chief, and by his ability, dignity, and steady adherence to principle, did much to raise the tone of the daily press. A collection of his poems was published in 1832, and, on its republication in England through Washington Irving, received favourable notice from *Blackwood's Magazine*. Bryant was now, however, absorbed in journalism. His paper was democratic in politics, but when the slavery question became prominent it inclined to the anti-slavery side, and in 1856 it assisted in forming the Republican party. As editor of an influential paper, Bryant was often called upon to make public addresses. A volume of

these addresses was published in 1873. His visits to Europe, the West Indies, and many parts of the United States, gave occasion for letters to his paper, which were republished, making three volumes. Meantime his poems had sunk deeply into the minds of his countrymen, and several editions, some of which were finely illustrated, were issued. In his old age, when relieved of the more pressing demands of a daily newspaper, he again permitted the deeper emotions of his heart to flow in verse. The poems of his age bear striking resemblance to those of his youth; they have the same grand simplicity, transparent clearness, wide generalisation. Sometimes, as in *Robert of Lincoln* and *The Planting of an Apple-tree*, he seemed to strike off a more airy and musical lyric than ever before. At seventy-two he commenced a translation of Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey* in English blank verse, which proved as inadequate as that of many greater men before him. Almost his last poem was *The Flood of Years*, a noble counterpart to *Thanatopsis*. On May 29, 1878, Bryant delivered an eloquent address at the unveiling of a bust of Mazzini, in Central Park, New York. After its close, as he was entering a house, he fell on the doorstep, receiving injuries of which he died June 12. His complete works were published in 4 vols. (1883-84); his *Life* was written by his son-in-law, Parke Godwin (2 vols. 1883), and other volumes relating to his life and works have been published.

Brydges, Sir Samuel Egerton, a learned antiquary, was born at Wootton House, Kent, in 1762. Educated at Maidstone, Canterbury, and Queen's College, Cambridge, he was called to the bar in 1787, but retired a few years later to his books at his country house in Kent. He published poetry and novels, and seems from his *Autobiography* to have valued these much above their merits, while he speaks of his editorial labours as 'unworthy pursuits' that 'overlaid the fire of my bosom.' Much more valuable than his original works were his editions of Edward Phillip's *Theatrum Poetarum Anglicanorum* (1800); his *Censura Literaria, containing Titles, Abstracts, and Opinions of old English Books, &c.* (10 vols. 1805-9); and his edition of *Collins's Peerage of England* (9 vols. 1812). The claim of his family to the barony of Chandos broke down, but Brydges was gratified with a Swedish knighthood in 1808 and an English baronetcy in 1814. He represented Maidstone from 1812 to 1818, and during this period printed privately at the 'Lee Priory Press' small editions of many rare Elizabethan books and tracts. In 1818 he went abroad, and lived mostly on the Continent until his death near Geneva, 8th September 1837. His later bibliographical works were the *British Bibliographer* (4 vols. 1810-14); *Restituta, or Titles, Extracts, and Characters of Old Books in English Literature revived* (4 vols. 1814-16); and *Excerpta Tudoriana* (2 vols. 1814-18). His curious *Autobiography* was published in 1834.

Brydone, Patrick, born in Berwickshire about 1741, travelled much on the Continent, and published a book on Sicily and Malta in 1773, which was translated into French and German. He was a student of electricity, an F.R.S., and controller of the Stamp Office; and he died at Lennel House, Berwickshire, on 19th June 1818.

Bryennios, Philotheos, Metropolitan of Nicomedia, born of poor parents at Constantinople in 1833, studied at the theological school in Chalce, near Byzantium, and after being ordained deacon, attended lectures at Leipzig, Berlin, and Munich (1856-61). He was for some years a teacher at Chalce, and presided over the great Greek school

in Constantinople from 1867 to 1874. He was one of two representatives of the Greek Church at the Old Catholic conference in Bonn in 1875, and while absent there was chosen Metropolitan of Serrae in Macedonia. In 1877 he was translated to Nicomedia. He received the degree of D.D. from Edinburgh in 1884. Author of several minor works, Bryennios is chiefly known in the West as the editor of the *Epistles of Clement* (q.v.) and of the *Didachē* (see APOSTLES, TEACHING OF THE).

Bryn Mawr College. See WOMEN (EDUCATION OF).

Bryology, the study of Mosses (q.v.).

Bryony (*Bryonia*), a genus of Cucurbitaceae (q.v.), of which the Common Bryony (*B. dioica*) is the only British species. It is frequent in hedgerows in England, but becomes rarer in the north, and is not indigenous to Scotland. It has cordate palmate leaves, axillary bunches of flowers, and red berries about the size of a pea. It abounds in a fetid and acrid juice. The root-stock is perennial, very large, white and branched, has a repulsive smell, and is acrid, purgative, and emetic, owing to the presence of a bitter and poisonous



Common Bryony (*Bryonia dioica*):
a, flowering, and b, fruiting branch.

alkaloid, *bryonin*. *B. alba*, which is monocious, with black berries, is common in Central Europe, and possesses similar properties. The root of both is applied to bruises, was formerly in use as a purgative, and its tincture is still employed in homoeopathic and veterinary practice. The young shoots of both species are free from acrid and dangerous qualities, and are sometimes used as pot-herbs, especially in Eastern Europe.—The roots of other species of the genus are also acrid and purgative; and are used medicinally in India; but it is said that the root of *B. abyssinica*, when cooked, is eaten without danger.—*B. boykinii* is a species found native in the southern United States.—Black Bryony (*Tamus communis*) is a plant of a different natural order (Dioscoreae, q.v.). Its habit and distribution is similar to that of Bryony proper, but it may be readily distinguished by its simple entire heart-shaped leaves, which are smooth and somewhat glossy. The flowers are small and greenish, and the berries red, the root-stock very large and fleshy, black externally. The berries are unwholesome, and the whole plant is acrid, the roots so much so as to have been formerly employed for stimulating plasters. But the young suckers, in which the acrid principle is not

much developed, may be eaten like asparagus, after careful boiling with change of water.

Bryophyllum (Gr. *bryon*, 'blossom,' and *phyl-lon*, 'leaf'), a genus of Crassulaceae (q.v.). *B. calycinum*, a succulent shrubby plant, a native of the Moluccas, with oblong, crenulated leaves, and large drooping panicles of greenish-yellow flowers, is not unfrequent in British and other hothouses, being regarded as an object of interest on account of its producing buds on the edges of the leaves more readily than almost any other plant, especially when the leaf is pegged down upon the soil, the buds then at once forming independent plants. The same habit is exhibited by the British Bog-orchis (*Malaxis paludosa*), by some species of ferns, &c. The leaves are valued for poulticing in the East. See BUD and LEAF.

Bryozoa. See POLYZOA.

Bryum (Gr. *bryon*, 'moss'), a large genus of common Mosses. They are all small, and generally grow in dense patches of a beautiful bright green. See MOSSES.

Brzesc. See BREST LITOVSK.

Brzesan, a town of Galicia, situated on the Zlota-Lipa, 52 miles SE. of Lemberg. It has manufactures of cloth, leather, meal, beer, and brandy. Pop. (1880) 10,899 (40 per cent. Jews).

Buache, PHILIPPE, a French geographer, born 1700, became in 1729 royal geographer, in 1730 a member of the Academy of Sciences; died in 1773. He published both atlases and geographical works. —His nephew, Jean Nicolas Buache (1741–1821), was also a celebrated geographer.

Buaze (*Securidaca* (*Lophostylis*) *longifolia* and *angustifolia*) is an Aselepiadaceous shrub found by Livingstone north of the Zambesi, where its twigs are employed as a source of fibre, which much resembles flax.

Bubalis, a genus in the Antelope division of hollow-horned even-toed Ruminants, not to be confused with the genus *Bubalus*—the Buffalo (q.v.). The species of *Bubalis* are among the more ox-like antelopes, and one of them is supposed to be the *Bubalus* of the ancients. In this genus the head is elongated, the snout broad, the horns twisted and present in both sexes, the tear-pits small, the back sloping off behind, the teats two in number.



Bubalis.

The Bubaline of the North African deserts (*B. mauritanica* = *Antelope bubalis*) is a handsome animal of a reddish-brown colour, standing about 5 feet high at the shoulder, living in herds, and readily tamed. It is figured on Egyptian monuments. The Hartebeest (*B. caama*) is found in

the south, is perhaps slightly larger, has a general gray-brown colour (black on the outside of the legs and on middle of forehead, with large white spots on haunches), and is at home on the mountains. The Sasaby (*B. lunata*), the Bastard Hartebeest of the Cape Colonists, is slightly smaller, and is differently coloured. The Bontebok (*B. pygarga*) is a smaller and more beautifully coloured form of the southern interior, where another species, the violet-coloured Blesbok, is also abundant. See ANTELOPE.

Bubastis (the *Pi-beseth* of Ezek. xxx. 17; now *Tel Bast*), a ruined city of Lower Egypt, on the eastern main-arm of the Nile, near Zagazig, named from the lion-headed and cat-headed goddess Bast, who was worshipped here with peculiar reverence. She was daughter of Ra, and bride of Ptah, and symbolised sexual passion. Her festival took place on the 16th of Khoiak (about Christmas). Bast (also called *Menk*) and Sekhet were regarded as sisters. Under the 25th dynasty (725–686 B.C.) the city was a royal residence, but after the Persian conquest (352 B.C.) it gradually lost its importance. The ruins of its great temple were discovered by M. Naville in 1887, and extensive excavations next year revealed that Bubastis was once the seat of a great Hyksos settlement.

Bubble Shell. See BULLA.

Bubo. See OWL.

Bubo, an inflammatory swelling of the glands in the groin; used occasionally also of the armpit. See GONORRHOEA and INFLAMMATION.

Buccaneers (through the Fr. verb *boucaner*, and noun *boucanier*, from Caribbean *boucan*, 'smoke-dried meat'), a name given to the celebrated associations of piratical adventurers, who, from the commencement of the second quarter of the 16th century to the end of the 17th, maintained themselves in the Caribbean seas, at first by systematic reprisals on the Spaniards, latterly by less justifiable and indiscriminate piracy. The arrogant assumption by the Spaniards of a divine right to the whole New World, and their consequent exclusive monopoly of trade, could not of course be tolerated by the enterprising mariners of England and France, who began to band themselves together for mutual defence, and for the plunder of the common enemy. In 1625 an attempt was made to found a settlement on the island of St Christopher as a centre of smuggling enterprise with San Domingo, and in 1630 the small island of Tortuga was seized and converted into a stronghold. From this the buccaneers made their incursions against the Spaniards, and here they stored the gains of their roving adventurous life. Their earlier history shows that they had a rude honour and fidelity in their relation with one another, which attracted to their flag hundreds of adventurous spirits from every European trading nation. Tortuga was taken and retaken by the Spaniards, but the capture of Jamaica in 1655 finally gave the buccaneers a surer footing. Their power had now become considerable, and their seamen were as famous for their desperate courage as for their consuming hatred of the Spaniards. Their history embraces narratives of cruelty and bloodshed hardly to be surpassed in the annals of crime, but is brightened by many a story of high and romantic adventure, of chivalrous valour, and brilliant generalship. Among the 'great captains' whose names figure most prominently in the records of buccaneering were the Frenchman Montbars, surnamed by the terrible title of 'The Exterminator'; Peter of Dieppe, surnamed 'The Great'—as truly, perhaps, as many others so distinguished; L'Olonnois; Michael de Busco and Bartolomeo de Portugalvez; Mansvelt, and Van

Horn. Pre-eminent, however, among them all was the Welshman, Henry Morgan, afterwards knighted by Charles II. and made deputy-governor of Jamaica, a man of rare capacity and courage. He it was that led the way for the buccaneers to the Southern Ocean, by his daring march in 1671 across the Isthmus of Panama to the city of that name, which he took and plundered after a desperate battle. In 1680 they crossed the Isthmus of Darien and seized some Spanish vessels in the Bay of Panama, after which some returned, but others cruised for months through the South Sea, coming back with enormous wealth to the West Indies by Cape Horn. Other expeditions followed, whose ravages almost paralysed the Spanish trade in the Pacific. In 1685, when their fleet defied the Spanish power in the Bay of Panama, their glory was at its height. The strange confederacy now began to fall to pieces under the jealousies that grew up with wealth and greater security; and the next stages in their history are disunion, decay, and extinction. The war between France and Britain, after the accession of William III., dissolved the ancient alliance of the French and English buccaneers. After the Peace of Ryswick, and the accession of the Bourbon Philip V. to the Spanish crown (1701), the buccaneers finally disappeared to make way for a race of mere cut-throats and vulgar desperadoes, who lacked the greatness of their predecessors. The last event in their history was the capture of Cartagena in 1697, where the booty was enormous. See Dampier's *Voyages* for a lively account of the Pacific voyages; the *Narratives* of Wafer, Ringrove, and Sharp; Captain Burney's *History of the Buccaneers of America* (1816); Thornbury's *Monarchs of the Main* (1855); and *Les Flibustiers au XVII. Siècle* (Limoges, 1884).

Buc'cari, or BAKAR, a free port of Croatia, on an inlet of the Gulf of Quarnero, 5 miles by rail ESE. of Fiume. Pop. 2000.

Buccinator (Lat. from *buccinare*, 'to sound a trumpet'), the name of a flat muscle in the cheeks, so called because, when the cheeks are distended with air, the contraction of the buccinator muscles forces it out.

Buc'cinum. See WHELK.

Buccleuch, a small Selkirkshire glen, 18 miles SW. of Selkirk, with the site of an early stronghold of the Scotts, to whom it gave the title of earl (1619) and duke (1663). See SCOTT.

Bucen'taur (Ital. *bucentoro*), the name of the state-galley in which the former Doges of Venice used to sail out every year on Ascension-day, amid great festivities, in order, by sinking a ring into the sea, to wed it in token of perpetual sovereignty. The word signifies a monstrous figure of half bull, half man, such as may originally have been depicted on the vessel. The ceremony was already in use in the 13th century; in 1798 the last Bucen'taur, built in 1722-29, was burned by the French, but some portions, spared for their gold work, are still preserved in the arsenal.

Buceph'alus (Gr., 'ox-head'), the name of the favourite charger of Alexander the Great, was probably also the name of a peculiar breed of horses in Thessaly. The young hero was the first to break in the steed, and thus fulfilled the condition stated by an oracle as necessary for gaining the crown of Macedon.—The town BUCEPHALIA, on the river Hydaspes (Jhelum), in India, was founded near the grave of Bucephalus, who died during Alexander's Indian expedition.

Bucer, or BUTZER, MARTIN, reformer, was born in 1491 at Schlettstadt, in Alsace. At the age of fourteen he entered the Dominican order, and

went to Heidelberg to study theology, Greek, and Hebrew. In 1521 he quitted the order, and was appointed chaplain to the Elector-Palatine, an acquaintance with the works of Erasmus having already inclined him towards Protestantism. He married a former nun in 1522, and next year settled in Strasburg. In the disputes between Luther and Zwingli, Bucer adopted a middle course, and endeavoured to reconcile them; but his view of the sacraments, which approached that of Zwingli, exposed him to Luther's harsh reprobation. At the Diet of Augsburg, where he conducted himself with great circumspection and moderation, he generally accorded with the Lutheran views, but, along with other Strasburg theologians, declined to subscribe to the proposed confession of faith, and afterwards drew up the *Confessio Tetrapolitana* (1530). At Wittenberg, however, an agreement was in 1536 entered into between Bucer and the Lutherans. In consequence of his refusal to sign the *Interim* (q.v.) in 1548, Bucer found his situation irksome in Germany, and therefore accepted Cranmer's invitation (1549), and came to England, to teach theology at Cambridge, and assist in forwarding the Reformation. His modesty, blameless life, and great learning gained many friends in England; but his labours were soon terminated by death, February 27, 1551. His remains were interred in St Mary's, Cambridge, with great solemnity, but during Mary's reign were exhumed and buried in the market-place. Bucer's constant attempts to express himself in language agreeable both to Luther and Zwingli, induced in him at times an obscure and ambiguous style, and Bossuet stigmatised Bucer as 'the great architect of subtleties.' His work, a translation and exposition of the Psalms, he published under the pseudonym Aretinus Felinus (1529). Lenz has edited (1880) his correspondence with the Landgrave of Hesse, whose 'second' marriage Bucer defended. See Baum, *Capito und Bucer* (1860); Tollin, *Serret und Bucer* (1880); and a long article by Professor Ward in the *Dictionary of National Biography* (vol. vii. 1886).

Bu'ccros. See HORNBILL.

Buch, LEOPOLD VON, German geologist, was born at Schloss-Stolpe, near Angermünde, in 1774, and received instruction under Werner at the Mining Academy, Freiberg. He afterwards travelled in pursuit of his favourite science, through all the states of Germany, through Scandinavia as far as the North Cape, and through several parts of Great Britain, France, and Italy, visiting the Canary Islands in 1815. He strenuously upheld the now exploded theory of 'Elevation Craters,' according to which volcanic mountains have been formed by a single sudden swelling up into a hollow bladder of previously existing horizontal beds of lava and scoriae. He died in Berlin, March 4, 1853. His collected works fill 4 vols. (1867-85).

Buchan, the north-east district of Aberdeenshire (q.v.), lying between the Ythan and the Deveron. It rises in Mormond Hill to 769 feet; portions of the coast are bold and precipitous, but 6 miles south of Peterhead are the famous Bullers of Buchan, a huge vertical well in the granite margin of the sea, 50 feet in diameter and 100 feet deep, into whose bottom the sea rushes by a natural archway. Buchan contains the towns of Peterhead, Fraserburgh, Macduff, and Turriff, besides the remains of the Abbey of Deer, and of several castles of the Comyns, who held the earldom of Buchan, but forfeited their title and property in 1309. See Pratt's *History of Buchan* (Aberdeen, 1859). Buchan Ness is the easternmost promontory of Scotland, 3 miles S. of Peterhead.

Buchan, DAVID, explorer, born in 1780, held a lieutenant's commission in the British navy in 1806, and in 1810 was in command of a schooner on the Newfoundland station. He explored the river Exploit (1811), and penetrated 160 miles into the interior. Promoted commander in 1816, he was two years later appointed to the command of a Polar expedition, at the same time as Ross and Parry started on their voyage in search of a north-west passage. Buchan reached Spitzbergen with the *Dorothea* and *Trent*, but all attempts to pierce the gigantic icy barrier were in vain. On his return he commanded for a time on the Newfoundland station, was appointed high-sheriff of Newfoundland (1825), and a few years later sailed on another voyage to northern waters, from which he never returned. His name was removed from the list of living captains in 1839.

Buchan, PETER, an industrious collector of Scottish ballads, was born at Peterhead in 1790. At twenty-four he published an original volume of verse, next taught himself copper-engraving, and after learning the art of printing at Stirling in ten days, set up a press at Peterhead (1816). He afterwards removed to London, but returned after two years to Peterhead, where by his business he made money enough to buy a property in Stirlingshire. He died in London, September 19, 1854. Buchan's *Ancient Ballads and Songs of the North of Scotland* was published at Edinburgh in 1828. It contained about forty new ballads, and many fresh versions of ballads printed elsewhere. A second collection was edited for the Percy Society in 1845 by J. H. Dixon. Buchan wrote many books, among them *Annals of Peterhead* (1819), and *The Eglinton Tournament and Gentlemen Unmasked* (Glasgow, 1839).

Buchan, WILLIAM, physician, was born in 1720 at Ancrum, Roxburghshire, and studied divinity and medicine in Edinburgh. He settled in Sheffield, but removed to Edinburgh about 1766, where he practised and lectured on natural philosophy. His *Domestic Medicine*, perhaps the most popular book of its kind ever issued, appeared in 1769. Its success was great and immediate, 19 large editions, amounting to 80,000 copies, being sold during Buchan's lifetime. He removed to London in 1778, where he died, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Buchan was also author of works on *Cold Bathing* (1786), *Diet* (1797), and *Offices and Duties of a Mother* (1800).

Buchanan, CLAUDIUS, born at Cambuslang, near Glasgow, 12th March 1766, studied for two years at Glasgow University, and afterwards, through the influence of the Rev. John Newton, at the university of Cambridge (1791-95). From 1797 he was a chaplain in the East India Company's service at Barrackpur, where he studied Hindustani and Persian; in 1799 he removed to Calcutta, and became vice-provost of the college founded by Lord Wellesley at Fort William. He translated the Gospels into Persian and Hindustani, and made two tours through southern and western India; but debarred as a chaplain from directly engaging in missionary enterprise, he returned in 1808 to England. There, by his sermons and his periodical, *The Star of the East*, he excited so much popular interest that the government took his side, and before his death, February 9, 1815, the first English bishop had been appointed to Calcutta. See his *Life* by Pearson (3d ed. 1819). His *Christian Researches in India* was published in 1858.

Buchanan, GEORGE, the most distinguished scholar whom Scotland has produced, and one of the most brilliant representatives of the intellectual and religious movements of his age, was born of parents poor, but of good descent, at

Killearn, in the county of Stirling, in February 1506. Buchanan received the rudiments of his education in Scotland; but at the age of fourteen was sent by an uncle to the university of Paris, where his chief study was the composition of Latin verse. The death of this uncle who had supported him, as well as the state of his own health, forced Buchanan at the end of two years to return to Scotland. After nearly a year's illness, he enlisted in a force led by the Duke of Albany against England; and from the hardships of this campaign his health again suffered severely. In 1524 he matriculated as a *pauper* student at St Andrews, and the next year took the degree of B.A. In 1526 he returned to France, took the degree of M.A. at the Scottish College of Paris, and after two years' great privations, was appointed professor in the college of Ste Barbe. About this time, also, he was engaged as tutor to the son of the Earl of Cassilis; and on his pupil's return to Scotland, probably about 1533, Buchanan accompanied him. On the termination of this engagement, he was intrusted by James V. with the education of one of his illegitimate sons. To this period belong Buchanan's two satires against the Franciscans, the *Somnium* and *Franciscanus*, the latter prompted by the king himself, who, nevertheless, was either unable or unwilling to shield Buchanan from the anger of the monks. At the instance of Cardinal Beaton, Buchanan was imprisoned in the castle of St Andrews; but, having made his escape, he fled to England, whence, after a short stay, he proceeded to Paris (1539). Finding Beaton here, he hastened to Bordeaux on the invitation of André de Gouvéa, the head of the college in that city, and in that college acted as one of the professors for the next three years. During his stay here, Buchanan wrote and translated several plays, mainly with the object of weaning the tastes of the students from the allegorical representations so popular at that time. After leaving Bordeaux in 1542 on account of the plague, he seems for some years to have held the position of professor in the college of Cardinal le Moine, at Paris. In 1547, again through Gouvéa, he was appointed professor in the newly-founded university of Coimbra, in Portugal. Gouvéa, however, dying shortly afterwards, the authority of the Romish Church subjected Buchanan to the most annoying persecution on account of his supposed heretical opinions; and it was during his enforced stay in a monastery here that he began his celebrated Latin paraphrase of the Psalms. On his release he shortly afterwards proceeded to England, and thence again returned to France towards the end of 1552. In 1555 he was appointed tutor to the son of the famous Maréchal de Brissac, an engagement which he held for five years. Shortly afterwards Buchanan returned to Scotland, and never again left it for a lengthened period. The notices we have of him during this last period of his life show that he played an important part in public affairs. Immediately on his arrival in Scotland, he became classical tutor to Queen Mary, and to her he dedicated his completed version of the Psalms. In 1566 Murray appointed him principal of St Leonard's College, St Andrews; and during three successive years he was chosen one of the four electors of the rector. On his return to Scotland Buchanan had joined the Reformed Church, and in the struggles between Mary and her lords, especially after the murder of Darnley, he vehemently took the side of the latter. Ten days after Mary's imprisonment in Lochleven, Buchanan was chosen moderator of the General Assembly that met in Edinburgh, June 25, 1567; and the next year he accompanied Murray to the celebrated Conference of York, where the question of Mary's

part in Darnley's murder was brought before the commissioners of Elizabeth. Previous to this meeting he had written the *Detectio Mariæ Regine*, in which he stated with undue violence the case of the insurgent lords against Mary. During the regency of Lennox, Buchanan was appointed tutor to the young king, James VI. In after-years James spoke with pride of his great teacher, though his feeling towards him had more in it of respect than affection. In 1570 Buchanan was made keeper of the Privy Seal, an office that entitled him to a seat in parliament. He resigned this post in 1578, and devoted his remaining years to the completion of his *History of Scotland*, which was published just thirty days before his death. He died on the 28th of September 1582, and was buried in Greyfriars' Churchyard, Edinburgh, at the expense of the city.

In his own day, Buchanan had a European reputation, which rested mainly on his skill in Latin poetry. This was an exercise in which all his learned contemporaries vied with each other; and by their unanimous admission, Buchanan was on this ground without a rival. The publication of his *History of Scotland* was looked forward to as an event in the history of letters. The only part of this history which still retains a certain importance is that which deals with the events of his own time. Of these, indeed, his account is that of a strong partisan; but it is also the account of a practical statesman and a far-seeing observer. Buchanan's influence subsequent to his death was chiefly through his tract *De Jure Regni*. In this tract, written in the form of a dialogue between himself and a brother of Maitland of Lethington, he states with the utmost boldness the doctrine that kings exist by the will, and for the good, of the people. Buchanan's teaching on this point had a most powerful influence on many statesmen who took a leading part in the great political movements of the 17th century. For continental scholars and men of letters of his own age, Buchanan was the most distinguished person then living in Britain. He may, indeed, be fairly regarded as the most brilliant British humanist of the 16th century. As in the case of Erasmus, the reformer and the humanist were in Buchanan pretty well mixed. Up till his final return to Scotland, the humanist distinctly predominated. All through his life, indeed, he wrote against the monks; but it was not so much their false doctrine that offended him, as their ignorance and brutality. Moreover, much of his verse written during this period reveals a view of life far more suggestive of the irony of the humanist than the zeal of a religious reformer. It has been matter of dispute whether the subjects of his erotic verses were real persons or not; but some lines in one of his later poems seem clearly to prove that they were imaginary. On his return to Scotland, politics and religion gradually occupied more and more of his thoughts; yet it is a mistake to suppose that he ever became a politician or a reformer of the type of Knox or Andrew Melville. Our information regarding Buchanan is insufficient to enable us to form a distinct idea of the minuter shades of his character; but we can have no doubt that his personality was of the most commanding order. He had the reverence and affection of men themselves eminent for their genius and virtue. On the other hand, by those opposed to him in politics and religion, he was spoken of as a monster of vice and ingratitude. See Irving's *Life of Buchanan* (1817).

Buchanan, JAMES, fifteenth president of the United States, was born near Mercersburg, Pennsylvania, April 23, 1791, the son of an immigrant Irish farmer. He was educated at Dickinson Col-

lege, and in 1812 was admitted to the bar, where he enjoyed a large practice. He served in the state legislature (1815-16), and in congress (1820-31). In 1832 he was sent as envoy-extraordinary to negotiate the first commercial treaty with Russia; and in 1833 he was elected a member of the United States senate, in which he sat till 1845. Appointed by President Polk, in March 1845, secretary of state, he held that office till the close of Polk's presidency, and by his firmness succeeded in settling the Oregon boundary question on lines satisfactory to the United States. Buchanan was ambassador to England from 1853 to 1856, and in the latter year, on the nomination of the Democratic party, he was elected president. During his administration the slavery question drew to a head. Buchanan himself was strongly in favour of the maintenance of slavery; his cabinet was largely made up of advocates of the system; and he freely supported the attempt to establish Kansas as a slave state. As the close of his term approached, it became evident that a conflict was impending, and the election of Lincoln precipitated the outbreak; on the 20th of December, South Carolina formally seceded. The president declined to reinforce Fort Sumter; but neither would he withdraw its garrison, and his cabinet, partaking in the sectional differences, hurriedly broke up. The closing days of his administration were marked by a supineness which facilitated the movements of the party of secession, by whom most of the forts and arsenals in the disaffected states were seized during the winter. After his retirement from office, Buchanan took no part in public affairs; but he published in 1866 a defence of his administration. He died June 1, 1868. See his *Life* by George Ticknor Curtis (2 vols. New York, 1883).

Buchanan, ROBERT, a versatile writer in verse and prose, born in Warwickshire, 18th August 1841. He was educated at Glasgow University, where his closest friend was the short-lived David Gray (1838-61). While yet mere boys the two set out for London to set the Thames on fire; but gloom and poverty hung over their steps, and fame did not come until too late for the elder of the pair. Buchanan's first work, *Undertones*, a volume of verse, published in 1863, was well received. The *Idylls and Legends of Inverburn* followed in 1865, and next year *London Poems*, the latter his first distinct success, and indeed a rare combination of lyrical vigour and insight into humble life, lightened up with humour and sweetened with pathos. Later volumes of verse are a translation of Danish ballads and *Wayside Posies* (1866); *North Coast Poems* (1867); *Napoleon Fallen: a Lyrical Drama* (1871); *The Drama of Kings* (1871); *Ballads of Love, Life, and Humour* (1882); and *The City of Dream* (1888). He has besides contributed prose to the magazines, and one of his articles earned for itself an unhappy notoriety, that under the pseudonym of 'Robert Maitland,' on 'The Fleshly School of Poetry' in the *Contemporary Review* for October 1871. It was mainly an attack upon Dante G. Rossetti, and that poet answered for himself in a famous letter to the *Athenæum* on 'The Stealthy School of Criticism.' Mr Swinburne's scathing pamphlet, *Under the Microscope* (1872), followed, and eventually Buchanan was fain to withdraw the main part of his charge. Buchanan has also written several novels; among them *A Child of Nature* (1879), *God and the Man* (1881), *The Martyrdom of Madeline* (1882), and *Foxglove Manor* (1884), the last a really strong novel. He was no less successful as a dramatist with *A Nine Days' Queen*, *Lady Clare*, *Storm-beaten*, and *Sophia*, the last a bold but not unhappy adaptation of *Tom Jones*, produced in 1886.

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Buchanites, an extraordinary sect of fanatics which sprang up in the west of Scotland in the last quarter of the 18th century. Its founder was Elspeth Buchan, born in 1738, the daughter of John Simpson, a wayside innkeeper near Banff. She married Robert Buchan, a potter, but ultimately separated from him, having begun meanwhile to preach strange religious doctrines which she professed to find in the Scriptures. At Irvine she became acquainted with the Rev. Hugh White, minister of the Relief Church there, a weak and vain man, who adopted her opinions, for which he was deposed by his presbytery. A few followers joined them, but the magistrates expelled her from the town in May 1784. Accompanied by White and a handful of crazy fanatics, she travelled towards Nithsdale, and found a resting-place in a barn at New Cample, near Thornhill. Their whole number was forty-six, and here they built for themselves a house of one apartment with a loft, in which they all dwelt, supported chiefly by the money of the more wealthy of their number. Mrs Buchan, who gave herself out as the woman of Rev. xii., seems to have been rogue as well as fool, for with all her other-worldliness she had a very mundane interest in money, and could hardly have herself believed in the bogus miracles she wrought. The poet Burns in a letter (August 1784) speaks of the idleness and immorality of her followers. They seem to have had a community of women. Mrs Buchan died in May 1791, and was buried clandestinely by White. The last survivor of her sect died in 1848. See *The Buchanites from First to Last*, by Joseph Train (Edin. 1846).

Bucharest (*Bucuresti*), the capital of the former principality of Wallachia and of the present kingdom of Roumania, stands 265 feet above sea-level, in the fertile but treeless plain of the small, sluggish Dambovitza. By rail it is 716 miles SE. of Vienna, 40 N. of Giurgevo on the Danube, and 179 NW. of Varna on the Black Sea. A strange meeting-point of East and West, the town as a whole is but meanly built, but the streets are now mostly paved, and lighted with gas. An elaborate system of fortification was undertaken in 1885. There are some handsome hotels; and the metal-plated cupolas of the innumerable churches give to the place a picturesque aspect. The royal palace was rebuilt in 1885; and the Catholic cathedral is a fine edifice of 1875-84. The number of cafés and gambling-tables is excessive; and altogether Bucharest has the unenviable reputation of being the most dissolute capital in Europe, with all the vices but few of the refinements of Paris. There is, however, a university, founded in 1864. The *corso*, or public promenade, is a miniature Hyde Park. Bucharest is the entrepôt for the trade between Austria and the Balkan Peninsula, the chief articles of commerce being textile fabrics, grain, hides, metal, coal, timber, and cattle. Its manufactures are unimportant, and the workmen are chiefly Hungarians and Germans. Bucharest has been several times besieged; and between 1793 and 1812 suffered twice from earthquakes, twice from inundations, once from fire, and twice from pestilence. At it in 1812 a treaty was concluded between Turkey and Russia, by which the former ceded Bessarabia and part of Moldavia; and in 1886 the treaty between Servia and Bulgaria was made here. Pop. (1866) 141,754; (1879) 221,805. See Mrs Berger's *Winter in the City of Pleasure* (1877).

Buchez, PHILIPPE BENJAMIN JOSEPH, a French physician and publicist, was born 31st March 1796, at Mortagne in Ardennes. After his studies at Paris, he took part in several of the secret plots against the Bourbons, and as a St Simonist edited

for some time the communist journal, *Le Producteur*. After the revolution of 1830, he established and conducted the journal *L'Européen*, as an organ of Neo-Catholicism, and, in concert with M. Roux Lavergne, began the *Histoire Parlementaire de la Révolution Française* (40 vols. 1833-38). His *Introduction à la Science de l'Histoire* had already appeared in 1833, and was followed by his *Essai d'un traité complet de Philosophie, au point de vue du Catholicisme et du Progrès* (3 vols. 1839-40). After the revolution of February 1848, Buchez was made president of the National Assembly; but his want of energy during the disturbance of May 15 cost him all political influence. On the establishment of the Empire, he returned to his studies. He died 12th August 1865.

Büchner, LUDWIG, physician and materialist philosopher, was born at Darmstadt, where his father was a doctor, 29th March 1824. He studied at Gießen, Strassburg, Würzburg, and Vienna. He became a lecturer at Tübingen University, and in 1855 published *Kraft und Stoff* (14th ed. 1876; Eng. trans. *Force and Matter*, 1870), in which he attempted scientifically to establish a materialistic view of the universe. A violent controversy was raised; and Büchner saw himself compelled to resign his university post, and begin medical practice in Darmstadt. He has written numerous contributions to periodicals on physiological and pathological subjects, as also in support of his atomistic philosophy; has published in the latter department *Natur und Geist* (1857; 3d ed. 1876), *Aus Natur und Wissenschaft* (1862), as well as works on Darwinism, the idea of God, the intelligence of animals; and has translated Lyell's *Antiquity of Man* (1864).—His brother, GEORGE (1813-37), also a doctor by profession, made a name for himself as a poet; and his sister, LUISE (1823-77), was a poetess and novelist.

Buchu. See **BUCKU**.

Buck, a name sometimes distinctively appropriated to the adult male of the Fallow Deer (q.v.), the female of which is a *Doe*. But the term is often also applied to the male of other species of deer, as of the Roebuck (q.v.), although never to that of the Red Deer (see **DEER**), which, when mature, is a Stag or a Hart.

Buckau, a manufacturing town of Prussian Saxony, practically a suburb of Magdeburg (q.v.). Pop. (1885) 16,049.

Buck-bean, or MARSH TREFOIL (*Menyanthes trifoliata*), a species of Gentianaceæ (q.v.), widely



Buck-bean (*Menyanthes trifoliata*):
a, fruit; b, a flower.

distributed in all the colder parts of the northern hemisphere, common in Britain, and not rare in the northern parts of the United States and in Canada. It is easily recognised by its trefoiled leaves, and its small white or pink shaggy flowers.

These are dimorphic, like Primrose (q.v.) or Lythrum. It grows in marshy places, its creeping root-stocks and densely matted roots often rendering boggy ground firm. It is a traditional tonic and febrifuge in rustic and veterinary medicine, especially in Germany, and is also sometimes employed to give bitterness to beer. The root-stock was formerly used as a source of starchy food in Northern Europe.

Buck-eye, an American name for the species of horse-chestnuts (*Æsculus, Pavia*), more especially *Æ. glabra* and its varieties. *Pavia rubra* and its varieties are known as red buck-eye, *Æ. flava* as sweet buck-eye, &c. See HORSE-CHESTNUT.

Buckhound, a name applied to the royal pack of staghounds, which are large-sized foxhounds. The mastership of the Buckhounds is always held by a prominent nobleman, who goes in and out with the government. From 1366 till 1633 the mastership was hereditary in the Brocas family, on whom we have an interesting monograph by Professor M. Burrows (1886).

Buckhurst, LORD. See SACKVILLE.

Buckie, a fishing-town of Banffshire, Scotland, 13 miles E.N.E. of Elgin by rail. 'The largest purely fishing-village' in Scotland, Buckie is the head of the fishery district from Banff to Findhorn. The present harbour (1874-80), constructed of concrete at a cost of £60,000, consists of an outer and inner basin, with an area of 9 acres. Pop. (1841) 2165; (1881) 4350.

Buckingham, the county town of Buckinghamshire, stands, almost encircled by the Ouse, 61 miles N.W. of London. An ancient place fortified by Edward the Elder (918), it yet has no antiquities, owing to a great fire in 1725. Since 1848 Aylesbury has superseded it as the assize town, and it lost its last member in 1885. The church (1781) was restored by Sir Gilbert Scott, who was born close by; and there are a town-hall of much the same date, and a grammar-school founded in 1548. The bobbin-lace manufacture has declined. Pop. (1881) 3385. Stowe House, the princely seat of the Duke of Buckingham, 3 miles to the north-west, was rebuilt towards the close of the 17th century. Its art treasures were sold in 1848. William Giffard became Earl of Buckingham in the reign of William I. The same title was conferred on the youngest son of Edward III. For the first dukes of Buckingham, see below. In 1784 George Grenville, Earl Temple, became marquis of the town of Buckingham, and in 1822 his son became duke. The title of Duke of Buckinghamshire was conferred in 1703 on John Sheffield (q.v.), Marquis of Normanby. His town house was bought by George III. in 1761, and has been repeatedly altered and extended; and in 1837 Buckingham Palace became Queen Victoria's ordinary town residence.

Buckingham, GEORGE VILLIERS, DUKE OF, third son of Sir George Villiers, was born at his father's seat of Brookshy, Leicestershire, in 1592. In 1614 he was brought before the notice of James I., and was soon received into high favour, as successor to the Earl of Somerset. He was knighted, raised to the peerage as Viscount Villiers in 1616, and became Marquis of Buckingham in 1618. Well-paid offices and rich lands were heaped on him so profusely, that, from a threadbare hanger-on at court, he became, with a single exception, the wealthiest noble in England. In 1620 he married the daughter of the Earl of Rutland, the richest heiress in the kingdom. In 1623, while the Spanish match was in progress, Buckingham persuaded Charles to go himself to Madrid and

prosecute his suit in person. The ultimate failure of the negotiations was greatly owing to Buckingham's arrogance. Both Charles and Buckingham returned from Spain in fierce wrath against that power. In his absence Buckingham was created a duke, and on his return nominated Lord-Warden of the Cinque Ports. He carried on the negotiation for the marriage of Charles with the Princess Henrietta of France; and on Charles's accession in 1625, the duke maintained his ascendancy at court. But after the ill-fated expedition against Cadiz, he became odious to the nation, was impeached by the Commons, and only saved by the king dissolving parliament. His insolent behaviour, shown at this period in making love to the queen of France, next helped to embroil us with that country. In 1627 he appeared with an armament before Rochelle, then in possession of the Huguenots, and in revolt against the French crown. But they refused him admission within the harbour; and when his troops made an ill-conducted descent on the neighbouring Isle of Rhé, they were defeated, and Buckingham returned in disgrace to England. He soon after undertook a second expedition to Rochelle, and had gone down to Portsmouth for embarkation, when on 23d August 1628 he was assassinated by a discontented subaltern, John Felton, who was hanged for the crime at Tyburn.

Buckingham, GEORGE VILLIERS, second DUKE OF, was born at Wallingford House (on the site of the Admiralty), 30th January 1627, and, after his father's assassination, was brought up with Charles I.'s children. On the outbreak of the Civil War, he hurried from Cambridge to the royalist camp, and lost, recovered, and once more lost his estates—almost his life, too, during Lord Holland's unfortunate rising in Surrey (1648), when his younger brother did meet a hero's death. He attended Charles II. to Scotland, and after the battle of Worcester and an escape more marvellous even than his master's, went again into exile. Returning secretly to England, he married, in 1657, the daughter of Lord Fairfax, to whom his forfeited estates had been assigned. The Restoration gave them back to Buckingham, and brought Buckingham to court, where for twenty-five years he was the wildest and wickedest ronc of them all. In 1671 he killed in a duel the Earl of Shrewsbury, whose countess, his paramour, looked on, disguised as a page. When sated with pleasure, he would turn for a change to ambition, and four times his mad freaks lodged him in the Tower. He was mainly instrumental in Clarendon's downfall; was a member of the infamous 'Cabal' (q.v.); and on its break-up in 1673 passed over, like Shaftesbury, to the popular side. But crippled with debt, he retired, after Charles's death in 1685, to his manor of Helmsley, in Yorkshire, and amused himself with the chase. He died on 16th April 1688 at Kirby-Moorside, miserably, if not, indeed, 'in the worst inn's worst room.' Buckingham is remembered as the author of several comedies, the wittiest of which, *The Rehearsal* (1671), was a travesty of Dryden's tragedies; but he is better remembered as the 'Zimri' of Dryden's *Absalom and Achitophel*, a portraiture of merciless fidelity.

Buckingham, JAMES SILK, traveller and lecturer, a farmer's son, was born at Flushing, near Falmouth, in 1786, and went to sea before he was ten. After years of unsettled and wandering life, he in 1818 established a journal at Calcutta, the boldness of whose strictures on the Indian government led to his expulsion from Bengal. In London he established the *Oriental Herald* (1824), and the *Athenæum* (1828), now the leading weekly literary journal. Subsequently he travelled through the United States, and from 1832 to 1837

was member for Sheffield. He was projector of a literary club, the British and Foreign Institute (1843-46); and president of the London Temperance League (1851). Besides eighteen books of travel, &c., he had published two volumes of his Autobiography, when he died June 30, 1855. His youngest son, Leicester (1827-65), was a skilful dramatic adapter.

Buckinghamshire, or **BUCKS**, a south-midland county of England, surrounded by Bedfordshire, Herts, Middlesex, Surrey, Berks, Oxfordshire, and Northamptonshire. Thirty-third in size of the English counties, it has a maximum length of 57 miles, a varying breadth of 8½ and 27 miles, and an area of 730 sq. m., or 406,932 acres. It is finely diversified with hill and dale, wood and water. To the south is a broad chalk-band, including the Chiltern range of chalk-hills, which, entering from Oxfordshire and stretching across the county in a north-easterly direction, are partly covered with heath and wood, and rise near Wendover to a height of 905 feet above sea-level. Sloping north from these hills, and crossed by narrower bands of greensand and oolite, is the extensive and very fertile vale of Aylesbury, watered by the Thame. The chief rivers are the Thames, bordering the county on the south-west, the Ouse, Ousel, Colne, and Thame, the last two falling into the Thames. The Grand Junction Canal, and the Great Western and North-Western Railways, with numerous branch lines, traverse the county. The climate is mild and healthy; the soil is mostly good, chalk and clay predominating. Buckinghamshire is eminently an agricultural county, 87 per cent. of the entire area being in cultivation. The farms are generally small, averaging 70 acres. Wheat is the principal crop. The chief dairy product is butter, which finds a ready sale, chiefly in London. In the vale of Aylesbury, fattening of cattle is extensively carried on; the sheep are noted for their fine and heavy fleeces; and large numbers of ducks are reared for metropolitan consumption. Nearly 40 sq. m. are under woods and plantations, beech and oak being the chief timber-trees. The chief manufactures are paper, straw-plait, and thread-lace. The county returns three members to parliament; Aylesbury, Buckingham, Marlow, and Wycombe having ceased in 1885 to be parliamentary boroughs. Buckinghamshire contains some Roman and British remains, as traces of Watling, Icknield, and Ake-man Streets, or Ways; remains of the religious houses of Missenden, Notley, Burnham, Medmenham, and Ivinghoe; and vestiges of Lavendon and Whitchurch Castles. There are many examples of Early English and Decorated architecture; and the church of Chetwode (13th century), near Buckingham, contains some fine examples of ancient glass-staining. Many events of historical interest occurred in this county. It was the scene of contest in the civil wars of Stephen and John. At Chalfont St Giles, Milton finished his *Paradise Lost*, and at Horton he wrote *L'Allegro*. At Hampden lived the great patriot of that name; Atterbury was born at Milton; Stoke Poges Churchyard suggested Gray's *Elegy*, and is the place of his burial; at Olney, Cowper lived. Beaconsfield Manor was the seat of Waller; Gregories, near Beaconsfield, of Edmund Burke; Bradenham, of the elder D'Israeli; and Hughenden, of the Earl of Beaconsfield. Scott, the biblical commentator, was rector of Aston Sandford; Herschel's great telescope was erected at Slough, where he made most of his important discoveries; and at Stowe is a magnificent mansion—one of the finest in England, alike for extent, architecture, and beauty of site. Pop. (1801) 108,132; (1841) 156,439; (1881) 176,323. See the

histories of the county by Lipscomb (1847) and Sheahan (1862).

Buckinghamshire, DUKE OF. See SHEFFIELD (JOHN).

Buckland, WILLIAM, D.D., geologist, was born at Tiverton, Devonshire, in 1784. From Winchester he passed in 1801 to Corpus Christi College, Oxford, of which he became a Fellow (1808); and in 1813 he was appointed Oxford reader in Mineralogy. The same year he was elected a Fellow of the Geological Society, and he was twice its president. In 1818 he became reader in Geology at Oxford, and was elected Fellow of the Royal Society. In 1822 he received the Copley medal for his account of the Kirkdale Cave (q.v.), which in 1823 he supplemented with *Reliquiæ Diluvianæ, or Observations on Organic Remains, attesting the Action of a Universal Deluge*, a theory he afterwards saw cause to modify. In 1825 he was appointed a canon of Christ Church, Oxford; in 1832 he was president of the British Association at Oxford; and in 1836 he published his *Bridgewater Treatise, Geology and Mineralogy considered with Reference to Natural Theology*. In 1845 he was made Dean of Westminster; but under his great and continuous labours to benefit others, his mental faculties gave way seven years before his death, which took place August 14, 1856.—His son, FRANCIS TREVELYAN BUCKLAND, was born 17th December 1826, at Christ Church College, Oxford. He was educated at Winchester and Christ Church, and after for five years devoting himself to the study of medicine at St George's Hospital, London, was assistant-surgeon to the 2d Life Guards (1854-63). From his boyhood he manifested an enthusiastic delight in natural history, especially when it could be applied practically to the cultivation of useful quadrupeds, birds, or fish, in which study he was encouraged and guided by his father. He contributed largely to the *Times*, *Field*, *Queen*, and *Land and Water*, which last he started in 1866. He was also author of *Curiosities of Natural History* (4 vols. 1857-72), *Fish-hatching* (1863), *Logbook of a Fisherman and Zoologist* (1876), *Natural History of British Fishes* (1881), and *Notes and Jottings from Animal Life* (1882). He was an acute observer, and his writings on natural history exhibit the results of fresh and original observations in a most interesting manner. He took a great interest in fish-culture, and at his own cost established under the Science and Art Department, South Kensington, a 'Museum of Economic Fish-culture.' In 1867 he was appointed inspector of salmon-fisheries for England and Wales; in 1870 special commissioner on the salmon-fisheries of Scotland; and in 1877 on the Scotch herring-fisheries. He died December 19, 1880. He was not a Darwinian. See his *Life* by G. C. Bompas (1885).

Bucklandia, a magnificent and beautiful evergreen tree of the order Hamamelidæ (see WITCH-HAZEL), a native of the Himalayas, and growing in the island of Sumatra. The timber is not valuable.

Buckle, HENRY THOMAS, was born at Lee, in Kent, 24th November 1821, the son of a London merchant, a Tory and staunch churchman. A sickly child, he was for a very short time at an academy in Kentish-Town; no other school and no university claims credit for his education, which yet was liberal in the highest degree. At the age of eighteen he found himself master of £1500 a year, and by 1850 he knew eighteen foreign languages, and had amassed a library of 22,000 volumes, chosen mostly to help him in a *magnum opus*, which gradually took shape as *The History*

of *Civilisation in England*. The first volume appeared in 1857, the second in 1861; but his health had been meantime shattered by the loss of an idolised mother; and on 29th May 1862, after six months' wandering in Egypt and Palestine, he died of typhoid fever at Damascus. For more than twenty years he had been reckoned one of the first chess-players in the world.

Buckle's plan involved, before tracing the particular history of English civilisation, a general consideration of the progress of those countries, England, France, Germany, Scotland, Spain, and America, in which the elements of modern civilisation are originally found. The two volumes published are occupied with this preliminary examination, which they do not even complete. His objects, however, are clear. They are (1) to discover what is the essential spirit of a nation's history apart from particular men and events, and (2) to trace out the causes of the progress which has been made in England and France. Under the first head he endeavours to show that the spirit or character of a people is determined by material environments, such as soil, climate, food, aspects of nature, and the like; under the second head occurs the theory—whose vigorous application startled and offended many readers—that the progress of society depends upon scepticism; that the retarding force is credulity; and that the excessive 'protection' exercised by governments, the nobility, the church, &c. over the 'people,' has dwarfed and held back the spirit of freedom and civilisation. These and other positions are defended by Buckle with great ingenuity and lucidity of argument and expression, and have been admitted, even by his opponents, to contain much truth. He is accused—perhaps not unjustly—of being often one-sided, and of drawing sweeping deductions from an imperfect survey of the facts. His *Miscellaneous and Posthumous Works* were edited by Miss Helen Taylor (1872; new ed. by Grant Allen, 1880); and his *Life* has been written by A. H. Huth (2 vols. 1880).

Buckles, metal instruments, consisting of a rim and tongue, used for fastening straps or bands in dress, harness, &c. These are made on a very large scale in the neighbourhood of Birmingham. Both brass and iron are used for them, the chief kinds being called tongue, roller, brace, and gear buckles. The use of buckles, instead of shoe-strings, was introduced into England during the reign of Charles II. They soon became very fashionable, attained an enormous size (the largest being called Artois buckles, after the Comte d'Artois, brother of the king of France), and were usually made of silver, set with diamonds and other precious stones. In the latter half of the 18th century the manufacture of buckles was carried on most extensively in Birmingham, there being at one time not less than 4000 people directly employed in that town and its vicinity, who turned out 2,500,000 pairs of buckles annually, the prices ranging from one shilling to five guineas, and even ten guineas a pair. When the trade was at its height, however, fashion changed, and in 1791 we find buckle-makers petitioning the Prince of Wales for sympathy, on the ground that owing to the introduction of shoe-strings and slippers, 20,000 persons were in terrible distress. The prince promised to assist them as far as he could by wearing buckles himself, and enjoining his household to do the same; but fashion was too strong even for him, and before the close of the century a great staple trade of Birmingham had become extinct, though shoe-buckles are still by no means unknown.

Buckram. This name is now applied to a coarse open-woven fabric of cotton or linen made

very stiff with size. It is used for the framework of ladies' bonnets, for the inside of belts and collars of dresses, and for bookbinding. But the buckram of olden times was an entirely different kind of stuff. The Rev. Dr Rock, in his Catalogue of Textile Fabrics in the South Kensington Museum, after stating that the term came from the city of Bokhara in Tartary, where a peculiar kind of cotton texture was made, says: 'All along the middle ages buckram was much esteemed for being costly and very fine, and consequently fit for use in church vestments, and for secular personal wear. Grandison, consecrated Bishop of Exeter in 1327, gave to his cathedral banners of white and red buckram; and three of the rich veils for covering the lectern in that church were lined with blue bokeram. As late as the beginning of the 16th century this stuff was held good enough for lining to a black velvet gown for a queen, Elizabeth of York;' but to most minds it is now familiar through Falstaff's antagonists, the 'rogues in buckram suits.'

Buckskin is a soft leather made of deerskin or sheepskin; also a strong, twilled woollen cloth, cropped of nap and carefully finished. 'Buckskin breeches' are usually of this cloth, not of the leather. See BUFF LEATHER.

Buckstone, JOHN BALDWIN, comedian and dramatic writer, was born at Hoxton, London, in 1802, and, having in 1822 exchanged an attorney's office for the provincial stage, appeared next year at the Surrey Theatre. His success was so unequivocal that in 1827 he was engaged by the Adelphi Theatre, where he continued till 1833 as leading low comedian. Except for a visit to the United States in 1840, and short engagements at Drury Lane and the Lyceum, he thenceforward played chiefly at the Haymarket, of which he was lessee from 1853 till 1878. He died 31st October 1879. Buckstone's acting was not more noted for its comicality and humour, which never degenerated into vulgarity, than for its distinct appreciation of the peculiar traits in each individual character he assumed. He was also a prolific dramatic author, and of the 150 pieces he wrote for the stage, several have been highly popular.

Buckthorn (*Rhamnus*), a genus of Rhamnaceæ (q.v.), including sixty species, all shrubs or trees, widely distributed through temperate and tropical regions, but absent from Australia.—The Common Buckthorn (*R. catharticus*) is characterised by its spinous and cross-like branchlets, serrate leaves, and yellow-green diaceous flowers. The berries, which are about the size of peas, globular, bluish-black, nauseous, and violently purgative, were formerly much used in medicine, but now more rarely, and only in the form of a sirup prepared from their juice. They supply the Sap Green (q.v.) or Bladder Green of painters. The bark affords a beautiful yellow dye. The buckthorn is sometimes planted for hedges, but is of too straggling a habit.—The Alder Buckthorn, or Breaking Buckthorn (*R. frangula*), also (wrongly) called Black Alder, or Berry-bearing Alder, is spineless, with oval entire leaves, and small, whitish, axillary flowers. The berries are small and black, and also violently purgative, yet are freely eaten by birds. The charcoal of the wood is light, and is used by gunpowder-makers and called dogwood. The bark, leaves, and berries are used for dyeing. The flowers are peculiarly grateful to bees.—Dyer's Buckthorn (*R. infectorius*) is a low shrub, abundant in the south of Europe, whose unripe fruit yields a brilliant yellow dye. The French Berries, Avignon Berries, or Yellow Berries of dyers, are the fruit of this and other species.—Of North American buckthorns there are, besides the Com-

mon one, six or more peculiar species. The most important is the *R. purshiana* of the north-west Pacific slope (especially south-west Oregon), the



Alder Buckthorn (*Rhamnus frangula*):
a, a flower.

cathartic bark of which is used in medicine under the name of Cascara Sagrada.—The Sea Buckthorn (q.v.; *Hippophaë rhamnoides*) is a shrub of a different genus and order (*Eleagnaceæ*). It is occasionally planted as an ornamental shrub.

Bucku, or **BUCHU**, a Hottentot name common to several small aromatic evergreen rutaceous shrubs of the genus *Barosma* (*Diosma*), natives of the Cape of Good Hope, the leaves of which (*folia Buchu*) have enjoyed considerable medical repute, especially as a diuretic.

Buckwheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum*, or *Polygonum Fagopyrum*) is a native of the basin of the Volga, the shores of the Caspian Sea, and many parts of Central Asia. A recent German authority affirms that there is no authentic mention of it



Buckwheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum*):
a, a flower; b, a seed; c, root. •

until 1436 at Mecklenburg, whence it spread over Europe in the following century. It is also said to have been introduced by the Moors into Spain, and

thence to have extended over Europe, or, again, to have been brought to Europe by the Crusaders. The French name *Sarrasin* seems to support these latter traditions. It is cultivated on account of the farinaceous albumen of its seeds, which are used, as grain, for food of man and cattle. It is upright, branched, 1 to 3 feet in height; the leaves are between heart-shaped and arrow-shaped, the flowers pale red, the seed (nut) black and triangular, its angles entire. The resemblance of this seed in form to the beech-nut is supposed to be the reason of the German name *Buchweizen* (lit. 'beech-wheat'), from which the English name is derived. Buckwheat is a very common crop in some parts of Europe and of the United States of North America, but is seldom sown in Britain, except as food for pheasants, as it requires continued dry weather in autumn for profitable harvesting. In north-east Germany, and also in Brittany, buckwheat is valued as a crop, particularly for sandy heathlands, moorlands, and other poor soils. It yields abundantly, and requires little manure or attention. Forty bushels or more per acre may be expected, weighing 46 or 48 lb. per bushel; and notwithstanding the resemblance of the seed to grain in its qualities and uses, wheat or any other cereal crop generally succeeds well after buckwheat. The seed is most frequently used in the shape of groats, or made into pottage; in the United States, thin cakes of the flour are a standard food. It is very nutritious, containing about 10 per cent. of gluten and 52 per cent. of starch, besides about 6 per cent. of gum and sugar. It is said to be as good as barley for fattening cattle, and better for horses than oats. But as the seed is covered with a very hard rind or thin shell, it must always be shelled before being given to cattle. Poultry are very fond of it. Beer is sometimes brewed from it, and it yields a spirituous liquor of good quality; indeed, it is frequently used in gin-distilleries. As green fodder, the herbage of the plant is said to be more nutritious than clover; but it is said to act as a narcotic on sheep. Bees delight in its flowers, and in some parts of the United States it is sown on this account. In America the seed is usually sown broadcast over the land, which has been ploughed in autumn or early spring, and well scarified or harrowed. About a bushel and a half of seed per acre is required when sown broadcast, but a bushel is sufficient if drilled with a machine. In the latter case it should not be sown in narrower drills than one foot apart, but two feet is recommended as being better for the succeeding crop, as the wider intervals can be properly cultivated. It should not be sown in England before the middle of May, as the least frost is injurious. When the lower seeds are ripe it should be mown, as they are easily shed out if allowed to stand too long.—Tartarian Buckwheat (*F. tataricum*) is distinguished by the toothed edges of the seeds and its more vigorous growth. It is hardy, and adapted for cold situations, but yields inferior meal, and is reckoned a mere weed in Germany. In Canada, on the other hand, it is much grown; but its use, as well as that of common buckwheat, is thought by many to induce skin disease. *F. emarginatum* is cultivated in China.—Dyer's Buckwheat is *Polygonum tinctorium*. See **POLYGONÆÆ**.

Bucolic, a term derived from the Greek, 'belonging to herdsmen,' nearly equal to *Pastoral*, from Latin. It is specially used of a kind of Pastoral Poetry (q.v.). The great bucolic poets were Theocritus, Bion, Moschus; and Virgil's Eclogues are sometimes called *Bucolica*.

Buczacz, a town of Austria, in Galicia, on the Stripa, an affluent of the Dniester, 47 miles ENE. of Stanislaw by rail. A treaty of peace between the

Poles and the Turks was signed here in 1672. Pop. 9970, of whom 6281 were Jews.

Bud. The bud is the rudiment of an axis with its appendages. Starting with the seed, we may trace the continued upgrowth of the primeval bud or plumule in germination.

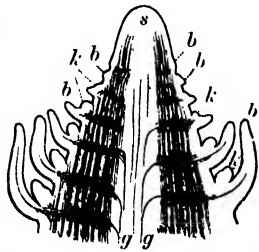


Fig. 1.—Longitudinal section through the apical region of an upright shoot of *Hippuris vulgaris*:

s, growing point of the stem; h, b, h, the whorled leaves; k, k, the buds in their axils, which all develop into flowers; g, g, the first vessels (the dark parts of the tissue indicate the inner cortex with its intercellular spaces). (After Sachs.)

Again, by examination of the growing point at any age, we may observe the progressive development of new appendages with crowded nodes but lengthening internodes of stem from the undifferentiated embryonic tissue (see MERISTEM) of its apex (fig. 1). In monocotyledons especially, an axis may have only a single apical bud; and of this mode of growth the palms furnish the most salient example; in the majority of dicotyledons, on the other hand, every vegetative leaf may be regarded as having, if not an actual, at any rate a potential or latent bud in its axil, which may, at least under exceptional circumstances, vegetate as a new axis or branch (q.v.), or become developed for reproduction as a flower.

In some hardy shrubs and trees the buds are quite inconspicuous in winter, being so minute as to be hidden under an apical coating of bark (e.g. *Taxodium*, *Philadelphus*); generally, however, the buds are well formed before autumn, and are thus fully exposed to the severity of winter. In a few cases (e.g. species of *Viburnum*, although not the common (Guelder) Rose) the outer leaves still retain sufficient vitality to expand as the first foliage of spring. In the vast majority of plants, however, the leaves are not so hardy, and the outer ones have thus to be sacrificed for the protection of the rest. Since in any upward-growing axis, the lower and earlier formed appendages tend to grow beyond the embryonic apex with its short internodes, and thus cover it up more or less entirely with its developing higher and younger appendages, the normal form of every bud is thus, as it were, a kind of incipient cabbage; and this overlapping mode of growth comes to be of the greatest protective usefulness. For the changes of day and night, of weather, and most of all, of the seasons, render the process of growth not continuous but rhythmic; and a growing point has thus latent as well as active periods. During the former, however, the outer appendages are exposed to the climate, and usually present adaptive modifications of great variety and interest, which are known as the *bud-scales*. These are often waterproofed with an exudation of resinous varnish, or warmly lined with an epidermic down.



Fig. 2.—Bud Scales of *Rhododendron*.

While, in what may be safely taken as the simplest cases, the bud-scales are modifications of entire leaves (e.g. lilac or *Rhododendron*, fig. 2), in many plants the bud-scale is reduced to the petiole only. This is beautifully shown where a series of gradations survives, as is

very often the case in the horse-chestnut; in opening buds of which it is often possible to trace every step of the reduction of the complete foliage-leaf to the petiolar bud-scale (fig. 3, a). Finally, bud-scales may be derived from stipules, as in the magnolia or



Fig. 3.

a, petiolar bud-scales of horse-chestnut, showing transitions to the two true leaves above; b, opening ends of beech, showing stipular bud-scales.

the beech (fig. 3, b). In all these cases alike, the scales are thrown off by the opening buds in spring, and often carpet the ground like a foreshadowing of autumn.

Buds, as has been said, when other than terminal, are usually axillary to the leaves, and their origin may be traced almost as far back as that of the leaves themselves; this may be conveniently seen in a section of the growing point of the mare's-tail (*Hippuris*, fig. 1). Occasionally, too, the bud forms quite under the base of the leaf-stalk, and is concealed by it until this falls off in autumn (*Platanus*). There is usually only one bud in each axil, yet in many plants 'accessory buds' occur. These may be collateral in position, the middle one being largest, as in some hawthorns, willows, and maples; in other cases, however, they form a vertical series, of which either the lowest, and alone strictly axillary bud, may be largest and strongest, as in some honeysuckles, or the uppermost, as in the *Aristolochia* or the butternut, where, indeed, the main branches are thus extra-axillary.

In many cases buds are also of *adventitious* origin—i.e. may arise quite independently of leaves, from any part of the stem—as is well seen on the trunk of the elm-tree, in pollarded willows, in fact in any tree deprived of its branches, or often even after being felled. This is intelligible when we reflect that at all such points there lies the *Cambium* (q.v.) or embryonic layer of cells; in the rarer case of origin of adventitious buds from roots, as in the bramble, we have similarly a *pericambium* (see ROOT): the most curious and exceptional (yet in a deeper view of cellular physiology the most natural) mode of origin is when the



Fig. 4.—*Bryophyllum* Leaf, from the edges of which two new plants have budded.

leaf-parenchyma itself retains a sufficiently embryonic character to give rise to new buds without the presence of any specially reproductive cells. This is well seen on the surface of the fronds of certain ferns, and is also experimentally reproduced by gardeners, who often raise young plants from the edges of a *Bryophyllum* leaf (fig. 4), or from the petiole or wounded surface of a leaf of *Begonia*, by simply placing it on sand in a warm and moist atmosphere.

This passage from ordinary vegetative growth to

that discontinuous growth which we call asexual reproduction, and also that further transition to sexual reproduction (see REPRODUCTION, SEX), is admirably illustrated by the interesting reversions to ordinary bud-growth which these more specialised processes often exhibit in unusually favourable vegetative conditions, or even as a permanent habit. Thus in Ferns (q.v.) we may have the budding of prothallia directly upon the frond in the place of spore-cases, or that of the fern plant directly upon the prothallium in place of archegonia. Again, the reversion of floral to leafy buds occurs more or less completely in many garden-flowers, while in many wild species of Allium the flowers become largely replaced by vegetative buds capable of independent growth. This tendency to bud-independence is also well shown in the bulbils and bulbs of many other allied Liliaceæ; while the multiplication of plants by cuttings of course takes advantage of the same widespread latent possibility of separate bud-life. In the old disputes about the *Individuality* (q.v.) of plants and animals, the bud was in fact often defined as a separate individual, and the tree thus viewed as a mere colony of buds. For the growth of buds, see BRANCH; and for arrangement of leaves in buds, see VERNATION, ESTIVATION, FLOWER.

Budding or gemination is also a frequent mode of growth in animals. See REPRODUCTION.

Budæus (the Latinised form of *Guillaume Budé*), the greatest French scholar of his age, was born in Paris in 1467. His works on philology, philosophy, and jurisprudence display extensive learning, the two best known being the *De Assè et Partibus ejus* (1514), which contains a very thorough investigation into ancient coins, and the *Commentarii Lingue Græcæ* (1519), the basis of all subsequent works in this department. His abilities were manifested not only in literature, but in public business. Louis XII. twice sent him to Rome, and Francis I. also employed him in several negotiations. At Budæus's suggestion, Francis founded the Collège de France, and was also persuaded to refrain from prohibiting printing, which the bigoted Sorbonne had advised in 1533. He was royal librarian at the time of his death, 23d August 1540. He was suspected, not without reason, of a leaning towards Lutheranism. His works were collected in 4 vols. (Basel, 1557). See his Life by Rebitté (1846), and E. de Budé (1884); and the latter's edition of his *Lettres inédites* (2 vols. 1887).

Budapest, the official designation of the capital of Hungary, which consists of Buda (Ger. *Ofen*) on the right and Pest or Pesti on the left bank of the Danube, the two cities having formed a single municipality since 1872. See PESTH.

Budaun, a town of India, 140 miles NW. of Lucknow, giving name to a British district of the Rohilkund division of the North-west Provinces. Pop. (1881) 33,680.—The district contains an area of 2002 sq. m., and a pop. (1881) of 906,451, of whom nearly six-sevenths are Hindus. It is a level, fertile tract on the Ganges and its tributaries.

Buddhism. The religion known as Buddhism (from the title of 'The Buddha,' meaning 'the awakened,' 'the enlightened,' acquired by its founder) has existed now for perhaps 2400 years, and is, as regards the number of its adherents, the prevailing religion of the world. In India, the land of its birth, it has now little hold, except among the Nepalese and some other northern tribes; but it bears full sway in Ceylon and over the whole Indo-Chinese Peninsula; it divides the adherence of the Chinese with the systems of Confucius and Lao-tse, claiming perhaps a majority of the population; it prevails also in Japan (although

not the established religion); and, north of the Himalayas, it is the religion of Tibet (where it assumes the form of Lamaism), of the Mongolian population of Central Asia and Southern Siberia, and of the Tatar tribes on the Lower Volga. Its adherents are estimated at more than 340 millions—or nearly a fourth of the whole human race. Yet, till towards the middle of the 19th century, nothing was known in Europe respecting the nature and origin of this world-religion, beyond the vaguest notices and conjectures. About the year 1828, Mr R. H. Hodgson, British resident at the court of Nepal, where Buddhism prevails, discovered the existence of a large set of writings in the Sanskrit language, forming the national canonical books. These books were afterwards found to be the texts from which the Buddhist scriptures of Tibet, Mongolia, and China must have been translated. The books of the Ceylon Buddhists are in the language called Pali; and though not translations of the Nepalese standards, they are found to agree with them in substance, and to be only another and somewhat later version of the same traditions. Translations from the Ceylon standards are used by the Buddhists of Burma and Siam. Copies of the Sanskrit books of Nepal, having been sent by Mr Hodgson to the Asiatic Societies of London and Paris, engaged the attention of the great orientalist, Eugène Burnouf, who published in 1844 his *Introduction à l'Histoire du Bouddhisme Indien*; and this book may be said to have been the beginning of anything like correct information on the subject among the western nations.

The most diverse opinions had previously prevailed as to the time and place of the origin of Buddhism. Some looked upon it as a relic of what had been the original religion of India, before Brahmanism intruded and drove it out; a relic of a widespread primeval worship, whose ramifications they endeavoured to trace by identifying Buddha with the Odin of the Scandinavians, the Thoth or Hermes of the ancient Egyptians, and other mythological personages. Others held that it could not be older than Christianity, and must have originated in a blundering attempt to copy that religion—so striking are the many points of resemblance that present themselves. Although the materials are still wanting for a circumstantial history of Buddhism, the main outline is no longer doubtful. Oriental scholars now generally concur in fixing the date of its origin some time in the 5th century B.C., and in making it spring up in the north of India. According to the Buddhist books, the founder of the religion was a prince of the name of Siddhartha, son of Suddhodana, king of Kapilavastu, which is placed somewhere on the confines of Oudh and Nepal. He is often called Sakya, which was the name of the family, or Sakya-muni—i.e. the Sakya sage—and also Gautama, the name of the great 'solar' race of which the family was a branch. To Gautama is frequently prefixed *Sramana*, meaning *ascetic*. Of the names, or rather titles, given to Siddhartha in his state of perfection, the most important is the *Buddha*, which is from the root *budh*, 'to awake,' 'to know,' and which in this connection means 'he who is liberated from existence by the knowledge of the truth'; it is indicative of the leading doctrine of his system. Others are—'The Blessed' (Bhagavat); 'the King of Righteousness' (Dharma-raja); 'the Conqueror' (Jina), &c. The history of Buddha is overlaid with a mass of extravagant and incredible legend; and H. H. Wilson thought it doubtful whether the Buddha was an actual historical personage, and not rather an allegorical figment. Senart and Kern sought to show that the Buddha of the legend is the sun-god, and that the

details of his life have been taken from solar mythology, and that the whole has been modified under the influence of the monastic ideas amid which the legend grew up, though they allowed that Buddhism had a human founder. Few orientalists are prepared to follow them.

The Founder.—Assuming that the Buddha was a real person, and that there is a basis of fact under the mass of extravagant fable with which he is surrounded, the history of Buddhism may be thus briefly outlined: The Prince Siddhartha gives early indications of a contemplative, ascetic disposition; and his father, fearing lest he should desert his high station as Kshatriya (see CASTE AND INDIA) and ruler, and take to a religious life, has him early married to a charming princess, and surrounded with all the splendour and dissipation of a luxurious court. Twelve years spent in this environment only deepen the conviction that all that life can offer is vanity and vexation of spirit. He is constantly brooding over the thought that old age, withered and joyless, is fast approaching; that loathsome or racking sickness may at any moment seize him; that death will at all events soon cut off all present sources of enjoyment, and usher in a new cycle of unknown trials and sufferings. These images hang like Damocles' sword over every proposed feast of pleasure, and make enjoyment impossible. He therefore resolves to try whether a life of austerity will not lead to peace; and, although his father seeks to detain him by setting guards on every outlet of the palace, he escapes, and begins the life of a religious mendicant, being now about thirty years old. To mark his breaking off all secular ties, he cuts off the long locks that were a sign of his high caste; and as the shortened hair turned upwards, he is always represented in pictures with curly hair. He commences by studying all that the Brahmans can teach him, but finds their doctrine unsatisfactory. Six years of rigorous asceticism are equally vain; and resolving to return to a more genial life, he is deserted by his five disciples, and then undergoes a fierce temptation from the demon of wickedness. But no discouragement or opposition can divert Sakya-muni from the search after deliverance. He will conquer the secret by sheer force of thinking. He sits for weeks plunged in abstraction, revolving the causes of things. If we were not born, he reflects, we should not be subject to old age, misery, and death; therefore the cause of these evils is birth. But whence comes birth or continued existence? Through a long concatenation of intermediate causes, he arrives at the conclusion that ignorance is the ultimate cause of existence; and therefore, with the removal of ignorance, existence and all its anxieties and miseries would be cut off at their source. Passing through successive stages of contemplation, he realises this in his own person, and attains the perfect wisdom of the Buddha. The scene of this final triumph received the name of Bodhimanda ('the seat of intelligence'), and the tree under which he sat was called Bodhidruma ('the tree of intelligence'), whence Bo-tree. The Buddhists believe the spot to be the centre of the earth. Twelve hundred years after the Buddha's death, Hwen-Thsang, the Chinese Pilgrim, found the Bodhidruma—or a tree that passed for it—still standing. Although the religion of Buddha is extinct in the neighbourhood, there are, 6 miles from Gaya town, in Bengal, extensive ruins and a 14th-century temple (partially restored since 1878), which are believed to mark the place. Within the temple courtyard is a pipal-tree, which claims to be the lineal descendant of the original Bo-tree. See BO-TREE.

Having arrived at the knowledge of the causes of misery, and of the means by which these causes

are to be counteracted, the Buddha was now ready to lead others on the road of salvation. It was at Benares that he first preached, or, in the consecrated phrase, 'turned the wheel of the law.' (This expression comes from one of the titles of the Buddha, *chakravartin*, 'a monarch,' being taken in its etymological sense—i.e. 'the turner of a wheel'; hence, too, have arisen, probably, those praying-wheels seen standing before Buddhist monasteries in Tibet and elsewhere. The doctrines of Buddha are inscribed on the wheel, which is then set in motion by a windlass, or even by horse-power. The individual monks have portable ones, with which they perform their devotions.) But the most important of his early converts was Bimbisara, the sovereign of Magadha (Behar), whose dynasty continued for many centuries to patronise the new faith. During the forty years that the Buddha continued to preach his strange gospel, he appears to have traversed great part of Northern India, combating the Brahmans, and everywhere making numerous converts. He died at Kusinagara (in Oudh), at the age of eighty; and his body being burned, the relics were distributed among a number of contending claimants, and monumental tumuli were erected to preserve them. See TORUS.

History of the Order.—The most important point in the history of Buddhism, after the death of its founder, is that of the three councils which fixed the canon of the sacred scriptures and the discipline of the church. The Buddha had written nothing himself; but his chief followers assembled in council immediately after his death to settle the rules and doctrines of the order. About a hundred years later, a second council was held to vindicate these against innovators who seceded and held a rival council. In the reign of Asoka, in 244 B.C., there was a third, in which the canon seems to have been fixed more accurately. Some 150 years later it was reduced to writing, apparently in its present form. These canonical writings are divided into three classes, forming the Tripitaka, or 'triple basket.' The first class consists of the *Sutras*, or discourses of the Buddha for the laity; the second contains the *Vinaya*, or discipline for the order; and the third the *Abhidharma*, or metaphysics. The first is evidently the fundamental text out of which all the subsequent writings have been elaborated. The Buddhist religion early manifested a zealous missionary spirit; and princes and even princesses became devoted propagandists. A prince of the royal House of Magadha, Mahindo, carried the faith to Ceylon immediately after the last council, whence it spread to Burma, 450 A.D., and Siam, 638 A.D. The Chinese annals speak of a Buddhist missionary as early as 217 B.C.; and the doctrine made such progress that in 65 A.D. it was acknowledged by the Chinese emperor as a third state religion. The Chinese Buddhists have always looked on India as their 'holy land'; and, beginning with the 4th century of our era, a stream of Buddhist pilgrims continued to flow from China to India during six centuries. Several of these pilgrims have left accounts of their travels, which throw a light on the course of Buddhism in India, and on the internal state of the country in general, that is looked for in vain in the literature of India itself (see HWEN-THSANG). As to the spread of Buddhism north of the Himalayan Mountains, we have the historical fact that a Chinese general, having about the year 120 B.C. defeated the barbarous tribes to the north of the Desert of Gobi, brought back as a trophy a golden statue of the Buddha.

A prominent name in the history of Buddhism is that of Asoka (q.v.), king of Magadha, in the 3d century B.C., whose sway seems to have extended over the whole peninsula of Hindustan, and even

over Ceylon. This prince was to Buddhism what Constantine was to Christianity. He was at first a persecutor of the faith, but being converted—by a miracle, according to the legend—he became its zealous propagator. Not, however, as princes usually promote their creed; for it is a distinguishing characteristic of Buddhism that it has never employed force, hardly even to resist aggression. Asoka showed his zeal by building and endowing viharas or monasteries, and raising topes and other monuments over the relics of Buddha and in spots remarkable as the scenes of his labours. Hwen-Thsang, in the 7th century of our era, found topes attributed to Asoka from the foot of the Hindu Kush to the extremity of the peninsula. There exist, also, in different parts of India, edicts inscribed on rocks and pillars, inculcating the doctrines of Buddha. The edicts are in the name of King Piyadasi; but orientalists are almost unanimous in holding Piyadasi and Asoka to be one and the same. Not a single building or sculptured stone has been discovered in continental India of earlier date than the reign of this monarch, whose death is assigned to 223 B.C. A remarkable spirit of charity and toleration runs through these royal sermons. The 'king beloved of the gods' desires to see the ascetics of all creeds living in all places, for they all teach the essential rules of conduct. 'A man ought to honour his own faith only; but he should never abuse the faith of others. . . . There are even circumstances where the religion of others ought to be honoured, and in acting thus, a man fortifies his own faith, and assists the faith of others.' The next name of importance after Asoka is that of Kanishka (10 A.D.), king of North-western India, under whose direction a council was held for a fresh revision of the canon. It seems to have been shortly after this that the Buddhists broke up into two schools—viz. the 'Lesser Vehicle,' or conservative party, formed by the southern Buddhists, and the 'Greater Vehicle,' or progressive party, embracing the Buddhists of the north.

For the glimpses we get of the state of Buddhism in India, we are indebted chiefly to the accounts of Chinese pilgrims. Fa-hian, at the end of the 4th century, found some appearances of decline in the east of Hindustan, its birthplace, but it was still strong in the Punjab and the north. In Ceylon, it was flourishing in full vigour, the ascetics or monks numbering from 50,000 to 60,000. In the 7th century—i.e. 1200 years after the death of the Buddha—Hwen-Thsang represents it as widely dominant and flourishing, and patronised by the powerful Siladitya, king of Kanoj, who held a council at which the doctrines of the Little Vehicle were condemned. Its history was doubtless more or less checkered. The Brahmins, though little less tolerant than the followers of Buddha, seem to have been in some cases roused into active opposition; and some princes employed persecution to put down the new faith.

It was probably during the first four or five centuries of our era, and as a result of persecution, that Buddhists, driven from the great cities, retired among the hills of the west, and there constructed those cave-temples which, for their number, vastness, and elaborate structure, continue to excite the wonder of all who see them. There are reckoned to be not fewer than 900 Buddhist excavations still extant in India, nearly all within the presidency of Bombay. The destruction of Buddhism in India seems to have been brought about largely by internal corruption, but most of all by the Mohammedan invasion. For several centuries we have notices of it as existing in Kashmir, Bengal, and the Deccan, till it at last disappears in Orissa in the middle of the 16th century.

What, then, is the nature of this faith, which has

been for so long, and is still, the sole light of so many millions of human beings? In answering this question, we must confine ourselves here to a brief outline of the intellectual theory on which the system is based, and of the general character of its morality and ritual observances, as they were conceived by the founder and his more immediate followers; referring for the various forms which the external observances have assumed to the several countries where it is believed and practised. See BURMA, CEYLON, CHINA, JAPAN, LAMAISM.

The Doctrine.—Buddhism is based on the same views of human existence, and the same philosophy of things in general, that prevailed among the Brahmins, although it was a reaction against their hierarchy. It accepts without questioning the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, which lies at the root of so much that is strange in the Indian character. For a fuller account of this important doctrine, the reader is referred to TRANSMIGRATION; while the peculiar cosmogony or system of the universe with which it is associated, and which is substantially the same among Hindus and Buddhists, will be described under HINDUISM. It is sufficient here to say that, according to Buddhist belief, when a man dies he is immediately born again, or appears in a new shape; and that shape may, according to his merit or demerit, be any of the innumerable orders of being composing the Buddhist universe—from a clod to a divinity. If his demerit would not be sufficiently punished by a degraded earthly existence—in the form, for instance, of a woman or a slave, of a persecuted or a disgusting animal, of a plant, or even of a piece of inorganic matter—he will be born in some one of the 136 Buddhist hells. These places of punishment have a regular gradation in the intensity of the suffering and in the length of time the sufferers live, the least term of life being ten millions of years, the longer terms being almost beyond the powers of even Indian notation to express. A meritorious life, on the other hand, secures the next birth, either in an exalted and happy position on earth, or as a blessed spirit, or even divinity, in one of the many heavens; in which the least duration of life is about ten billions of years. But however long the life, whether of misery or of bliss, it ends when the *karma* is exhausted, and the individual must be born again, and may again be either happy or miserable—either a god, or, it may be, the vilest inanimate object. One legend makes Bhagavat, in order to impress upon the monks of a monastery the importance of their duties, point to a besom, and, by his supernatural insight, reveal to them that it had once been a novice who had been negligent in sweeping the hall of assembly; the walls and pillars, again, he told them, had once existed as monks, who soiled the walls of the hall by spitting upon them. The Buddha himself, before his last birth as Sakya-muni, had gone through every conceivable form of existence on the earth, in the air, and in the water, in hell and in heaven, and had filled every condition in human life. When he attained the perfect knowledge of the Buddha, he was able to recall all these existences; and that part of the Buddhist legendary literature called the Jatakas narrates his exploits when he lived as an elephant, as a bird, as a stag, and so forth.

The Buddhist conception is peculiar of the way in which the quality of actions—which is expressed by the word *karma* ('doing'), including both merit and demerit—determines the future condition of all sentient beings. They do not conceive any god or gods as being pleased or displeased by the actions, and as assigning the actors' their future condition by way of punishment or of reward. The very idea of a god, as creating or in any way

ruling the world, is utterly absent in the Buddhist system. God is not so much as denied: he is simply not known. Contrary to the opinion once confidently and generally held, that a nation of atheists never existed, the Buddhist peoples are essentially atheist; for they know no beings with greater supernatural power than any man is supposed capable of attaining to by virtue, austerity, and science. Indeed some of the Buddhist nations—the Chinese, Mongols, and Tibetans—have no word in their languages to express the notion of God as supreme ruler. The future condition of the Buddhist, then, is not assigned him by the Ruler of the universe; his *karma* determines it by a sort of virtue inherent in the nature of things—by the blind and unconscious concatenation of cause and effect. But the laws by which consequences are regulated seem dark, and even capricious. A bad action may lie dormant, as it were, for many existences; the taint, however, is there, and will some time or other break out. A Buddhist is thus never at a loss to account for any calamity that may befall himself or others.

Another basis of Buddhism is the assumption that human existence is on the whole miserable, and a curse rather than a blessing (see PESSIMISM). This notion, or rather feeling, is, like transmigration, common to Buddhism and Brahmanism, and is even more prominent in Buddhism than in the old faith. It is difficult for a European to conceive this state of mind, or to believe that it can be habitual in a whole people; and many signal errors in dealing with the Indian nations have arisen from overlooking the fact. The cause would seem to lie largely in the comparatively feeble physical organisation of Easterns in general, together with that want of security and peace, and that habitual oppression of the many by the few, with all the attendant degradation and positive suffering, which was long the normal state of things in India. The little value that Hindus set upon their lives is manifested in many ways. The punishment of death has little or no terror for them, and is even sometimes coveted as an honour. For, in addition to the little value of their present existence, they have the most undoubting assurance that their soul, if dislodged from its present tenement, will forthwith find another, with a chance, at least, of its being a better one.

In the eyes, then, of the Sakya-muni and his followers, sentient existence was hopelessly miserable. Misery was not a mere taint in it, the removal of which would make it happy; misery was its very essence. Death was no escape from this inevitable lot; for, according to the doctrine of transmigration, death was only a passage into some other form of existence equally doomed. Even the heaven and the state of godhead which form part of the cycle of changes in this system were not final; and this thought poisoned what happiness they might be capable of yielding. Brahman philosophers had sought escape from this endless cycle of unsatisfying changes by making the individual soul be absorbed in the universal spirit (see BRAHMA). Gautama had the same object in view—viz. exemption from being born again; but he declared the Brahmanic penances inadequate to accomplish this. His philosophy was utterly atheistic, like that of the original Sankhya school of philosophy, with which it is most closely connected, and ignored a supreme God or Creator; it did not leave even an impersonal spirit of the universe into which the human soul could be absorbed. Gautama sees no escape but in what he calls Nirvana, the exact nature of which has been matter of dispute. According to its etymology, the word means 'extinction,' 'blowing out,' as of a candle; and in the

Buddhist scriptures generally it is equivalent to the cessation of individual existence. Even in those schools which have attempted to draw a distinction, the distinction is of the most evanescent nature.

The key of the whole scheme of Buddhist salvation lies in what Gautama called his Four Sublime Verities. The first asserts that pain exists; the second, that the cause of pain is desire or attachment—the meaning of which will appear further on; the third, that pain can be ended by Nirvana; and the fourth shows the way that leads to Nirvana. This way to Nirvana consists in eight things: right views, right feelings, right words, right behaviour, right exertion, right obedience, right memory, and right meditation. The immediate cause of pain is birth, for if we were not born we should not be exposed to death or any of the ills of life. Birth, again, is caused by previous existence; it is only a transition from one state of existence into another. A sentient being consists of an assemblage of material qualities, sensations, ideas, tendencies, and mental powers, none of which are permanent, but dissolve at death. What alone is permanent is the being's *karma*. It does not die. But for it there would be freedom from existence. The cause of existence is a 'grasping state of mind,' or attachments, good and bad. These depend upon desire. We thus arrive at desire—including both the desire to possess and the desire to avoid—as one link in the chain of causes of continued existence and pain. Desire is said to be caused by sensation, sensation by contact, and so on until we come to ideas. Ideas, however, are mere illusions, the results of ignorance or error, attributing durability and reality to that which is transitory and imaginary. Cut off this ignorance, bring the mind into a state in which it can see and feel the illusory nature of things, and forthwith the whole train vanishes; illusory ideas, distinction of forms, senses, contact, sensation, desire, attachment, existence, birth, misery, old age, death!

Morality and Religious Observances.—The eight parts or particulars constituting the theoretical 'way' (to Nirvana), were developed by Gautama into a set of practical precepts enjoining the various duties of common life and of religion. They are all ostensibly intended as means of counteracting or destroying the chain of causes that tie men to existence and necessitate being born again, especially that most important link in the chain constituted by the attachments or desires resulting from former actions; although the special fitness of some of the precepts for that end is far from being apparent. It is easy to understand how the austerities that are prescribed might subdue the passions and affections, and lessen the attachment to existence; but how the exercise of benevolence, of meekness, of regard to truth, of respect to parents, &c. on which Gautama laid so much stress, should have this effect, it is difficult to conceive. Luckily for the Buddhist world, Gautama's moral nature was better than his logic; and as he felt strongly that these things are essentially right and good, he takes it for granted that they must contribute to what was in his eyes the chief good—escape from existence, or Nirvana. In delivering his precepts, the Buddha considers men as divided into two classes—those who have embraced the religious life (*Sramanas*), and those who continue in the world, or are laymen. These last are considered as too much attached to existence to feel any desire or have any hope of emancipation, at least at this stage. But there are certain precepts which it is necessary for all to obey, that they may not bring greater misery upon themselves in their next births, and rivet the bonds of existence more indissolubly.

There are ten moral precepts or 'precepts of aversion.' Five of these are of universal obligation—viz. not to kill; not to steal; not to commit adultery; not to lie; not to be drunken. Other five are for those entering on the direct pursuit of Nirvana by embracing the religious life: to abstain from food out of season—that is, after mid-day; to abstain from dances, theatrical representations, songs, and music; to abstain from personal ornaments and perfumes; to abstain from a lofty and luxurious couch; to abstain from taking gold and silver. For the regular ascetics or monks there are a number of special observances of a very severe kind. They are to dress only in rags, sewed together with their own hands, and to have a yellow cloak thrown over the rags. They are to eat only the simplest food, and to possess nothing except what they get by collecting alms from door to door in their wooden bowl. They are allowed only one meal, and that must be eaten before mid-day. For a part of the year, they are to live in forests, with no other shelter than the shadow of a tree, and there, they must sit on their carpet even during sleep, to lie down being forbidden. They are allowed to enter the nearest village or town to beg food, but they must return to their forests before night.

Besides the absolutely necessary 'aversions and observances' above mentioned, the transgression of which must lead to misery in the next existence, there are certain virtues or 'perfections' of a supererogatory or transcendent kind, that tend directly to 'conduct to the other shore' (Nirvana). The most essential of these are almsgiving or charity, purity, patience, courage, contemplation, and knowledge. Charity or benevolence may be said to be the characteristic virtue of Buddhism—a charity boundless in its self-abnegation, and extending to every sentient being. The benevolent actions done by the Buddha himself, in the course of his many millions of migrations, were favourite themes with his followers. On one occasion, seeing a tigress starved and unable to feed her cubs, he hesitated not to make his body an oblation to charity, and allowed them to devour him. Benevolence to animals, with that tendency to exaggerate a right principle so characteristic of the East, is carried among the Buddhist monks to the length of avoiding the destruction of fleas and the most noxious vermin, which they remove from their persons with all tenderness.

There are other virtues of a secondary kind, though still highly commendable. Thus, not content with forbidding lying, the Buddhist strictly enjoins the avoidance of all offensive and gross language, and of saying or repeating anything that can set others at enmity among themselves; it is a duty, on the contrary, especially for a *sramana*, to act on all occasions as a peacemaker. Patience under injury, and resignation in misfortune, are strongly inculcated. Humility, again, holds a no less prominent place among Buddhist graces than it does among the Christian. The Buddhist saints are to conceal their good works, and display their faults. As the outward expression of this sentiment of humility, Gautama instituted the practice of confession. Twice a month, at the new and at the full moon, the monks confessed their faults aloud before the assembly. If these were slight, some slight penance was imposed, such as sweeping the courtyard of the monastery. This humiliation and repentance seems the only means of expiating sin that was known to Gautama. Confession was exacted of all believers, only not so frequently as of the monks. The edicts of Piyadasi recommend a general and public confession at least once in five years.

Such are the leading features of the moral code of the Buddha, of which it has been said that 'for pureness, excellence, and wisdom, it is second only to that of the Divine Lawgiver himself.' But the original morality of Buddhism has, in the course of time, been disfigured by many subtleties, puerilities, and extravagances, derived from the casuistry of the various schools of later times; just as the casuistry of the Jesuits, for instance, perverted many of the precepts of Christianity. The theory on which the Buddha founds his whole system gives, it must be confessed, only too much scope to such perversions; for, on that theory, truth is to be spoken, self to be sacrificed, benevolence to be exercised, not for the sake of the good thus done to others, but solely for the effect of this conduct on the soul of the actor, in preparing him for escape from existence. To teach men 'the means of arriving at the other shore' was another expression for teaching virtue; and that other shore was annihilation. On this principle, the Buddhist casuist can, like the Jewish, render of none effect the universal law of charity and the duty of respecting and aiding parents, on which the Buddha laid such stress. Thus, a Bhikshu—i.e. one who has engaged to lead a life of self-denial, celibacy, and mendicancy, and is thus on the high-road to Nirvana—is forbidden to look at or converse with a female, lest any disturbing emotion should ruffle the serene indifference of his soul; and so important is this, that 'if his mother have fallen into a river, and be drowning, he shall not give her his hand to help her out; if there be a pole at hand, he may reach that to her; but if not, she must drown' (Wilson).

Contemplation and science or knowledge (i.e. of the concatenation of causes and effects) are ranked as virtues in Buddhism, and hold a prominent place among the means of attaining Nirvana. It is reserved, in fact, for abstract contemplation to effect the final steps of the deliverance. Thought is the highest faculty of man, and, in the mind of an Eastern philosopher, the mightiest of all forces. A king who had become a convert to Buddhism is represented as seating himself with his legs crossed and his mind collected; and 'cleaving with the thunderbolt of science the mountain of ignorance,' he saw before him the desired state. It is in this cross-legged, contemplative position that Sakya-muni is almost always represented in that crowning intellectual act of his, when, seated under the Bo-tree, he attained the full knowledge of the Buddha, saw the illusory nature of all things, broke the last bonds that tied him to existence, and stood delivered for evermore from the necessity of being born again.

'Complete' Nirvana or extinction cannot, of course, take place till death; but this state of preparation for it, called simply Nirvana, seems attainable during life, and was, in fact, attained by Gautama himself. The process by which the state is attained is called *Dhyana*, and is neither more nor less than ecstasy or trance, which plays so important a part among mystics of all religions. The individual is described as losing one feeling after another, until perfect apathy is attained, and he reaches a region 'where there are neither ideas, nor the idea of the absence of ideas!'

The *ritual* or *worship* of Buddhism—if worship it can be called—is very simple in its character. There are no priests or clergy properly so called. The *Sramanas* or *Bhikshus* (mendicants) are simply a religious order—a kind of monks who, in order to the more speedy attainment of Nirvana, have entered on a course of greater sanctity and austerity than ordinary men; they have no sacraments to administer or rites to perform for the people, for every Buddhist is his own priest. The only thing

like a clerical function they discharge, is to read the scriptures or discourses of the Buddha in stated assemblies of the people held for that purpose. They have also everywhere, except in China, a monopoly of education; and thus in Buddhist countries education, whatever may be its quality, is very generally diffused. In some countries the monks are exceedingly numerous; around Lassa in Tibet, for instance, they are said to be one-third of the population. They live in *viharas* or monasteries, and subsist partly by endowments, but mostly by charity. Except in Tibet, they are not allowed to engage in any secular occupation. The vow is not irrevocable. This incubus of monachism constitutes the great weakness of Buddhism in its social aspect. See BURMA, CHINA, LAMAISM, &c.

The adoration of the statues of the Buddha and of his relics is the chief external ceremony of the religion. This, with prayer and the repetition of sacred formulas, constitutes the ritual. The centres of the worship are the temples containing statues, and the *topes* or *tumuli* erected over the relics of the Buddha, or of his distinguished apostles, or on spots consecrated as the scenes of the Buddha's acts. The central object in a Buddhist temple, corresponding to the altar in a Roman Catholic church, is an image of the Buddha, or a dagoba or shrine containing his relics. Here flowers, fruit, and incense are daily offered, and processions are made with singing of hymns. The quantity of flowers used as offerings is prodigious. A royal devotee in Ceylon, in the 15th century, offered on one occasion 6,480,320 flowers at the shrine of the tooth. At one temple it was provided that there should be offered 'every day 100,000 flowers, and each day a different flower.' Of the relics of the Buddha, the most famous are the *teeth* that are preserved with intense veneration in various places. Hwen-Thsang saw more than a dozen of them in different parts of India; and the great monarch Siladitya was on the eve of making war on the king of Kashmir for the possession of one, which was in consequence given up. The tooth of the Buddha preserved in Ceylon, a piece of ivory about the size of the little finger, is exhibited very rarely. See CEYLON.

There appears at first sight to be an inconsistency between this seeming worship of the Buddha and the theory by which he is considered as no longer existing. Yet the two things are really not irreconcilable; not more so, at least, than theory and practice often are. With all their admiration of the Buddha, his followers have never made a god of him. Gautama is only the last Buddha—the Buddha of the present cycle. He had predecessors in the cycles that are past (twenty-four Buddhas of the past are enumerated, and Gautama could even tell their names); and when, at the end of the present cycle, all things shall be reduced to their elements, and the knowledge of the way of salvation shall perish with all things else, then, in the new world that shall spring up, another Buddha will appear, again to reveal to the renarescent beings the way to Nirvana. Gautama foretold that Mitreya, one of his earliest adherents, should be the next Buddha (the Buddha of the future), and he gratified several of his followers with a like prospect in after-cycles. The Buddha was thus no greater than any mortal may aspire to become. The prodigious and supernatural powers which the legends represent him as possessing are quite in accordance with Indian ideas; for even the Brahmins believe that by virtue, austerities, and science, a man may acquire power to make the gods tremble on their thrones. One who is on the way to become a supreme Buddha, and has arrived at that stage when he has only one more birth to undergo, is

styled a *Bodhisatva* (having the essence of knowledge); a mere candidate for Nirvana is an *arhat* (venerable).

The Buddha, then, is not a god; he is the ideal of what any man may become; and the great object of Buddhist worship is to keep this ideal vividly in the minds of the believers. In the presence of the statue, the tooth, or the footprint, the devout believer vividly recalls the example of him who trod the path that leads to deliverance. This veneration of the memory of Buddha is perhaps hardly distinguishable among the ignorant from worship of him as a present god; but in theory, the ritual is strictly commemorative, and does not necessarily involve idolatry any more than the garlands laid on the tomb of a parent by a pious child. See TORÉ.

The prayers addressed to the Buddha are more difficult to reconcile with the belief in his having ceased to exist. It is improbable, indeed, that the original scheme of Buddhism contemplated either the adoration of the statues of the Buddha or the offering of prayers to him after his death. These are an after-growth—accretions upon the simple scheme of Gautama, and in a manner forced upon it during its struggle with other religions. For a system of belief that seeks to supplant other systems finds itself enticed to present something to rival and outdo them, if possible, in every point. Even the Christian church in the middle ages adopted with this view rites and legends of paganism; merely casting over them a slight disguise, and giving them Christian names. Prayer, too, is natural to man. And then the inconsistency of uttering prayers when there is no one to hear or answer, glaring as it appears to us, is by no means great to the Eastern mind. Prayers, like other sacred formulas, are conceived less as influencing the will of any superior being to grant the request, than as working in some magical way—producing their effects by a blind force inherent in themselves. They are, in short, mere incantations or charms. Even the prayers of a Brahman, who believes in the existence of gods, do not act so much by inclining the deity addressed to favour the petitioner, as by compelling him through their mysterious potency—through the operation of a law above the will of the highest gods. The Buddhist, then, may well believe that a formula of prayer in the name of 'the Venerable of the world' will be potent for his good in this way, without troubling himself to think whether any conscious being hears it or not.

The element in Buddhism which more than any other, perhaps, gave it an advantage over all surrounding religions, and led to its surprising extension, was the spirit of universal charity and sympathy that it breathed, as contrasted with the exclusiveness of caste. In this respect, it held much the same relation to Brahmanism that Christianity did to Judaism. It was, in fact, a reaction against the exclusiveness and formalism of Brahmanism—an attempt to render it more catholic, and to throw off its intolerable burden of ceremonies. Buddhism did not expressly abolish caste, but only declared that all followers of the Buddha who embraced the religious life were thereby released from its restrictions; in the bosom of a community who had all equally renounced the world, high and low, the twice-born Brahman and the outcast were brethren. This was the very way that Christianity dealt with the slavery of the ancient world. This opening of its ranks to all classes and to both sexes—for women were admitted to equal hopes and privileges with men, and one of Gautama's early female disciples is to be the supreme Buddha of a future cycle—no

doubt gave Buddhism one great advantage over Brahmanism. The Buddha, says Max Müller, 'addressed himself to castes and outcasts. He promised salvation to all; and he commanded his disciples to preach his doctrine in all places and to all men. A sense of duty, extending from the narrow limits of the house, the village, and the country, to the widest circle of mankind, a feeling of sympathy and brotherhood towards all men, the idea, in fact, of humanity, were first pronounced by Buddha.' This led to that remarkable missionary movement, already adverted to, which, beginning 300 B.C., sent forth a succession of devoted men, who spent their lives in spreading the faith of Buddha over all parts of Asia.

In the characteristic above mentioned, and in many other respects, the reader cannot fail to remark the striking resemblance that Buddhism presents to Christianity, and this in spite of the perverse theory on which it is founded. On the other hand, by giving prominence to the extravagances and almost inconceivable puerilities and absurdities with which the system has been overloaded, it would be easy to make it look sufficiently ridiculous. But this is not to depict, it is to caricature. The only fair—the only true account of any religion, is that which enables the reader to conceive how human beings may have come to believe it and live by it. It is this object that has been chiefly kept in view in this meagre sketch of a vast subject.

For the history of the Buddha and his religion, see Burnouf, *Introduction à l'Histoire du Bouddhisme Indien* (1876); Köppen, *Die Religion des Buddha* (1857); Oldenberg, *Buddha* (1881; Eng. trans. 1882); Wurm, *Der Buddha* (1880); St-Hilaire, *Le Bouddha* (1862); Wassiljew, *Der Buddhismus* (1860); Kern, *Geschiedenis van het Bouddhisme* (1884); Rhys-Davids, *Buddhism* (1880) and *Hibbert Lectures* (1881); Mills, *The Indian Saint* (1876); Arnold, *The Light of Asia* (1882); Feer, *Études Bouddhiques* (1873); Titcomb, *Buddhism* (1885); Bastian, *Der Buddha in seiner psychologie* (1882); Alvis, *Buddhist Nirvana* (1871); Sénart, *La Légende du Bouddha* (1875); Bigandet, *Legend of Gaudama* (1886); Oby, *Du Nirvana Bouddhique* (1863); Max Müller, *Buddhist Nihilism* (1869); Lillie, *Buddha* (1881); Seydel, *Das Evangelium und die Buddhasage* (1882); Eitel, *Buddhism* (1873); Kistner, *Buddha* (1869), with a complete bibliography; Sir Monier Williams, *Buddhism* (1888); the works of Beal, Edkins, Eitel, Legge, and Schott for Chinese Buddhism; of Köppen and Schlagintweit for Tibetan; and of Alabaster for Siamese.

The following are some of the principal translations of, or compilations from original works in Pali, Sanskrit, Tibetan, and Chinese: Spence Hardy, *Manual of Buddhism* (1860), *Eastern Monachism* (1860), and *Legends and Theories of the Buddhists* (1860); Burnouf, *Le Lotus de la Bonne Loi* (1852); Schiefner, *Taranatha's Geschichte des Buddhismus* (1869) and *Lebensbeschreibung Sakjamunis* (1849); Rhys-Davids, *Buddhist Birth Stories*, vol. i. (1880); Rogers, *Buddhaghosha's Parables* (1870); Foucaux, *Histoire du Bouddha* (1868); Fu Hian's *Travels*, translations by Rémusat, Beal, Giles, and Legge; *Hsiuen-Thsang's Travels* by Stan. Julien and Beal; *Lalitā Viṭara* by Raj. Mitra and Lefmann; *Dhammapada* by Fausbøll, Müller, Beal, Rockhill, Weber, and Schulze; parts of the canon in *Sacred Books of the East*, vols. x. xi. xiii. xvii. xix. and xxi.; other parts by C. Swamy, Childers, and Beal; Rockhill, *Life of the Buddha*; Beal, *Romantic Life of Sakya Buddha* (1875).

Buddhism, ESOTERIC. See THEOSOPHY.

Budding, a process in the propagation of ligneous plants analogous to Grafting (q.v.). It consists in the transferring of a bud from one shoot to another on the same or different plants, although chiefly employed as the most rapid and economical method of increasing new and choice or rare kinds of fruit-trees and flowering trees and shrubs; it may also be used to improve the fruitfulness of barren fruit-trees, it being quite practicable to insert

blossom-buds into the branches of trees that are deficient in them. *Shield-budding*, which is the most commonly practised of several modes, is preferred for fruit-trees with gummy sap, such as the plum, cherry, peach, and apricot, as it obviates the tendency in such trees to canker at the wounded parts. It may be performed at any time when the bark rises freely from the young wood. This it usually does from June to September, but the fitness of the bud for the operation is to be judged of solely by the freedom with which the bark separates from the wood. The bud must be well formed, but not necessarily mature. The subjoined cut



represents the various parts in the mode known as *shield-budding*: *a* is the bud cut out, with a shield of bark attached to it; *b*, the stock, with a slit in the bark to receive the shield and bud; *c*, the bud inserted and the leaf cut away. The bud is cut by means of a sharp knife from the branch on which it has grown—usually a branch of the current year's growth—a small portion of the bark and wood being taken together, extending to about half an inch above and three-quarters of an inch below the bud. The woody part is then removed from the bark, taking care to prevent the base or root of the bud from being injured. If injured, the base will present the appearance of a circular cavity, which is caused by the removal of the centre or growing point of the bud, in which case it is worthless, and should be thrown away. A longitudinal and transverse cut in the form of the letter T, as shown at *b*, are then made in the bark of the stock to receive the bud; the thin ivory point of the handle of the budding-knife is used to raise the bark, and the bud is inserted. The bark extending above the bud is then cut over so as to fit exactly the transverse cut in the stock. A strand of soft matting or soft cotton-yarn is then wound firmly but not tightly around the stock to bind the bark down on that of the bud, in order to keep the latter in its place and prevent the access of dry air or heavy rains to the wounds. Of other methods of budding, the *reversed shield* is that commonly used by nurserymen and gardeners about Genoa in the rearing of orange-trees. The only difference between this and the mode first described is that the transverse cut in the stock is made at the bottom instead of the top of the longitudinal one. *Scallop-budding* is another mode in which the wood adhering to the bark of the bud is not removed, but instead is carefully fitted to a corresponding section in the stock, made by the removal of a portion of the bark and wood. The fitting of the edges of the bark of the bud to that of the stock is essential to success in practising this method, but it is altogether less sure than ordinary *shield-budding*. It may, however, be performed in spring, and if it fails, the object in view may be attained by the other method during summer and autumn.

Buddlea, a genus of shrubs of the order Scrophulariaceæ (sub-order Loganiaceæ), of which eighty species are known, all natives of the warmer parts of the world, and some of them much admired for their beautiful flowers. *B. globosa* (Chili), with globose heads of orange-coloured flowers, is hardy enough to endure the climate of most parts

of England, and several half-hardy species have also been introduced.

Bude, a watering-place on the north coast of Cornwall, 17 miles NW. of Launceston. Pop. 1000. Bude Castle was the home of Sir G. Gurney, who in 1839-41 patented the *Bude burner*, consisting of two, three, or more Argand (q.v.) burners, each inner one a little above the outer. The *Bude light* was a brilliant flame produced by introducing a current of oxygen into the interior of the flame.

Budgerigar is a kind of Parrakeet (q.v.).

Budget, from the same source as the French *bougette*, means a small bag, and has been used metaphorically to express a compact collection of things, as a budget of news, a budget of inventions, and the like. Water-budgets or buckets were a very honourable blazon on a coat-armorial, as being generally conferred in honour of some valiant feat for supplying an army with water.

The term 'The Budget' is in Britain, from long usage, applied to that miscellaneous collection of matters which aggregate into the annual financial statement made to parliament by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. It contains two leading elements—a statement how the nation's account of charge and discharge stands in relation to the past, and an explanation of the probable expenditure of the ensuing year, with a scheme of the method in which it is to be met, whether by the existing or new taxes, or by loan. The statement of the budget is always an important, sometimes a very exciting occasion; as, for instance, Sir Robert Peel's adoption of an income-tax in 1842, and his legislation for free trade in 1846. Mr Gladstone's eight budgets (1859-66), when Chancellor of the Exchequer in Lord John Russell's government, have always been considered as models of financial exposition. Their principal object was to carry on the remission and reduction of indirect taxes commenced by Sir Robert Peel. Mr Goschen's budget of 1888 was also memorable. Specimen budgets of the chief countries will be found under the names of those countries, as at GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE, &c.; see also REVENUE.

Budrun, a seaport town of Asiatic Turkey, on the north shore of the Gulf of Kos, about 96 miles S. of Smyrna. It is the site of the ancient *Halicarnassus* (q.v.), the birthplace of Herodotus and Dionysius. Pop. about 6000.

Budweis (Czech *Budejovice*), a town of Bohemia, on the navigable Moldau, 133 miles NW. of Vienna by rail. It has a cathedral, with a detached belfry dating from about 1550, manufactures of stoneware, machines, lead-pencils, saltpetre, &c., besides a brisk trade in grain, wood, coals, and salt. Pop. (1880) 23,845. In the neighbourhood is Schloss Frauenberg (1840-47), the seat of Prince Schwarzenberg.

Buenaventura, a town on the Pacific coast of the republic of Colombia. It has a hot, sickly climate, but is the port for the healthy and rich Cauca valley. Pop. 5000.

Buena Vista, a village of Mexico, 7 miles S. of Saltillo, where, on February 22-23, 1847, some 5000 United States troops under Taylor defeated 20,000 Mexicans under Santa Anna.

Buen-Ayré (Span.), Fr. BONAIRE, a West Indian island, 60 miles from the coast of Venezuela, and 30 E. of Curaçao, like which it belongs to the Dutch. It produces timber, cattle, cochineal, and salt. Area, 127 sq. m.; pop. (1886) 4043.

Buenos Ayres (*Buenos Aires*), the largest and most important province of the Argentine Republic in South America, extending along the Atlantic, from the mouth of the Plata to that of the Rio Negro on the 41st parallel. On the NE. it is washed by

the Plata and the Paraná, the latter separating it from the province of Entre Rios. Its area is estimated at 63,000 sq. m., about equal to that of Scotland and Ireland combined, with a population of (1885) 648,140 (estimated in 1888 at 800,000). With a much larger area it was originally an appendage of Peru, and became in 1775 a separate viceroyalty of itself. 'The United Provinces of the Plata' continued down to 1853 to recognise the city of Buenos Ayres as their head; and after the constitution of the Republic, the inland states endeavoured both by war and diplomacy to reannex the maritime province. Their object was attained in 1860, and the city remained capital of the province and temporary capital of the confederation until it was federalised in 1880, the seat of the provincial government being removed to La Plata, 30 miles to the south-east, in 1884. The province is divided into 80 departments, and returns 16 of the 86 members of congress, the city sending 9 more. The public debt of the province amounted in 1887 to £13,746,800. The budget for 1887 showed a revenue of £1,497,933, and an expenditure of £1,480,015.

The country approaches so nearly to a plain, with only two ranges of hills, 660-3830 feet high, that most of the rain which falls is either absorbed or evaporated, or lost in salt-lakes, comparatively little drainage entering the Paraná or the Plata; the largest rivers, the Salado (360 miles), and the Negro (630) and Colorado (700) in the south, empty into the Atlantic. The climate, though on the whole healthy and agreeable, is yet by no means steady or uniform. Every wind, in general, has, to a remarkable degree, its own weather—sultriness coming from the north, freshness from the south, moisture from the east, and the dry and piercing *pampero* winds from the west; and besides the periodical heats of every summer, successive years of more than ordinary drought occur. The rainfall ranges from 19 inches at Bahía Blanca to 38 at Matanzas; snow falls only in the far south, though thin ice is occasionally seen, the temperature ranging from 24° to 108° F. Agriculture, properly so called, is followed chiefly in the more temperate and humid districts of the eastern coast, and in those to the west and south-west of the capital, where most of the Scottish and Irish immigrants have settled; there were about 1,250,000 acres under cultivation in 1885, and land has lately greatly increased in value. The interior presents almost uninterrupted pasturage to countless herds of horses and cattle, and the business of grazing occupies or interests the great bulk of the population; but the droughts that affect the high northern camps, as well as the frequent inundations to which the low-lying southern camps are exposed, are often more destructive to the herds than the not infrequent plague of locusts is to the crops. The coast-line (740 miles, with about 150 miles on the Paraná) is low and sandy, and the ports of the province are very few. The harbour of the city of Buenos Ayres is very bad, and Bahía Blanca, in the extreme south, is little frequented. Under the circumstances, a commercial future of some importance is anticipated for the newly-founded La Plata, which possesses a harbour at once commodious and easily accessible. Immigration from Europe has been warmly encouraged by legislative enactment; and a comparatively congenial climate, as a recommendation to foreigners, has powerfully seconded the efforts of liberality and patriotism. In 1887 a bill was passed for establishing 'agricultural colonies' at all railway stations within 60 miles of the capital, where towns did not already exist; and here farm lots were to be marked out at a very low cost. The annual immigration into Buenos Ayres averaged only 40,000 for the twelve

years preceding 1882; but since then it has greatly increased, and in 1885 exceeded 108,000 (60 per cent. Italian, 15 per cent. Spanish), although a proportion of the immigrants doubtless went on to the agricultural colonies of Santa Fé and Entre Rios. Several railways, with about 1000 miles of road, traverse Buenos Ayres; and over the less populous routes about seventy lines of stagecoaches run. There are 6150 miles of telegraph wires in the province. Besides those mentioned, the only town of any importance is San Nicolás, on the Paraná, with a population of over 10,000. See Mulhall's *Handbook of the River Plate* (5th ed. 1885).

Buenos Ayres, the federal capital of Argentine Republic, on the right bank of the Plata, which here, at a distance of 150 miles from the open sea, is 36 miles across, but so shallow that ships drawing 15 feet of water are obliged to anchor 7 or 8 miles from the shore. It has other great disadvantages as a maritime town: the flood-tides of the ocean, when backed by easterly winds, are apt to make the estuary overflow its banks; and again, when westerly winds prevail, the estuary loses both width and depth. Monte Video, on the opposite shore, possesses a better harbour, and would, but for the greater facilities of Buenos Ayres in carrying on an inland trade, have proved a dangerous rival. Of the trade, however, with Chili by Mendoza and the Andes—a trade which must always be carried on by land—Buenos Ayres must still command the monopoly. Moreover, in 1887, a system of harbour works was commenced, to be completed in six years, at a cost of £4,000,000; it includes an advanced river wall, a north and south basin, and a series of four docks, which will connect two channels of the Plata, and so bring the largest vessels up to the wharfs. The city has had to contend against some peculiar disadvantages. Until recently, its supplies of fresh water were received from the Plata in rudely constructed carts; and although some granite is now forwarded from Jandil, 180 miles to the south, its immediate territory, purely alluvial, is almost as destitute of stones as of timber—the former being principally brought either as ballast from Europe or as freight from Martin Garcia, an island on the opposite side of the estuary, and the latter from Entre Rios and the Gran Chaco, and from the islets of the Uruguay and the Paraná. Fuel is almost as scarce as building material—peach-trees, charcoal brought from the coast, and the withered thistles of the prairies yielding the only indigenous supplies. The city, including suburbs, contains (1887) 459,063 inhabitants—about a third of whom are of European birth or descent. Among the Europeans the vast majority are Italian; the rest are principally Spanish, French, and British. Newspapers are published in French, English, Italian, and German, as well as in Spanish. The city is partitioned into blocks of about 150 yards square, with muddy, uneven roads, and pavements under chronic repair. In 1887 plans for a grand boulevard through the heart of the city were adopted; there are about a dozen plazas of from 8 to 12 acres in size; new houses, generally of brick faced with marble or stucco, are everywhere taking the place of the old comfortless Spanish-American erections, and the value of property has enormously increased. The principal buildings are the cathedral, second in South America to that of Lima alone, the chapel of Santa Felicitas, with elaborate frescoes, Anglican, Lutheran, Methodist, and Presbyterian churches, the university, a military college, the new post-office, the mint and government offices, and some of the palatial railway depôts; a Congress Hall, to cover 16 acres, at a cost of £1,600,000, was projected in 1887. There are also printing establishments;

manufactories of cigars, carpets, cloth, furniture, and boots and shoes; some small dockyards; and an Emigrants' Home, where about 7000 immigrants annually are received. The city is the seat of an archbishopric, and possesses several public libraries and museums, eleven hospitals, and numerous other charitable institutions. The terminus of six railways, it has some 100 miles of tramway lines; there is cable communication with Europe and the United States; and one telephone was in 1888 in use for every 173 of the population. The drainage is well planned, and the water and gas supply excellent, only the suburbs being still lit with oil-lamps, and supplied with water by the carriers. The exports (one-sixth to England) and imports (about one-half British) are practically those of Argentine Republic (q.v.); but there is also a river-trade averaging £3,500,000. The city debt was returned at £2,851,800 in October 1887; and in November a further municipal loan of £2,000,000 was voted. There was a Continental Exhibition held here in 1882. Buenos Ayres was founded in 1535, but was subsequently twice destroyed by the Indians. In 1806 a British force, which had just captured the city, was obliged to surrender; and in 1807 another, which attempted to recover the place, was repulsed with heavy loss; and these successes over so formidable a foe emboldened the colonists, three years afterwards, to throw off the yoke of Spain.

Buffalo, a city of New York state, capital of Erie county, is at the east end of Lake Erie, and at the head of Niagara River, in 42° 53' N. lat., and 78° 55' W. long. It is about 295 miles NW. of New York city in a direct line, but by the Erie Railroad 423 miles; the distance from Chicago is 539 miles. In population and wealth, Buffalo ranks third among the cities of New York. It has a capacious harbour, which has been dredged so that vessels of 17 feet draught can enter. There is an outer breakwater 4000 feet long, besides other breakwaters, piers, basins, and canals, constructed by the Federal, state, and municipal governments, at an expense of many millions of dollars. The harbour is guarded by Fort Porter, which stands two miles out from the heart of the city; close by is the old fort, built in 1812, and now in ruins. Two miles below, at Black Rock, long since included in the city, is the International Iron Bridge by which the Grand Trunk Railroad crosses the Niagara River. The water front of the city extends 5 miles along the lake and river, while Buffalo Creek has been rendered navigable for over a mile. The commercial importance of Buffalo dates from the completion of the Erie Canal in 1825; but since 1862 the lake commerce has yielded to the competition of the railroads. The Board of Trade was incorporated in 1857. The chief business is the receiving, transferring, and storing of grain, which employs over thirty elevators, some of them stone structures, others iron and brick, with a total capacity of over 8,000,000 bushels. There are also large floaters and transports, some of which have a capacity of 60,000 bushels. The annual amount of grain (including flour) received by lake and railroad is from 70,000,000 to 90,000,000 bushels. The live-stock trade, in which Buffalo ranks third among the cities of the Union, bids fair shortly to exceed the grain trade in importance; the iron and steel works rank next to those of Pittsburg; and the shipments of Pennsylvania coal, which finds a depôt here, have greatly increased in recent years, about 1,500,000 tons being distributed yearly. The lumber trade is also large, but has been partly diverted to Tonawanda, 10 miles below Buffalo, where more room is afforded. The industrial works comprise four blast-furnaces, large rolling-mills,

machine-shops, car-shops, iron shipyards, stove-foundries, tanneries, breweries, flour-mills, and manufactories of agricultural implements, besides many small establishments of all kinds. The navigation of Lake Erie usually opens about the middle of April, the extreme dates being a month earlier and a month later. Several main lines of railroad connect Buffalo with New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, and Canada, and there is more or less direct communication with other principal points.

Buffalo has wide streets, well paved and lighted, and generally lined with trees. It has excellent sewerage, and extensive water-works supplied from Niagara River; and its healthfulness is attested by the low death-rate of 14 per 1000. There are five public squares, and the magnificent park consists of three sections, connected by boulevards which encircle the city. Delaware Avenue, the leading street for private residences, is about 3 miles long, and is lined with double rows of trees. Main Street, the principal trading thoroughfare, has many substantial business blocks. The city and county hall is an imposing structure of Maine granite, in the form of a double Roman cross, with a tower 245 feet high, surmounted by four statues. The other prominent buildings are the United States custom-house and post-office, the state arsenal, the county penitentiary, and a state asylum for the insane (in North Buffalo), which has accommodation for 600 patients. Of the two finest of its 100 churches, St Joseph's Cathedral (Roman Catholic) is a gray Gothic structure; and St Paul's (Episcopal), in brown stone, was burned in 1888. Among the others are 21 Catholic, 15 Methodist, 12 Episcopalian, 12 Presbyterian, 11 Baptist. The public schools comprise 36 district schools, a state normal, and the Central High School. The Catholics have Canisius College, conducted by Jesuits, and St Joseph's, by the Christian Brothers, besides convents and parochial schools. Among the private schools, the most noted is the Buffalo Female Academy. There are also a medical college and several business colleges. A number of daily newspapers are published, nearly half of them in German. The Grosvenor Free (reference) Library has over 25,000 volumes; the Young Men's Association has 45,000 volumes, and its building gives accommodation also to the library and interesting collections of the Historical Society (founded in 1862), the Society of Natural History, and the Mechanics' Institute. There are also a Fine Arts Academy, Young Men's Christian Union, and Catholic Institute. Among the charitable institutions are six hospitals, a dispensary, and orphan asylums. There are twenty-one cemeteries, the finest being Forest Lawn, with 75 acres.

Buffalo was founded in 1801 by the Holland Land Company. It was burned in 1813 by British and Indians. It was incorporated as a city in 1832, and had then a population of 15,000, which had increased in 1850 to 42,300; in 1860 to 81,130; in 1870 to 117,714; in 1880 to 155,137; and in 1885 to about 203,000.

Buffalo, a name often applied to two distinct bovine genera or sub-genera—viz. the Asiatic Buffalo (*Bubalus*) with the Cape Buffalo; and the American Buffalo, better called Bison, and discussed under that head. The genus or sub-genus *Bubalus* has the usual bovine characteristics, and whatever be its exact limits in strict zoological classification, remains for practical purposes a large, clumsy ox. The horns rise from the posterior side corners of the skull, are usually thickened out of proportion at the base, and irregularly ridged, though smooth towards the points; the forehead is short and arched; the covering of hair is comparatively sparse. The

common or Asiatic Buffalo (*B. buffelus*) has beautifully twisted horns, thick and broad at the base, rough on to the middle, somewhat triangular in section. The horns lie back on the shoulders when the animal walks or runs, with its muzzle projecting characteristically forwards. The hair is short and scanty, almost bristly, slightly longer on head, shoulders, and front of neck, and all but black in colour. The bare brown polished hide is, however, the more striking feature.

The animal measures about 7 feet in length, and stands about 4 feet high at the shoulder. It is a native of the East Indies, has been domesticated in India, and thence introduced into Egypt, Greece, Italy, Hungary, &c. It is said to have reached Italy towards the end of



Head of the Asiatic Buffalo
(*Bubalus buffelus*).

the 6th century A.D., and there it has been its fate, as elsewhere, to become a beast of burden. The animal is adapted for marshy situations, which it naturally affects; preferring for its food the rank coarse herbage which they afford, delighting to immerse itself in water till only its head appears above the surface, in which condition it will remain for hours. It often envelops itself in mud as a protection against insects. On account of these propensities, the buffaloes used as beasts of burden in India are seldom laden with any goods liable to be spoiled by water, as the animal is always ready to take an opportunity of lying down with his load in any river or pond which presents itself. In Italy the buffalo seems nowhere more at home than in the Pontine Marshes and the pestilential Maremma.

The buffalo is a very powerful animal, much more powerful than the ox, and capable of dragging or carrying a far heavier load. The female yields a much greater quantity of milk than a cow, and of excellent quality. It is from buffalo milk that the *ghee* or semi-fluid butter of India is made. The hide is greatly valued for its strength and durability, but the flesh is decidedly inferior to that of the ox.

The buffalo exhibits a considerable amount of intelligence. In a state of domestication, it is capable of becoming very docile. In a wild state the buffalo is savage and dangerous, and even in domestication it is apt to resent injury. Alone, perhaps, of wild animals in India, it will attack unprovoked. The native princes of India make buffaloes and tigers fight in their public shows; and the buffalo is more than a match for the tiger, even in single combat. The buffalo is used in some parts of the East in the shooting of waterfowl; the sportsman conceals himself behind the animal, which, being a familiar sight, does not alarm the birds.—The Arnee is a very large variety of the common buffalo; a head has been known to measure 13 feet 6 inches along the horns. It occurs in the Indian islands and in Farther India in a wild state, but is also domesticated and used as a beast of burden.

The Cape Buffalo (*Bos caffer*) is generally regarded as a distinct species. The horns are very large; they spread horizontally over the top of the head, and are then bent down laterally, and turned upwards at the point. The head is carried, as by the common buffalo, with projecting muzzle and reclining horns, but the bases of the horns nearly meet on the forehead, where they are from 8 to 10

inches broad. The length of a full-grown Cape buffalo is about 8 feet from the root of the horns to the tail, and the height is 5½ feet. This animal



The Cape Buffalo (*Bos caffer*).

is regarded as more formidable than any other in South Africa. The buffalo is still found in large herds in the marshy wooded regions of Mid and South Africa, but in Cape Colony, where it was once plentiful, it has now become comparatively rare. It grazes chiefly in the evening, and lies in woods and thickets during the day. It will readily act on the aggressive, and has never been domesticated. The flesh though coarse is palatable.—*B. brachyceros* is another African species.—The Dwarf Wild Cow of the island of Celebes (*Anoa* or *Probuhatas celebensis*) is also related to the buffaloes.

Buff Leather, or OIL-DRESSED LEATHER, is usually made out of salted and dried South American light ox and cow hides. After being lined in the usual way, they are unhaired and rounded, so that only the best part of the hide is made into buff leather. The grain and flesh being then scraped or cut off, the true cuticle, which is of a flexible fibrous nature, alone remains. The hide is next sprinkled over with cod-oil, and placed in the stocks, where it is worked for about 15 minutes. Having been taken out and partially dried, it is again submitted to a similar process of oiling and stocking; and during the first day these operations may be repeated six times, decreasing daily for about a week, when one oiling and stocking in a day is sufficient. The gelatin of the hide combines with the oil, heat being evolved in the process. The hides are then placed in a stove, and subjected to an operation called 'heating off,' after which they are scoured and rendered free from oiliness by being soaked in a strong lye of carbonate of potash. They are next worked well in the stocks, hot water being poured copiously upon them until the water runs off pure. Having been dried, they are subjected to a process called *grounding*—i.e. they are rubbed with a round knife, and also with pumice-stone and sand, until a smooth surface is produced. The leather, which is very pliant, and not liable to crack or rot, is now ready for the market, and is generally used for soldiers' belts and other army purposes. Buckskin and chamois or wash-leather are dressed in a similar way.

Buffon, GEORGE LOUIS LECLERC, COMTE DE, was born at Montbard, in Burgundy, on September 7, 1707. His father was a rich man, belonging to the *noblesse de robe*. After studying law at the Jesuit college in Dijon, he devoted himself wholly to science. At Dijon he became acquainted with

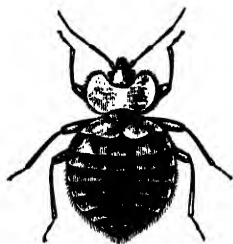
an English nobleman, Lord Kingston, with whom he went on a tour through France and Italy, and in whose company he visited England. While in England he translated into French Newton's *Fluxions*, Hales's *Vegetable Statics*, and a work on agriculture by Tull. On returning to France he soon gained distinction as a writer on scientific subjects, and after being admitted to the Academy, was in 1739 appointed director of the Jardin du Roi, a post which gave him command of the royal museums and collections of living animals and plants. He then formed the design of his *Histoire Naturelle*, in which all the known facts of natural science were to be embodied and discussed in what he believed to be language of the loftiest eloquence. In producing the fifteen volumes of the *Histoire*, which appeared between 1749 and 1767, he was assisted by Daubenton, the Abbé Bexon, Guesneau de Montbéliard and others, whom he intrusted with the compilation of facts, and the composition of the less ambitious passages. The work brought him an immense reputation, and was translated into most of the languages of Europe. Its rhetorical flights were regarded with extravagant admiration; Rousseau, who visited Buffon at the chateau of Montbard, is said to have fallen on his knees and kissed the doorstep of the pavilion in which parts of the book were composed. Montesquieu, D'Alembert, and Voltaire, however, formed a different estimate of its author's ability. Though he may be ranked among the *philosophes*, Buffon was not one of the leaders or militant members of the party. After receiving various high honours, he was made Comte de Buffon by Louis XV. He died at Paris on April 16, 1788. Buffon, it has been said, completely exemplified his own phrase: *Le style c'est l'homme*. He was as pompous in his manners as in his writings. He regarded himself as a supreme authority on all that related to literary form; his remark, however, that certain verses which he happened to admire were as beautiful as beautiful prose, illustrates his thorough misunderstanding of the principles of sound criticism. After being greatly overrated, his work is now, perhaps—at least out of France—somewhat unfairly disparaged. He was rash and over-confident in his speculations; his book has no longer any scientific value; much that he wrote and that once passed for soaring eloquence is now recognised as fustian. But he was inspired by a genuine love of knowledge. He sought to invest natural science with new dignity and interest in the eyes of the world at large, and he undoubtedly achieved his object. He may claim a place in the history of the doctrine of evolution, from having opposed the old system of zoological classification, on the ground that an unbroken succession of forms could be traced through the animal kingdom. See A. Richard's edition of his *Œuvres complètes* (1825-28), his *Correspondance* (2 vols. 1860); Flouren's *Buffon*; *Histoire de ses Travaux et de ses Études* (1844); and H. Nadault de Buffon's *Buffon, sa Famille et ses Familiers* (1860).

Buffoon is a Jester (q.v.), from the Ital. *buffa*, 'a trick.' From the same word comes *buffo*, 'a comic actor or singer,' and the French name, *opera-bouffe*, for comic opera.

Bug, the name of two Russian rivers. The Western Bug rises in Austrian Galicia, and after a course of about 470 miles, forming for the most way the eastern frontier of Poland, it joins the Vistula, near Warsaw. The Eastern Bug, the Hypanis of the ancients, rises in Podolia, and flows 520 miles south-east into the estuary of the Dnieper.

Bug, a popular name for insects in the order Hemiptera, and in the subdivision with unequal wings—Heteroptera. It may be widely applied to

the whole of this subdivision, including land-bugs and water-bugs, the former to the number of almost 8000 species, the latter much less numerous. The Boat-fly (q.v.) or water-boatman has been already described, and may, along with the water-scorpions (*Nepidae*, q.v.), serve to illustrate the water-bugs. The Geocôres or land-bugs vary considerably, but have large long feelers with four or five joints, are especially at home in warm countries, are often brightly coloured, have an unpleasant smell, and usually eat other insects or sometimes also the juices of plants. The bug *par*



Cimex lectularia.

excellence, however, is the *Cimex* or *Acanthiu lectularia*, the well-known bed-bug. It was known to the Greeks as Koris, to the Romans as Cimex, and was believed by Aristotle to arise spontaneously from sweat. It is a wingless insect, thus differing from most of its fellow bugs. The body is very flat, the long slender feelers and the legs with fine hairs, the posterior part of the body almost circular. The length is about $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch. The colour is rusty red, with traces of yellow. The mouth is suctorial. During the day the insect lurks quietly in crevices of walls and bedsteads, but is active and hungry at night, sucking the blood of higher animals, and notoriously of man. Since such opportunities but rarely occur, the animal prepares for long fasting by distending itself with blood when a meal is offered. As pests, they are too well known, especially where the furniture is not kept clean, and exasperated sleepers are no longer able to console themselves with the old belief that the bite was an antidote to the venom of snakes. The female bug is said to lay eggs four times between March and September, and each time about fifty. The larvae are in three respects like the adult, the metamorphosis being incomplete. The first three broods, each reaching sexual maturity in about eleven weeks, develop, the last brood appears to perish, while the adult insects persist through the winter, enduring a considerable degree of cold. The bed-bug is said to have come from the East, and it certainly follows human migration. It was not known in Strasburg, according to Leunis (*Synopsis des Thierreichs*), till the 11th century, and the refugee Huguenots have been blamed for bringing it to London. Strict cleanliness is the best preventive; turpentine and even corrosive sublimate are among the recommended insecticides. The same species is known to attack pigeons, and other species trouble bats and swallows. For an account of the bug family as a whole, systematic works on insects must be consulted. Many of the thousand forms have some scientific interest and practical importance. A large number may be studied on our common plants and trees. Some of the winged wood-bugs or field-bugs are capable of inflicting very painful wounds. Forms an inch in length are known to occur. Flying-bugs, 'enormous and fetid,' are among the pests of India. Night is the time of their activity. Warm countries generally have winged bugs of great size and beauty; but if touched or irritated, they 'exhale an odour that, once perceived, is never after forgotten.' A winged bug, as large as a cockchafer, lodges in the thatch and roofing of houses in Chili, and sallies forth at night, like the bed-bug, to suck blood, of which it takes as much as a common leech. - It is worthy of notice that a species of field-bug (*Acanthosoma*

griseum), a native of Britain, is one of the few insects that have yet been observed to show affection and attention to their young. De Geer observed the female of this species, which inhabits the birch-tree, conducting a family of thirty or forty young ones as a hen does her chickens, showing great uneasiness when they seemed to be threatened with danger, and waiting by them instead of trying to make her own escape.

Bugbane, or BUGWORT (*Cimicifuga*), a fetid genus of Ranunculaceæ, allied to Baneberry (*Actæa*), of which both the European and American species are said to drive away insects.

Bugeaud, THOMAS, French marshal, was born at Limoges in 1784, and entering the army in his nineteenth year, showed such bravery during the Napoleonic campaigns as by 1814 earned him a colonelcy. Recalled from a fifteen years' retirement to active life by the July revolution of 1830, he was elected deputy for Périgueux, and soon gained Louis-Philippe's esteem; in 1836 was despatched to Algeria, where he distinguished himself against Abd-el-Kader; and in 1840 was appointed governor-general. The Zouaves owed their organisation to him. His victory at Isly in 1844 over the emperor of Morocco's forces gained him the title Duc d'Isly, and the year before he had received the marshal's bâton. In the revolution of February 1848 he commanded the army in Paris. He died of cholera in Paris, June 9, 1849. See his *Memoirs* by Count d'Ideville (Eng. trans. 2 vols. 1882); and Roches, *Le Maréchal Bugeaud en Afrique* (1885).

Bugenhagen, JOHANN, surnamed *Doctor Pomeranus* or *Pommer*, one of Luther's chief helpers in the Reformation, was born in 1485 near Stettin, in Pomerania, studied at Greifswald, and as early as 1503 became rector of the Treptow academy. In 1520 his religious views were changed by reading Luther's little book, *De Captivitate Babylonica*. He now betook himself to Wittenberg, where he busied himself in preaching and teaching in the university. His great talent for organisation found work to do in establishing churches in Brunswick, Hamburg, Lübeck, and Pomerania, and in reforming the ecclesiastical establishments of Denmark, whither he was called by Christian III. in 1537. He died 20th April 1558. Bugenhagen aided Luther in his translation of the Bible. Of his own works the best is his *Interpretatio in Librum Psalmorum* (1523). His Life has been written by Bellermann (1859), Vogt (1868), and Zitzlaff (1885).

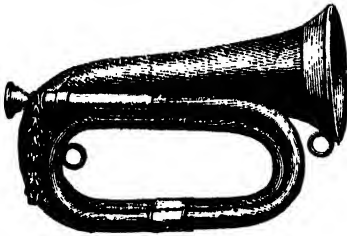
Bugge, ELSENS SOPHUS, a Norwegian philologist, born 5th January 1833 at Laurvik, studied at Christiania, Copenhagen, and Berlin, and in 1866 was appointed professor of Comparative Philology and Old Norse at the university of Christiania. His *Old Norse ballads* (1858) and historical legends (1864-65), critical edition of the earlier *Edda* (1867), studies in ancient Italian dialects (1878) and on the origin of the Scandinavian legends of gods and heroes (1881-82), besides numerous dissertations on all departments of the Teutonic and Romance languages, place him in the first rank of living philologists.

Buggy (an Indian word) is a gig with a hood in India; in England it is a light two-wheeled vehicle without a hood; but in the United States is a light one-horse four-wheeled vehicle with a hood.

Bugle. See BONI.

Bugle (*Ajuga*), a palæarctic genus of Labiatiæ. The Common Bugle (*A. reptans*) is abundant in moist pastures and woods of Europe. Its flowers are generally blue, but white and purplish varieties are sometimes grown in flower-borders. *A. alpina* is one of the beautiful flowers of the Swiss Alps.

Bugle (Fr. *bugle*; Ger. *Flügelhorn*; Ital. *tromba*), a treble musical instrument with a cup mouthpiece, usually made of copper, with strengthening pieces of brass soldered on where most exposed to wear. The bell is less expanded than the Trumpet (q.v.), and the tube is shorter and more conical. (Compare the figure with those in the articles CORNET and TRUMPET.) This form gives it that peculiar,



Bugle.

penetrating, and far-reaching sound which renders it so admirably suited for its sole purpose—viz. a military signalling instrument. The bugle was formerly used only in the infantry branch of the service; but it has now superseded the trumpet for field duty in the cavalry and artillery branches.

It is made in the key of Bb, and its notes are the

open notes of the tube—C (below the staff), G, C, E, G. It has also C, octave lower, and Bb and C above; but the first five are the only effective notes. It is provided with two rings, to which a cord is attached for suspension to the shoulder of the bugler. See BAND (MILITARY).

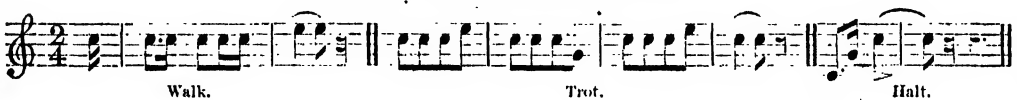
The *Kent bugle*, a bugle with keys to provide the additional notes (see MUSIC—*Musical Instruments*), was at one time very popular as a leading instrument in brass bands. It was, however, difficult to play, and another modification, the *valved bugle*, was introduced. Both are now entirely superseded by the Cornet (q.v.) as a leading instrument, except in the purely bugle-bands of some of the rifle regiments. A valved attachment to fit on to the ordinary bugle, to enable it to be used as a band instrument, has also been invented, but little use has been made of it.

Bugle sounds or *calls*, as the military signals are called, are all written within the compass of the five principal notes of the bugle. They vary in character from a single note G, meaning 'right' (two Gs being 'centre,' and three 'left'), to the infantry 'reveille,' or morning call, which may be said to have some pretensions to being a musical composition, as it has five movements, a *largo*, *allegretto*, *vivace*, *adagio*, and *presto*. The soldiers display much ingenuity and considerable humour in adapting words to many of the calls. We append a few of the 'sounds' as specimens:

INFANTRY SOUNDS.



CAVALRY AND ARTILLERY SOUNDS.



Bugle is a name for a slender, elongated kind of Bead (q.v.), usually black.

Bugloss, a name popularly applied to many plants of the natural order Boraginæ (q.v.), more strictly to *Anchusa* (*Lycopsis*) *arvensis*, a common weed in cornfields in Britain. The beautiful *Echium vulgare* bears the English name of Viper's Bugloss. Both these plants are naturalised in the United States.

Bugulma, a town in the Russian government of Samara, on the Bugulminka, a tributary of the Kama. Pop. (1884) 13,746.

Buguruslan, a town in the Russian government of Samara, on the Kinel, in the great Volga steppe, with (1884) 19,390 inhabitants.

Buhl or **Boule Work**, the name applied to a sort of inlaying of brass scrolls and other ornamental patterns in wood. The name is derived from its inventor, Charles André Boulle (1642–1732), an Italian cabinetmaker in the service of Louis XIV. He employed veneers of dark-coloured tortoise-shell, inlaid with brass. Cabinets of his manufacture are highly prized, as are also those of his contemporary Reisner, a German, who used a ground of tulip-wood, inlaid with flowers, &c. in darker woods, and varied with margins and bands of light wood, with the grain crossed for contrast. This modification of buhl-work is correctly called

Reisner work. For details of the methods of working, see INLAYING, and MOSAIC; also MARQUETRY.

Buhrstone, a variety of Quartz (q.v.), containing many small empty cells, which give it a peculiar roughness of surface, particularly adapting it for millstones. The name is given without reference to geological relations, but it is *vein quartz*, rather than true *quartz rock*, which ordinarily assumes the character of buhrstone. There are different varieties of buhrstone, some of which are more compact, or have smaller cells than others; and those in which the cells are small and very regularly distributed, about equal in diameter to the spaces between them, the stone being also as hard as rock-crystal, are most esteemed. Good buhrstone is found at Conway in Wales, and at several places in Scotland, as well as near Cologne in Germany. Buhrstones are quarried in New York, Pennsylvania, and North Carolina. But the finest millstones are obtained from the quarries of La Ferté-sous-Jouarre, in the department of Seine-et-Marne, near Paris. It is not unusual to form millstones of pieces of buhrstone cut into parallelepipeds, like great wedges of soap, and bound together by iron hoops. The stone is found in beds or in detached masses, and the mode of quarrying is peculiar. When the mass is large, it is cut out

into the form of a huge cylinder; around this grooves are cut, at distances of about 18 inches, the intended thickness of the millstones; into these grooves wooden wedges are driven, and water is thrown upon the wedges, which, causing the wood to swell, splits the cylinder into the slices required. —Millstones are sometimes made of siliceous gritstones, of sandstone, and even of granite (see MILL). Buhrstone millstones are extremely durable.

Building. The walls of a house may be built of wood, stone, brick, brick and timber, iron, mud, turf, and even snow. In the arctic regions a house with snow walls is felt to be fairly comfortable. In the tropics a strong tent constructed of posts and palm-leaves suffices for an abode. The following tradesmen take part in the erection of an ordinary dwelling-house: Mason or bricklayer, marble-cutter, carpenter, joiner, slater, plasterer, glazier, smith or founder, plumber, gas-fitter, painter, and bell-hanger.

Site and Foundation.—If there is a choice of site, one should be chosen with a dry subsoil and good natural drainage. Where ground has been made up artificially, it should either be carefully avoided, or the tracks for the foundation courses of the walls must be sunk till they reach the natural stratum of earth or surface of rock. In certain situations, as where the ground is marshy, wooden Piles (q.v.) are used to carry walls. However dry the ground may be, a 'damp-proof course' should be formed a little above the level of the ground by levelling the walls and spreading a thin layer of asphalt over them, or by laying a course of glazed pottery shales. The damp-proof course should be below the lowest flooring-joists. See FOUNDATION, and ASPHALT.

Walls.—For buildings such as churches and houses in most civilised countries, walls are nearly always constructed of brick or stone. But in Norway, Sweden, Russia, and Switzerland, as well as in parts of Asia and America, many houses, and in some cases churches, are erected entirely of wood (see CHALET). Another way of constructing walls has recently been adopted largely on the continent of Europe, and to some extent also in America. This consists of a concrete (called *béton* in France) formed of sand, pebbles, broken stone, and lime mixed with water. It is a revival of an ancient Roman method, and, on the Continent especially, has produced satisfactory results. Stone walls for ordinary houses are usually built two feet thick, but they are often made much thicker in the case of large public buildings. Their Masonry (q.v.) is either of Ashlar (q.v.) work or of Rubble (q.v.), jointed with mortar, which is also used for brickwork (see CEMENTS). The external brick walls of some houses are only 9 inches thick, but they should be at least 14 inches thick, especially if the building is two stories or more in height. They are often built hollow—i.e. with hollow spaces formed in their thickness—which tends to keep down damp (see BRICKLAYING). Drains, chimneys, and stairs are referred to under their respective heads. For the construction of arches, see BRIDGE.

Partitions.—On the ground-floor, and wherever strength of construction is required, these are best formed of brick, usually $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches, occasionally 6, and sometimes 9 inches thick. They are now occasionally built of hollow bricks. Wooden partitions are formed of upright quarterings or studs, called in Scotland standards, $4\frac{1}{2}$ by 2 inches, and from 12 to 14 inches apart, and covered with lath to receive plaster. In Great Britain these timber partitions are left hollow, but in Paris the quarterings are nailed over horizontally with strong oak laths a few inches apart, and all the interspaces filled in with

stone rubble. A plaster of Paris mortar is then pressed through the rubble, leaving as much body on the surfaces as will cover and imbed all the timber, and in this way form a solid partition.

Flooring.—The lowest floor, if formed of wood, should be above the level of the ground, should have a space below the joists, and air should be admitted by openings through the walls for ventilation. If this is not done, the timber is apt to be attacked by dry-rot, caused by a species of fungus. Floors near the level of the ground, when laid with flagstones, asphalt, or cement, require a six-inch layer of broken stones, covered with a bed of mortar or cement below them. All the floors of a house, except in some apartments of the lowest story, are usually formed of wood; but if they are of large size, the joists are often supported by iron beams (see GIRDER). Floors whose under sides form ceilings of rooms below them require to be 'deafened' with a layer of some mixture such as coarse plaster, mortar, and chopped straw, or of ashes and lime, under the flooring-boards. In large or important buildings floors are often constructed of either solid or hollow brick arches thrown between iron beams, in which case they are fireproof. See FLOOR.

Roofing.—For large spans iron roofs are a feature of the age, and the French have been particularly successful in the artistic treatment of this material. Wooden roofs are still, however, commonly put on ordinary houses. Their construction is explained under the heads CARPENTRY, ROOF. Where it is available, Slate (q.v.) is for the most part used to cover sloping roofs, but occasionally thin flagstone takes the place of slate. Tiles of red, blue, and other colours are now sometimes chosen, even for the roofs of public buildings, in preference to slate when colour effect is sought after. Flat roofs are covered with lead or zinc, the former being the more durable. The gutters, flushings, and generally also the ridges of roofs, are likewise formed of lead; but they are also frequently made of zinc, which does not last long in large towns, although it is more durable in the country. Thatch, felt, Asphalt (q.v.), and wooden Shingles (q.v.) are all used to cover roofs; and glass is largely used in roofs of railway stations, exhibitions, and the like.

Joiner-work.—Doors, windows, shutters, and generally what are called the internal finishings of a house, are made and fitted up by the joiner. See CARPENTRY, DOOR, WINDOW.

Plaster-work.—The covering of the internal surface of walls, and the surface of partitions and ceilings with plaster, as well as the construction of the cornices and other modelled decorations of rooms in plaster of Paris, is done by the plasterer. The inside of external stone and solid brick walls should be strapped and lathed before being plastered, otherwise it is difficult to keep the plaster dry. See PLASTERING.

Plumber-work.—Much of the comfort of a house depends upon the efficiency with which the plumber does his work. The lead water-pipes should be placed in situations protected from frost, and they should be of a sufficient thickness to stand the required pressure. Lead piping is not very suitable for the conveyance of hot water (see LEAD). Easy access should be given to water-cisterns, in order that they may be frequently cleaned. All the fittings of cisterns, baths, and water-closets, and soldered joints everywhere, require the utmost care and attention. A very small hole, through which an almost invisible drop of water can escape, will often cause much damage before it is detected. The lead and zinc work of roofing noticed above is done by the plumber. Zinc baths are not so common as they were, enamelled iron ones being

preferred to them; but those made of strong earthenware, with a white glaze, are perhaps the best of all, as a glaze on burnt clay does not chip like an enamel on metal. Excellent kitchen-sinks are also made of glazed earthenware, but those formed of lead on a wood framing have also advantages, and have been longer in use. Such questions as the non-desirability of having fixed wash-hand basins in bedrooms, and the trapping of pipes which enter drains, will be treated of under the head SANITATION.

Gas-fitting.—The gas-pipes of a house should be of tin, as it is harder and stands much better than the cheap composition tubing, made of a mixture of lead with other metals, now so much used. Unless they are formed of iron, gas-pipes should be placed in protected channels, and not exposed on the surface of walls. Leaks in tin or other more or less soft-metal pipes are frequently caused by the carelessness of joiners driving nails through them. It occasionally happens that rats gnaw through these kinds of pipes when they are in their way, and they more frequently destroy lead water-pipes in the same manner. In order to be sure that the gas-pipes in a house are perfectly airtight, they should be tested with a force-pump and an indicator.

Glazing.—Windows of houses are most commonly glazed with sheet-glass varying in weight from 15 to 20 ounces per superficial foot. Thicker kinds are made for very large-sized panes. When plate-glass is used, it is generally about one-fourth of an inch thick. In some shop windows it is considerably thicker. Few persons, except those who have much experience in the matter are aware how great is the difference in the qualities of plate-glass. Some kinds will keep clean six times as long as others under precisely the same circumstances. The qualities of sheet-glass also differ considerably, but it is much more easy to select good glass of this kind. See GLASS.

Painting and Papering.—The painting or papering of plastered walls should not be attempted till they are thoroughly dry. Paint greatly helps to preserve external wood-work, and it is equally necessary to frequently renew the painting of light railings or balcony panels, if they are made of malleable iron. Inside work, such as doors, shutters, architraves, window-breasts, and walls (if not papered), should get at least four coats of oil-paint. Frequently these finishings receive three coats of varnish instead of paint, if it is desired to show the grain of the wood. It is often the case that a first coat of glue-size is substituted for one of varnish, which makes an inferior job.

Building Materials.—Building stone, brick, terracotta, slate, and cement are noticed under their respective heads. In the better class of houses the roof-timbers, joists, window-frames, and other external wood-work are made of what is known in commerce as Baltic redwood, which is imported from Danzig, Riga, St Petersburg, and other places on the Baltic. It is the product of the Scotch fir (*Pinus sylvestris*). This wood when grown in Great Britain is not so valuable for building purposes as the imported timber. It is a moderately heavy, resinous, durable, and easily worked wood (see PINE). For room-doors, shutters, dados, and other internal work, the wood of the American yellow pine (*Pinus mitis*) is very generally used. It is an excellent timber for these purposes. Californian redwood (*Sequoia sempervirens*) is now, to some extent, used in Great Britain for the same kind of work as yellow pine. The pitch pine (*Pinus rigida*) of the United States yields a very resinous wood with a showy grain, which has also been occasionally employed for the joiner-work of houses in England.

An inferior wood, imported from Danzig, called whitewood, and said to be obtained from a species of spruce, has of late years been largely used for joists and roofing, owing to the comparatively high price of Baltic redwood. This whitewood is also, to some extent, employed for the internal finishings of rooms. Oak, mahogany, and other hard woods are only in request for parts of exceptionally important and costly buildings.

Machine-work.—Machinery is now extensively employed for sawing and cutting ordinary limestone and sandstone, as well as granite and marble (see STONE-CUTTING). The sawing, planing, moulding, mortising, tenoning, dovetailing, and turning of wood is likewise executed on a large scale by machine tools. Sash and door clamping machines are also in use, so that in the workshops of many large builders hand-work in the construction of such articles as doors and window-sashes and frames is confined to smoothing the machine finish and glueing together their different parts. Wood-cutting for builder's purposes by machinery has made greater progress in the United States than elsewhere. See PLANE, SAW.

Building Leases. Under a variety of statutes in England and Scotland, the crown, represented by the Commissioners of Woods and Forests, heirs of entail under strict settlement, the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, the great university corporations, mortgagees in England, are authorised to grant building leases for ninety-nine years. The term of ninety-nine years has thus come to be associated with building leases, but such leases are granted for various periods. In England it has been decided that municipal corporations cannot at common law grant building leases for more than seventy-five years. In the case of the Montgomery Act, passed for Scotland in 1770, very stringent conditions were laid down as to the number of houses and the extent of ground, but these have been practically superseded by later legislation. It is much questioned whether the building lease is a convenient and economical tenure in towns. In the United States, building leases include repairing leases, and may continue for any term of years agreed upon by the parties, no time being specified by State or United States law. See GROUND-RENT, LEASE, and LEASEHOLD.

Building Societies are societies established for the purpose of raising, by periodical subscriptions, a fund to assist members in obtaining heritable property, freehold or otherwise. In the United Kingdom, they were formerly regulated by an act passed in 1836. After an elaborate inquiry by Royal Commission, with which the name of Sir Stafford Northcote (Lord Iddesleigh) is connected, a new act was passed in 1874 (the Building Societies Act, 1874), and was amended in 1876 and 1877. Regulations are issued from time to time by the Home Secretary, as in 1876 and 1882, and the Court of Session has framed an act of sederunt regulating the liquidation proceedings of Scottish societies in the Sheriff Court. All societies established after 1874 must be governed by these later acts, and those which were in existence in 1874, called 'old societies,' may adopt them, but it is not compulsory upon them to do so. The Act of 1836 declares that it shall be lawful to establish such societies, for the purpose of enabling the members to erect and purchase dwelling-houses, or acquire other real or leasehold estate, which shall be mortgaged to the society until the amount or value of the shares drawn on shall be fully repaid with interest and all other appropriate payments. A share is not to exceed in value £150, and the corresponding monthly subscription is not to be more than twenty shillings. A majority of the

members may make rules and regulations for the government and guidance of the society, such rules not being repugnant to the provisions of the act or to the general laws of the realm; and for offences against these rules and regulations, fines, penalties, and forfeitures may be inflicted. No member shall be allowed to receive any interest or dividend on his share until the same has been realised, except on the withdrawal of such member according to the rules of the society.

The Act of 1874 considerably enlarges the scope and powers of building societies. Section 13 declares that any number of persons may establish a society, either terminating or permanent, for the purpose of raising, by the subscriptions of the members, a stock or fund for making advances to members out of the funds of the society, upon security of freehold, copyhold, or leasehold estate, by way of mortgage; and any society under the act shall, so far as is necessary for the said purpose, have power to hold land, with the right of foreclosure, and may from time to time raise funds by the issue of shares of one or more denominations, either paid up in full or to be paid by periodical or other subscriptions, and with or without accumulating interest, and may repay such funds when no longer required for the purposes of the society. It will be seen that the restrictions of £150 and twenty shillings have disappeared, the contributions and ultimate value of a member's interest being at his own discretion. The liability of members, in respect of shares upon which no advance has been made, is limited to the amount actually paid or in arrear thereon; and in respect of shares upon which advances have been made, is limited to the amount payable under any mortgage or other security, or under the rules. Societies are empowered to receive deposits or loans, from members or other persons, corporate bodies, joint-stock companies, or terminating building societies, provided, in the case of permanent societies, that the total amount owing at one time shall not exceed two-thirds of the amount for the time being secured to a society by mortgages from its members; and in the case of terminating societies, shall not exceed two-thirds as aforesaid, or a sum not exceeding twelve months' subscriptions on the shares for the time being in force. Societies established under or adopting the Act of 1874 are bodies corporate, having perpetual succession and a common seal, thus dispensing with the cumbrous and inconvenient system of trusteeship. Their rules must specify the society's name and place of meeting; mode of raising funds, with their purposes and mode of investment; terms of withdrawal and repayment; manner of alteration of rules; the appointment, remuneration, and removal of officers; provisions as to general and special meetings, and the settlement of disputes, custody of seal, mortgage deeds, and securities, powers of directors and other officers, fines, and mode of dissolution. Societies may unite with others, or one society may transfer its engagements to another. They may purchase, build, hire, or take on lease any building for conducting their business. Minors may be members, but cannot vote or hold office during nonage. Accounts are to be furnished to members and loan depositors annually. The societies are exempt from stamp-duties of every kind, except those upon mortgages; while those which continue under the Act of 1836 retain their former exemption from stamp-duty upon mortgages up to £500. It is not probable that this difference will be permitted to continue long; and even now the slight gain is more than counterbalanced by the privileges of incorporation, &c. conceded by the Act of 1874. Receipts indorsed upon mortgages are sufficient discharges without reconveyance.

Two great divisions of building societies exist,

the terminating and the permanent, but the latter are rapidly superseding the former. In the best-conducted societies, subscriptions are received at any time and to any amount, at the option of the member. The majority of members pay from ten to twenty shillings per month, and others pay smaller or much larger sums as convenient. Very large sums are received in some societies. The National Permanent of London receives £783,000 in the financial year from 11,395 members, and the Bradford Third Equitable receives £596,000 from 8148 members. Other large towns in the provinces are not far behind, and in London the societies are numerous, and in the main prosperous. The Royal Commissioners, in 1872, assumed that building societies had a subscribed capital of over £9,000,000, a loan or deposit capital of over £6,000,000, over £17,000,000 total assets (of which £16,000,000 was advanced on mortgage), and an income of over £11,000,000. In 1885 the number of societies in England and Wales was 2044, with a subscribed capital of £32,235,452, a loan or deposit capital of £15,635,162, assets amounting to £49,472,827, and total receipts in that year of £21,093,977. These figures are below the mark, as 200 societies made no return. The total membership is probably above 600,000. In Scotland there are only 50 incorporated societies on the register, with a subscribed capital of £696,803, a loan capital of £278,120, assets amounting to about £1,000,000. There are also 153 unincorporated societies. The largest Scottish societies are the Paisley Heritable and the Bon Accord of Aberdeen. In Ireland there are 40 societies, with a subscribed capital of £672,585, loan capital of £416,065, assets amounting to £1,108,000. Much the largest of these is the Irish Civil Service of Dublin, with annual receipts of £330,801, but there are also thriving societies in Belfast, Derry, Cork, and elsewhere.

The theory of these institutions is very simple. Money is collected in comparatively small sums from large numbers of people, and lent to others who borrow upon real security, either to build or trade, or for any other purpose. There was a time when members were only permitted to subscribe fixed sums at stated times, and every departure from rule was visited by heavy fines. Now, in the best-conducted societies at least, every facility is given for varying powers of investment to find a place for capital; and entrance and withdrawal are equally easy. In most cases, the repayments are upon a scale calculated to pay off both principal and interest in a certain number of years, usually about fourteen, but advances on private mortgage or repayable at the borrower's convenience are becoming more frequent every year. In fact, the almost limitless adaptability of the building society system has only been appreciated of late years, and every decade sees changes and improvements in it. Under the new legislation the societies may look forward to a still more prosperous future. Unfortunately the bad draughtsmanship of the acts has led to much litigation. The practical points raised have been chiefly as to the right of withdrawal on one month's notice by 'unadvanced' members—i.e. members to whom no advance has been made; the liability of borrowing members, who share in profits, also to share in losses; the rights attaching to 'matured' shares—i.e. fully paid up; the jurisdiction of courts of law, whether effectually excluded by the arbitration clause in the rules. The Starr-Bowkett Society is one form of the terminable building society. In the original Bowkett Society the subscriber lends the society a small sum annually for a very long time, say 31 years, and the society lends him a large sum for a short time, nominally without interest. In the Starr form, after a member has repaid money lent to him on

property, he has to pay an increased subscription, so as to make the society terminate sooner. The advantage of these societies depends on whether the member gets his loan early or late.

In the United States, especially in and near Philadelphia, the number of building associations, as they are usually called, is very great, there being many thousands in all. The usual periodical instalment paid for shares of stock is one dollar per share each month. The funds are lent to borrowing members, a premium for the privilege being paid by such members in addition to interest. Small fines for non-payment of dues are sometimes exacted. Experience shows that in well-managed associations, the returns for money paid in is considerably in excess of simple interest.

See the four reports of Royal Commission on Building Societies from 1871 to 1874, with the local reports of assistant-commissioners; annual reports of the Registrar of Friendly Societies, Monthly Gazette of the Building Societies, and works by Davis, Wrigley, Scratchley and Brabrooke, Starr, &c.

Building Stone. No artificial building material such as brick, terra-cotta, or cement can give dignity and beauty to an edifice in anything like the same degree as an ordinary limestone or sandstone which can be cut by a chisel. Much less can burnt clay or artificial stone, no matter how much it is enriched by ornament and colour, approach marble, granite, or porphyry, in giving a noble character to an architectural monument.

By far the most common kinds of building stone are sandstones and limestones. The term freestone is applied indifferently to such examples of both kinds as dress freely with masons' tools. Both are bedded on sedimentary rocks, and both as a rule, when cut up into blocks for building, should be laid on their natural beds. In the northern part of Great Britain the name whinstone is always given by workmen to such igneous rocks as Basalt and Diabase (q.v.); but this name is also applied by them to a sandstone, for example, which has been locally much hardened, as well as to a metamorphosed sedimentary rock such as graywacke.

Sandstone.—Rock of this kind suitable for building is found plentifully in some parts of England, but principally in the central and northern counties, though it also occurs in Devonshire and Monmouthshire. Among numerous quarries it will suffice to name Darley Dale and Bakewell Edge in Derbyshire, Longridge Fell in Lancashire, Viney Hill in Gloucestershire, Bidston Hill in Cheshire, Addingly in Yorkshire, and Hadley in Worcestershire. There are several well-known quarries about Newcastle-on-Tyne, and sandstone of a pleasing red colour occurs at Penrith and other places in Cumberland. These English sandstones are obtained from the Devonian, the Carboniferous, the Permian, and the New Red Sandstone formations. It is from the 'millstone grit' division of the Carboniferous that the stone for many of the public buildings in Manchester, Bradford, and Leeds was obtained. So far as can be judged from the appearance of comparatively modern edifices, the stone stands the smoky atmosphere of these towns very well. Ancient buildings in England, however, do not on the whole show that any sandstone used in them resists decay for centuries. Durham and Chester cathedrals and numerous small churches furnish examples of this.

All the towns of any size in Scotland, except Aberdeen and one or two small places, such as Dalbeattie in Galloway, are built of sandstone. So are almost all the ancient buildings of any note. The stone is chiefly obtained from the Carboniferous and Old Red Sandstone formations, but the

Permian rocks of Cumberland being prolonged into the county of Dumfries, some fine red sandstone is got there from that formation. In Scotland, accordingly, there is ample means of judging of the durability of this building material, which is on the whole so suitable for architectural purposes. It is vexatious in the extreme to have to say that much of the beautiful carved work at Kirkwall, Holyrood, Melrose, Kelso, and Jedburgh is quite wasted by decay. The age of the oldest of these abbeys is but little more than 700 years. Many modern buildings likewise show that, even when believed to be carefully selected, this material is often not durable.

So far as is known, the sandstone from Craigleith Quarry, near Edinburgh, resists atmospheric agencies better than any other in Scotland, or perhaps in the British Islands. A great part of the New Town of Edinburgh has been built of it. More recently, Binny Quarry in Linlithgowshire, the stone from which stands next in quality to Craigleith, has supplied the material for the principal buildings erected in the Scottish metropolis; and to some extent also for buildings in Glasgow; but for some years, owing to the unfavourable state of the quarry, it has yielded only a trifling supply. The cost of working Craigleith is double that of any other Scottish sandstone that would do for a fine building, and consequently no architect has for many years ventured to use it. Binny stone can only be got with difficulty. There are, however, plenty more quarries all through the length and breadth of Scotland, except in the north-west. Strange to say, not one of them, especially in the central part of the country, can furnish a stone upon which an architect can rely as being certainly durable. Yet so strong is the desire to have ornament for merely present appearance, that large quantities of building stones are now being brought from great distances both to Glasgow and Edinburgh, simply because they are of fairly uniform colour and can be cheaply worked.

Sandstones, being composed of grains of quartz, are highly siliceous. Darley Dale contains 96 per cent., Craigleith 97 per cent., and Binny 92 per cent. of silica. Some, however, have not more than 80 per cent. of this substance. The other substances they contain are chiefly carbonate of lime, alumina, and oxide of iron. It is hardly possible to tell a good sandstone merely by chemical analysis. A hard non-porous stone is, of course, more likely to be lasting than one which is soft and porous. There are a number of ancient buildings on or near the banks of the Rhine, between Basel and Cologne, which show the durability of a sandstone in a northern climate better than any in Great Britain. In these it is of a hard nature. See SANDSTONE.

Limestone.—Marble and chalk are the purest limestones, but it will be convenient to notice first those more or less composite limestones which are sufficiently hard and strong for building, yet not highly crystalline like marble. One of the best-known kinds of English building stone is the dolomite, or magnesian limestone of the Permian formation, which ranges from Nottingham to Tyne-mouth. It is a double carbonate of lime and magnesia, containing a varying proportion of silica. At Mansfield in Nottinghamshire, the amount of silica is exceptionally high—viz. 50 per cent., while at Bolsover and Mansfield Woodhouse it is only 4 per cent. The Houses of Parliament are built of this dolomite, which unfortunately decays rapidly under the influence of the London atmosphere. Among ancient buildings, some parts of York Minster show its perishable nature. Yet in Conisborough Castle, built in the 12th century,

and in some country churches nearly as old, it has stood the effects of time very well.

The limestone of the oolitic formation, which extends from Dorsetshire into Yorkshire, is obtained for building purposes, for which it is extensively used, at several well-known quarries, such as those of the Isle of Portland, Bath, and Leekhampton Hill in Gloucestershire, Barnac in Northamptonshire, and Ancaster in Lincolnshire. The Bath stone contains 95 per cent. of carbonate of lime; and the Portland stone, which, though belonging to the same formation, is not of oolitic structure, contains the same percentage of that carbonate. The former has besides $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of carbonate of magnesia; the latter 1·2 per cent. of this substance, and the same amount of silica. Small quantities of alumina, iron, and water are present in both. Much of the oolitic limestone is easily cut with a saw when newly quarried, but it hardens on exposure, and is fairly durable. Like the dolomite above mentioned, it is very suitable for enriched as well as plain work, and is of a pleasing colour. Some ancient structures built of the oolitic limestone of their own neighbourhood are in a good state of preservation. Among these are Lincoln Cathedral, some churches at Oxford, and Wells Cathedral. There are others, however, which have not so well resisted decay. St Paul's Cathedral, London, is built of Portland stone. Kentish rag is an impure limestone, compact, heavy, non-absorptive, and difficult to dress. It is used in London chiefly for rubble work, and is very durable.

There are extensive deposits of limestone in England, Scotland, and Ireland, which are only fit for burning into lime, or at least are not suitable for the hewn work of buildings.

The fine limestone from Caen in Normandy is much used for internal architectural work in England, and to some extent even in America. It is a fine-grained, easily chiselled, beautiful material, of a creamy-yellow uniform colour. But in external work it is very liable to decay, especially in towns. In the middle ages it was employed for some cathedrals—that of Canterbury, for example—as well as for smaller churches in the south of England. Travertine is a peculiar kind of limestone believed to be formed by precipitation from water containing lime. It is somewhat cellular in structure, of a buff colour, and very durable in Italy, where, in Rome especially, it has been extensively employed for both ancient and modern buildings, among others the Colosseum and St Peter's. Nummulitic limestone is chiefly composed of beautiful fossils like coins or buttons of filigree work. Some of the Egyptian pyramids are built of this stone. See NUMMULITE.

Marble.—In the British Islands marble is only used for the decorative parts of buildings. White marble is found in Skye, Sutherland, and one or two other places in Scotland. It also occurs in a few localities in Ireland; but it is doubtful whether it would be profitable to work it in either country. Coloured marbles, some of which are handsome, are regularly quarried in Devonshire, and also in Derbyshire, where they contain shells, encrinites, and other fossils, which give them an attractive appearance when polished. Ireland is comparatively rich in coloured marbles. The wavy and mottled green serpentinous marble of Connemara is a very beautiful stone. Black marble is worked in Kilkenny and other counties, and a veined red marble in Cork. Italian and other foreign marbles are, however, more used in the United Kingdom than the native kinds. See MARBLE.

Serpentine.—This has a general resemblance to coloured marble, but it is of quite different com-

position, being a silicate of magnesia. Cornish serpentine is perhaps the most beautiful ornamental stone in the British Islands. It is principally used for internal decoration. Serpentine is found in Banffshire and in Shetland, but only pieces of limited size can be got. See SERPENTINE.

Granite.—In the granite districts of Great Britain, the stone is used for ordinary building purposes. Aberdeen, for example, is almost wholly built of this material. It is usually only hammer-dressed, but even with the rough face so imparted, it gives a building a good appearance. For decorative purposes it is polished. Peterhead and Ross of Mull are red granites, while the Aberdeen, Dalbeattie, and Creetown varieties are gray or bluish gray. Peterhead granite especially is a good deal used in London and other large towns in the British Islands for some of the more prominent features of buildings, and is also sent to America. The Cornish granites have been much employed for bridges over the Thames, and for docks and breakwaters. There are some good granites in Ireland. See GRANITE, and SYENITE.

United States.—Many excellent building stones are found in America. The quarries of Maine have been the chief source of the supply of granites; and of those from this state the Calais variety is red, and that from Spruce Head gray, both of these taking a fine polish. The granite from Hallowell, also in Maine, is remarkable, as its dressed surfaces are nearly as white as marble. New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and several other states contain granite. Sandstones constitute the most valuable group of building stones in the United States, as they have a wide distribution, have much diversity of tint and texture, and can be comparatively cheaply obtained. They are principally of triassic and carboniferous age. White marble has been quarried on a considerable scale for important public buildings. That from Lee, Massachusetts, which is strong and durable, was used in the construction of the Capitol at Washington, and for the city hall at Philadelphia. From Stockbridge, in the same state, the marble was got for the state-house at Boston and the city hall of New York. Tuckahoe marble, which is pure white, strong, and coarse-grained, has been employed for some of the finest buildings in New York. For St Patrick's Cathedral a pure white dolomite called 'snowflake marble,' from Pleasantville, New York, has been chiefly used. Rutland county, Vermont, is the great centre of the marble industry for purely decorative purposes. Numerous beautiful coloured marbles have been discovered in the United States during the last thirty years.

Bultenzorg, capital of a sub-residency in Java, 35 miles S. of Batavia by rail, stands in mountainous country, 880 feet above the sea, and has so fine a climate that it is becoming more and more a favourite summer resort of the Batavian merchants. The splendid country palace of the governor-general is here, and around it an extensive and famous botanic garden.

Bujalan'cé, a city of Andalusia, Spain, 25 miles E. of Cordova. It has an old Moorish castle, and manufactures of leather and woollen cloth. Pop. 9974.

Buklum Wood. See BRAZIL-WOOD, and SAPPAN-WOOD.

Bukkur, a fortified island of the Indus, in Sind, between the towns of Rohri and Sukkur. The fortress occupies almost the whole island, but has now no longer any military value; till 1876 it was used as a prison. Composed of limestone, it is 800 yards long and 300 broad, and rises 35 feet above the stream.

Bukowina ('beech-land'), a province in the extreme east of the Austro-Hungarian empire, surrounded by Galicia, Russia, Moldavia, and Hungary. Area, 4035 sq. m.; pop. (1869) 513,404; (1885) 610,335, of whom 42 per cent. are Ruthenians, 33 Moldavians, and 12 Jews, while 71 per cent. belong to the Greek Church. It is traversed by offsets of the Carpathians, culminating at 6077 feet; gives rise to many rivers flowing towards the Black Sea; and abounds in wood, along with considerable mineral riches. Large numbers of cattle are reared, and also excellent horses. The Bukowina, according to many Austrian historians, was wrested from Transylvania in 1482 by Moldavia; but it had long before formed an integral portion of the latter state, whose fortunes it shared till, in 1775, it was ceded by the Turks to Austria. For a time it was united to Galicia, but in 1849 was made a separate 'crown-land,' or province, and is officially still a duchy. Czernowitz is the capital.

Bulacan, a town of Luzon, Philippines, at the head of the bay of Manila, and 20 miles NW. of the city of that name. Pop. 10,000.

Bulak. See BOULAK.

Bulandshahr, a British district in the Meerut division, North-west Provinces of India, with an area of 1915 sq. m., lying between the Jumna and the Ganges. It forms a part of the Doab, and presents the aspect of a monotonous cultivated plain, with an average elevation of 650 feet above sea-level. The Ganges Canal passes through the district from north to south, and artificial irrigation has made many unpromising districts fruitful. More than one-fourth of the cultivated area is so supplied. Cereals, safflower, indigo, cotton, and wool are exported. The East India Railway passes through Bulandshahr, the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway crosses its south-east corner. There are twelve towns with a population of over 5000, of which the most important are: Khurja (27,190), Sikandarabad (16,479), and Bulandshahr or Baran. This last, the administrative headquarters, is a place of great antiquity, coins of Alexander the Great being still found here. Pop. of town (1881) 17,863; of district, 924,822.

Bulb. Our perennial herbs which die down during the winter have always accumulated during the summer some store of reserve material (starch and nitrogenous matters) which serves as capital upon which to draw for their new and rapid start in spring. This subterranean store may be deposited in roots (e.g. orchis), in an underground creeping stem (e.g. rhizome of iris or primrose), in definite portions of rhizome which are then called *tubers* (e.g. potato, Jerusalem artichoke), or in the lower portion of the main axis (*corm* of crocus), which thus assumes a bulbous form (see ROOT, RHIZOME, TUBER, CORM). The term bulb is, however, restricted by botanists to those cases in which the store is deposited in the swollen spindle-shaped base of a



Fig. 1.—Bulb of *Allium ursinum*:
a, side view; b, front view; c, section.

the leaf-bases, or in modifications of entire leaves. The incipient bulb is best seen in the common wood-garlic (*Allium ursinum*), in which the store is deposited in the swollen spindle-shaped base of a

foliage leaf (fig. 1). The first leaf of the following year's growth is not swollen, but almost completely insheathes the developing flower axis, the first foliage leaf of which again thickens as the bulb, and develops in its axil the bud of next year. From such a simple form transitions in all directions are easy: thus if we increase the number of leaves, and unite without greatly thickening their sheathing bases, we have the incipient bulb of the leek. Here the store is deposited along an indefinite extent of leaf-base, which the gardener accordingly artificially extends by hoeing up earth around the plant, and so arresting vegetation in the blanched portion, and giving us the succulent parenchymatous esculent which is so familiar in cookery. In the onion or hyacinth, however, the area of storage becomes clearly marked off, and in autumn the vegetative portion of the leaf dies away, leaving the successive leaf-bases overlapping each other around the

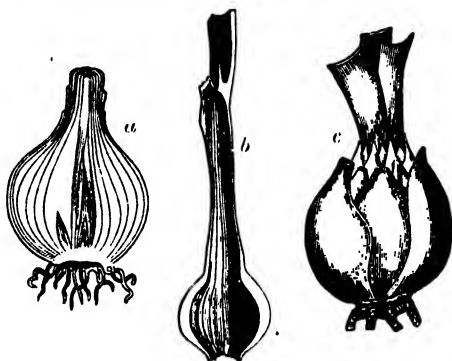


Fig. 2.

a, Tunicated bulb of onion; b, onion leaf dissected off; c, bulb of *Lilium candidum*, showing a reduction of leaves towards scaly bulb.

excessively shortened disc-like axis. This is the so-called tunicated bulb (fig. 2).

In almost all forms of this, one or more of the lowermost leaves of the axis cease to appear above ground; and in some cases (e.g. *Lilium candidum*) where the bulb is made up of more than one year's growth, it is composed of first the thickened leaf-bases of a previous year; next the short, thick, scaly leaves of the lower portion of the axis; and within this the swollen leaf-bases of the upper portion (fig. 2, c). This leads to the case presented by other lilies (e.g. *L. martagon* and *bulbiferum*) in which the foliage leaves are restricted to the upper portion of the axis, and the leaves of successive years forming the bulb are all subterranean and reduced to swollen overlapping scales. This is the so-called scaly bulb.

In some cases many new daughter-bulbs may develop in the axils of the leaves composing the parent bulb; such are the so-called cloves of garlic (*Allium sativum*). Tunicated bulbs are hence sometimes propagated by cutting across transversely; a series of axillary buds is thus compelled to arise. In *Lilium bulbiferum* the same principle appears, and in its simplest form; for the buds in the axils of the foliage leaves are developed as small bulbs (bulbils), and these readily fall off and take root. In other species (*A. Schenoprasum*, *A. fallax*), we find incipient cases of bud formation along a rhizome; and this becomes strongly marked in the common *Saxifraga granulata*, of which the crowded bulbs are not unfrequently mistaken for mere tuberous swellings along the roots, until dissection proves that we have to do with the bulbous buds of spreading rhizomes.

The use of the bulb to the plant, as affording at once a citadel of refuge during the severity of the winter of cold climates, or of the dry season of warmer ones, and a store of materials for a vigorous start in spring before the competition of other plants has become active, will be sufficiently obvious; and the importance of bulbous plants in such peculiar climates as that of Siberia or of the Cape of Good Hope is thus readily accounted for. The large nutritive store gives a proportional possibility of reproductive outlay, and the remarkable size and beauty as well as the earliness of flowering of most bulbous plants is thus explained. For all these reasons, as well as the ease of their cultivation, preservation, and transport, they have always been greatly valued by the florist; their nutritive store in some cases makes them valuable and savoury articles of food; while others—such as that of Squills (*Scilla*, q.v.)—contain also products of vegetable waste, which have turned out to be of medicinal importance.

Bulbul, a Turkish name (used also in Persian) for the nightingale, which has found its way into English poetry through Moore's and Byron's patronage. But the same name is given in India to a very different bird, *Pycnonotus haemorrhous*, usually ranked among the babbling thrushes (Timelinas). It is a little bird of brilliant plumage, and the male has a crest or tuft on its head. It is remarkable for its pugnacity; the Singhalese consider it the most *game* of all birds. Its powers of song have also earned for it the name of 'Ceylon nightingale.' The name bulbul is also applied to related forms like the Bristle-necked Bulbuls (*Crimiger*) in Western Africa, India, &c., and the Red-whiskered Bulbul (*Otocampus jacobus*) of India and Burma.

Bulgaria, a principality in the Balkan Peninsula (q.v.), lying between the Danube and the Balkans, was created by the Treaty of Berlin, 13th July 1878. The area of Bulgaria is 24,699 sq. m.; that of Eastern Roumelia, 13,861—together nearly equal to two-thirds of the area of England (without Wales). The north of Bulgaria is fertile plain and hilly country; the south is wooded and mountainous. A fine waterway as her northern boundary and an outlet to the Black Sea, a seaboard, a mild climate, a purely agricultural country capable of great development and of maintaining five times the present population, free institutions and about the most liberal constitution in Europe, a peasantry possessing the solid qualities and persevering industry of northern races—with these elements for her economic development her right to a national existence cannot be disputed.

The census taken in 1881 showed a population of 2,007,919, of whom 70 per cent. were Greek-Orthodox, 28.79 per cent. Mohammedan, and 0.72 per cent. professed the Jewish faith. Since 1850, zealous efforts by American missionaries have forwarded education, but made few converts. The 'Robert College' at Constantinople has educated many Bulgarians in English and American political ideas. Grouped according to language, 67 per cent. were Bulgarians, 26.26 per cent. Turks, 2.44 per cent. Wallachians, 1.87 per cent. Tsigans (Gypsies), and the remainder chiefly Greeks, Jews, and Tartars. Sofia (q.v.) is the capital; the other principal towns being Varna, Shumla, Rusteluk, Widin, Razgrad, Siskova, Tirnova, and Plevna. The populations in the towns have greatly diminished since the Russo-Turkish war, owing to the emigration of the Mussulmans (chiefly to Asia Minor) in order to avoid military service; and the same may be said of Eastern Roumelia. It has been stated that 200,000 Mussulmans have thus emigrated from Bulgaria alone. Farther westwards the emigration has been more pronounced. For example, Widin, which

before the war had 30,000 inhabitants, in 1881 had only 13,714. Their departure has been a gain to the native populations, for their lands have been sold at a nominal price to the peasantry, and the commercial traffic (chiefly with Austria) has nearly doubled in value.

EASTERN ROUMELIA—now incorporated with Bulgaria—is, in many respects, in advance of the sister-country; it has much longer been open to European influences, connected as it is with Constantinople and the south by the valley of the Maritza. Eastern Roumelia obtained administrative autonomy by the Treaty of Berlin.

The physical aspects of the country are very varied, the surface in the west being broken up by the offshoots of the Albanian ranges, and in the north and north-east by the Balkans and their spurs. According to the latest statistical returns, 1,663,000 acres of land were under tillage. The principal exports are cereals, and the imports livestock; but there are important woollen manufactures, and the growth of the vine and tobacco receives considerable attention. One of the most thriving branches of native industry is the production of attar of roses; in the sheltered villages south of the Balkans its value in 1885 was £440,000, and the industry has since been developed in other districts. The census of 1885 gives the total population of the province at 975,030, composed of the following: Christian Bulgarians, 681,734; Turks and Moslem Bulgarians, 200,498; Greeks, 53,028; Gypsies, 27,190; Jews, 6982; Armenians, 1805; foreigners, 3733. These figures show the preponderating numbers of the Bulgarians. Philippopolis (q.v.) is the capital.

In the first two years of the autonomy, the nationalities, as might have been expected, were in constant conflict, but the Bulgarians had no difficulty in obtaining the upper hand. Both parties of the government equally desired the union of the two Bulgarias; but it was the Unionists (Nationalists) who, in the summer of 1884, organised the petition for incorporation with the principality.

The Bulgarians in general are of smaller stature than their neighbours, the Servians; but they are powerfully built, and carry a firm head on their shoulders. The physique is distinctly different from that of pure Slavs; the features show some traces of the original. Without possessing the vivacity of the Roumanian, or the *esprit* of the Servian, the Bulgarian has no less a share of intelligence. The typical Bulgarian is a peaceful peasant, laborious and sensible, a good husband and a good father, loving the comforts of home, and practising the domestic virtues. Education has been very zealously and steadily promoted. There were only a few private schools in 1878; in 1881 there were 1365 public schools, and 1760 teachers.

The Bulgarians extend far beyond the boundaries of the two Bulgarian states. In a great part of Macedonia they constitute the bulk of the people; in Bessarabia they are numerous; and in the Banat they number some 26,000, all Catholics. The Bulgarian authorities state the total number of Bulgarians at six or even seven millions; most others compute them to amount to about five millions. They are very numerous in Constantinople.

Bulgaria possesses one of the freest and most democratic constitutions in Europe, which, like that of Eastern Roumelia, seems to be modelled on the lines of the Belgian constitution, except that there is no second chamber, and election of the *Sobranje* or National Assembly is by universal suffrage. The monarchy is 'hereditary,' and under the sovereignty of the Porte. Military service is obligatory. The army of Bulgaria (with Eastern Roumelia) contained in 1888 about 29,000 men on a

peace footing, while the war strength is 100,000. The fleet comprises 3 ships of war, 10 armed gun-sloops, and some other small craft. The budget of 1888 showed a revenue of £2,150,000, and an expenditure of £2,760,000.

History.—The country now known as Bulgaria was originally inhabited by Thracians, and under the Romans formed the province of *Mœsia*. Wasted by Goths and Huns, it was afterwards overrun and occupied by the Slavonic Slovenians. The Bulgars were originally an Ural-Altaic people. Coming from the banks of the Volga (where Bolgary was their capital), they first crossed the Danube in the 6th century, and occupied the eastern portion of the peninsula. Though probably fewer in number, they rapidly subjected their Slav predecessors, adopted their language and customs, and, at once absorbing and being absorbed, became a great Slav power. In 864 their prince, Boris, was baptised, and the Bulgarians became dependent on the patriarchate of Constantinople. During the 9th and 10th centuries the Bulgarians were victorious in their wars against the Magyars in the north and the Greeks in the south, and had reached the height of their power. Their prince, Simeon, assumed the title of 'Autocrat or Czar of all the Bulgarians and of the Greeks.' They dominated the greater part of the peninsula, including Macedonia, Thessaly, Epirus, and Albania. The Bulgarian archbishop was made an independent patriarch, and the Serbs and even the Byzantines paid Simeon tribute. It is interesting to note in reference to the Bulgarian ascendancy that, already in 976, their czar, Shishman, whose power ranged over the whole peninsula, conceived the idea of a state founded on the unity of race, and caused himself to be styled 'Emperor of the Slavs.' In 963 the western part of Bulgaria broke loose from the eastern to form a new kingdom, and so weakened the Bulgarians in their constant rivalry with the Byzantine emperors. The bloody wars continued; in the end of the 10th century part of Eastern Bulgaria was incorporated with the Byzantine empire, and in 1018 the western Bulgarian kingdom became a Byzantine province. A third Bulgarian kingdom was formed in 1186 by a successful rebellion, and maintained itself against the emperors of Constantinople until the arrival of the Osmanli Turks. The Greeks, who feared and hated them, attributed such shameful vices to their persistent enemies, that the name of Bulgarian came in most European tongues to be the most odious of epithets. (For the Bogomili puritanism of the 12th century, see BOGOMILI.) In 1356 Bulgaria and her ally, Servia, pressed to the walls of Constantinople, and only failed in the establishment of a great Slav state by reason of the defectiveness of their administrative organisation. The Servians finally succumbed at the decisive battle of Kossovo in 1389, and Tirnova, the Bulgarian capital, was taken four years later by the son of Bajazet. From that time the Ottoman power commenced to dominate. Bulgaria, under the influence of Byzantium and of Christianity, had attained in the middle ages a degree of civilisation equal to that of western nations; but the invasions, first of the Tartars, and subsequently of the Osmanli, entirely destroyed it, and the ancient warlike character of the race seemed to have been lost for ever, though rebellions took place from time to time. The first national awakening dates from the year 1762, when the monk Paisios, then at Mount Athos, wrote the national chronicles, and revived memories of ancient glory. A new national literature began; the first Bulgarian school was opened in 1835, and was followed by others. A newspaper appeared in

1844. The Crimean war stirred up Slavonic sympathies which Russia has sedulously and naturally cherished. In 1872 the Bulgarian Church and archbishop became again independent of the hated supremacy of the Greek patriarch.

During the troubles in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1875, excitement in Bulgaria began, but two or three ill-organised local risings in 1876 were swiftly suppressed by Turkish troops. The unconcealed aspirations of the Christians provoked the suspicions and fears of the Moslems, and the Turkish inhabitants of Bulgaria rose against their unarmed Christian neighbours, assisted by the notorious Bashi-Bazouks, or irregular troops. In the provinces of Philippopolis and Tirnova fifty-eight villages had by June 1876 been destroyed, and twelve thousand men, women, and children cruelly slain. The 'Bulgarian atrocities' awakened horror throughout Europe, especially in England; and a conference at Constantinople proposed to the Porte the organisation of two autonomous provinces. The Porte refused to make concessions. Russia, in its assumed capacity as guardian of the Slav races of Turkey, declared war (1877). By the treaty of San Stefano, the victorious Russians (March 1878) proposed to constitute a Bulgarian state within the limits of the old kingdom, extending from the Danube across Macedonia to the Aegean. But the dissatisfaction of Austria and Britain with the proposed arrangement led to the Berlin Congress; and the Berlin treaty (13th July 1878) constituted an autonomous, though tributary, Bulgaria north of the Balkans, whilst to the mainly Bulgarian province south of them, that of Eastern Roumelia (q.v.), it granted administrative autonomy. The prince of Bulgaria, freely elected by the people, must be confirmed by the Porte with the assent of the Powers. The first choice of the Bulgarians was Prince Alexander of Battenberg, a cousin of the Grand-duke of Hesse, who in 1879 became Alexander I. of Bulgaria. In the autumn of 1885, the outbreak of a revolution in Eastern Roumelia, and Prince Alexander's acceptance of its union to Bulgaria, provoked the jealousy of Servia; and on 14th November King Milan invaded Bulgaria, anticipating an easy march to Sofia. In the fourteen days' war which ensued, the Bulgarians suffered temporary defeat, till, by his gallantry and generalship at Slivnitsa, Prince Alexander turned the tide of fortune, and, driving the Servians back through the Dragoman Pass, entered Servian territory at the head of 50,000 men, and captured Pirot. In March 1886 peace was concluded between Servia and Bulgaria; and Prince Alexander was ultimately recognised by the Porte as governor-general of Eastern Roumelia. The prince, originally regarded as too Russian in his sympathies, had become the centre of Bulgarian national aspirations, and the darling of the people. At the same time he fell more and more into disfavour with Russia and the czar. In the summer of 1886 he was kidnapped by Russian partisans and carried into Russia. Returning immediately, he received an enthusiastic reception; but owing to the hostility of Russia, he felt himself compelled to abdicate. A provisional government was formed, and firmly maintained the national cause in defiance of very strong Russian pressure. In the summer of 1887 Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, against the will of the great Powers (especially of Russia), accepted an invitation by the regency to fill the vacant throne.

Language and Literature.—The original Bulgarian was of course an Ural-Altaic or Ugrian language, but it has left only a few traces in the Slavonic speech adopted by the Bulgarians who settled in the Balkan Peninsula. The old Bulgarian Slavonic tongue is closely allied to the

great Russian, but some Servian, Greek, Romanic, Albanian, and Turkish elements have found their way into the language. The literature in the old palmy days consisted chiefly of translations from the Greek, and theological works. The modern literature (since 1762) is chiefly educational and popular and political. The poems of Slaviukov, the novels of Karavelov, the historical works of Drinov, deserve mention; there is also a rich lyrical popular poetry. The Cyrillic alphabet is that ordinarily used, as in Russian—namely, that modified out of the Greek by Cyril (q.v.). See Dozov, *Chansons Bulgares* (1875); Rosen, *Bulgarische Volksdichtung* (1879); the grammar and dictionary (Bulgarian-English) by Morse and Vasilief (Constant. 1859-60); and for an article on the literature, the *Westminster Review* for 1878. On *Bulgaria*, see the history by Jirecek (Prague, 1875; German trans. 1876); the German work of Kanitz (2d ed. 1880); Barkley's *Bulgaria before the War* (1877); Minchin, *Bulgaria since the War* (1880); Samuelson, *Bulgaria, Past and Present* (1888); and the works quoted at BALKAN PENINSULA.

Bulgarin. FADDEÏ VENEDIKTOVICH, Russian author and journalist, born in Minsk in 1789, served in the Russian army, but finding himself neglected, in 1810 joined Napoleon. In 1819 he returned to St Petersburg, where his writings soon attracted notice by their intense satire and intense servility. In 1825 he started the *Ssévèrnaja Ptchela* ('Northern Bee'), a daily paper, which for long was alone permitted to discuss political questions. He was a privy-councillor at his death, 13th September 1859. A zealous supporter of reaction and of absolutism, he enjoyed, through relations with the secret police, an unlimited power, which he freely used to the detriment of opponents. He was a witty and versatile writer, and published travels, histories, novels, and statistical works, some of them of value. His *Memoirs* appeared in 6 vols. in 1846-50 (Ger. trans. Jenn, 1858-61).

Bulkheads. In a ship, are the partitions between the several portions of the interior, whether to separate it into compartments to suit the exigencies of stowage or loading, or as a safeguard against foundering (see BUOYANCY). Bulkheads are either *transverse*—i.e. running athwart the vessel—or *longitudinal*—i.e. in the direction of the vessel's length, and are usually made watertight, thus dividing the interior of the vessel into three, four, or more compartments, each of which is self-contained, and watertight in reference to its neighbours. Should any one of the compartments, through damage to the skin of the vessel, be laid open to the sea, its self-contained character prevents the water penetrating the other compartments, thus lessening the risk of foundering, if not altogether preventing it. In very many of the modern high-class mail and passenger steamships, the hull is subdivided to such an extent that if any two compartments be simultaneously laid open to the sea, the vessel still retains sufficient floating power. To a very large extent this degree of subdivision has been attained through the encouragement held out to shipowners by the Admiralty, that for ships so divided there is the likelihood of employment in time of war. The great majority of merchant steamers, however, are not yet so perfectly subdivided, objections being taken to the system by shipowners on the score of expense, of extra weight of hull, and of the alleged inconvenience in the working of cargo. The Merchant Shipping Act of 1854 provided for the fitting of a certain number of bulkheads in steamers, but the growth in ship dimensions soon rendered this inelastic provision utterly useless, if not mis-

chievous, and it was repealed in 1862. Lloyd's Registry for the classification of ships has virtually assumed the functions which the government and the Board of Trade then discarded, and the rules of this society provide for a degree of subdivision in steamships, which is on the whole satisfactory.

In sailing-ships there is almost an entire absence of bulkheads, the only one considered necessary being that nearest the bow, the intention being to provide against damage to the bow through collision, hence this bulkhead is generally known as the 'collision' bulkhead. In numberless instances the collision bulkhead has saved the vessel which struck another 'bow on;' but the common case is for the iron ship which is struck to founder, if her broadside is penetrated below water.

Since 1874-78 the practice of carrying water ballast (see BALLAST) in the bottom of merchant steamers, to secure the requisite stability when unloaded with cargo, has resulted in various types of double or cellular bottoms, which are of the greatest benefit in the event of damage to the vessel's outer skin. The presence of the inner and watertight bottom in such cases has not infrequently been the salvation of the vessel after grounding on rocks.

In ironclads such as the *Achilles* and the *Devastation*, which have inner bottoms, there are compartments to the number of about 105, each of which is watertight as regards its neighbours. In the torpedo-ram *Polyphemus* and other recent vessels the subdivision principle has been carried out to even a more elaborate extent.

Bull. The word is derived from the Lat. *bullo*, 'a bubble of water,' and then 'a round bull of any kind.' In the middle ages it came to signify the capsule of the seal appended to letters from emperors or popes, next it was used for the seal itself, and lastly for the document to which the seal was appended. Its use is now commonly restricted to papal documents issued with certain indispensable formalities.

These formalities have varied greatly from age to age, and we must content ourselves with an account of the modern practice down to December 1878, and of the changes made at that date by the reigning pontiff Leo XIII. Down to that time, a bull had a seal, usually of lead, occasionally of gold, attached to it. On one side was the official name of the pope (e.g. Gregory XVI., Pius IX.), on the other the heads of Peter and Paul, separated by a cross and surmounted by the letters SPE (i.e. 'Sanctus Petrus') and SPA (i.e. 'Sanctus Paulus') respectively. The seal was fastened by red or yellow silk, or by uncoloured hemp, according to the nature of the contents. Bulls were written on strong parchment and in the Latin tongue. They began with the words 'N. episcopus servus servorum Dei dilecto filio (or dilectis filiis, &c.), salutem et apostolicam benedictionem.' Sometimes in cases where permanent decisions were given or privileges of great moment conferred, the words 'In perpetuum,' or 'In aeternam rei memoriam,' were substituted for 'Salutem et apostolicam benedictionem.' Sometimes, also, when no special persons were addressed, 'In perpetuum,' &c., immediately follows the 'Servus servorum Dei.' Usually signatures are added below in testimony that the bull is authentic. Formerly it was common for the cardinals to sign; later on this was done by various members of the curia, specially by the protodatory, secretary of briefs, and vice-chancellor. The bull is dated according to the year of the incarnation, the year of the pontificate, and the day of the month after the old Roman reckoning. The character used from the reign of Adrian VI. to our own day is of that crabbed and indistinct kind known as 'litera S. Petri,' or in Italy as the 'carattere bollatico' or 'trentonico.' Finally,

the bull is expedited from the apostolic chancery in the Vatican.

By a *Motu proprio* of December 9, 1878, Leo XIII. ordained that the leaden seal in use for more than a thousand years should be employed henceforth only in case of bulls concerning collations, erections, and dismemberments of greater benefices (reserved to the pope), and other solemn acts of the holy see. In other bulls, 'especially those relating to ordinary benefices and marriage dispensations,' the old leaden seal is to be replaced by a red one stamped on the parchment itself, with the heads of St Peter and St Paul surrounded by the name of the reigning pope. The ordinary Latin current writing is henceforth to displace the Gothic character.

The divisions of bulls into different species—e.g. 'consistoriales,' issued after consultation in consistory; 'dimidiæ,' by a pope not yet crowned, &c.—possess little general interest. If we add to the words of Leo XIII., just quoted, bulls conveying doctrinal decisions, we have a correct idea of the objects for which bulls are published. It is a mistake to suppose that bulls are always, and of necessity, more important than briefs.

A *Bullarium* is a collection made without official authority of papal documents (not necessarily bulls in the strict sense) which have not found a place in the *Corpus Juris*. A bullarium may contain the acts of a particular pope, or may be limited to bulls relating to particular orders, churches, &c., or it may comprise bulls of all ages, and on all kinds of subjects, excluding only those already to be found in the *Corpus Juris*. The first bullarium appeared at Rome in 1586, edited by Cherubini. The most convenient is that published at Turin (24 vols. 1857-72).

Bull, a ludicrous blunder in speech implying some obvious absurdity or contradiction. The origin of the name is supposed to be due to the contrast in papal bulls between the assertion of excessive humility in the title, by which the pope styles himself 'servant of servants,' and his assumption of absolute supremacy and authority over the world. It is found with much the same sense as early as the 14th century in the *Cursor Mundi*. Bulls in their best form are usually alleged to be an especial prerogative of Irishmen—at least it is certain that the best examples have come from Ireland. Coleridge, remarking on the well-known bull, 'I was a fine child, but they changed me,' says: 'The bull consists in the bringing together two incompatible thoughts, with the sensation but without the sense of their connection.' Sydney Smith, whose authority is supreme in this region, says: 'A bull is an apparent congruity, and real incongruity of ideas, suddenly discovered.' It is 'the very reverse of wit; for as wit discovers real relations that are not apparent, bulls admit apparent relations that are not real.' See the *Essay on Irish Bulls* (1803) by Miss Edgeworth and her father.

Bull, GEORGE, D.D., divine, was born at Wells, Somersetshire, in 1634, and studied at Exeter College, Oxford, whence he retired in 1649, having refused to take the commonwealth oath. Ordained in 1655, he took the small parish of St George's, Bristol, and subsequently obtained the rectory of Siddington, Cirencester (1658), that of Avening, Stroud (1685), the archdeaconry of Llandaff (1686), and the bishopric of St Davids (1705). He died at Brecknock, 17th February 1710. His *Harmonia Apostolica* (1670), whose object was to reconcile the apostles Paul and James on the subject of justification, occasioned considerable controversy among divines, and, in answer, Bull published his *Ecumen Censura* and *Apologia pro Harmonia*. His greatest work, the *Defensio Fidei Nicenæ* (1685), was directed against

Arians and Socinians, Tritheists and Sabellians; for his *Judicium Ecclesiæ Catholicæ* (1694) the thanks of the whole French clergy were sent to him through the celebrated Bossuet. These are included in Dr Burton's edition of his works (8 vols. Oxford, 1827), to which is prefixed a Life by R. Nelson; and they are translated in the *Library of Anglo-Catholic Theology* (Oxford, 1842-55).

Bull, JOHN, a generic name for an Englishman as a personification of what is supposed to be the English type, from Arbuthnot's use of the name in his *History of John Bull* (1712; reprinted complete in Pope's 'Miscellanies' in 1728). The subject of that history is the 'Spanish Succession during the reigns of Queen Anne and Louis XIV.' Queen Anne is 'Mrs Bull'; 'John Bull's mother' is the Church of England; and 'John Bull's sister Peg' is the Scotch nation, represented as in love with Jack (*Calvin*). The description of Bull is so close to the familiar figure in the pages of *Punch* that a sentence or two must be quoted: 'Bull in the main was an honest plain-dealing fellow, choleric, bold, and of a very inconstant temper. He dreaded not old Lewis (Louis XIV.), either at back-sword, single falchion, or cudgel-play; but then he was very apt to quarrel with his best friends, especially if they pretended to govern him. If you flattered him, you might lead him as a child.'

Bull, JOHN, musician, born in Somersetshire about 1563, was appointed organist in the Queen's Chapel in 1591, first music lecturer at Gresham College in 1596, and organist to James I. in 1607. A Catholic, he fled beyond seas in 1613, and at Brussels entered the archduke's service; in 1617 he became organist of Antwerp Cathedral, and there he died, 12th March 1628. Little of his music has been printed. The claim advanced for him to the authorship of 'God save the King' (see NATIONAL HYMNS) is as unfounded as the impossible story of his adding, within a few hours, forty parts to a composition already written in forty parts; but from the extreme difficulty of his instrumental music, it would appear that his great reputation as an organist was deserved.

Bull, OLE BORNEMANN, a famous violinist, was born 5th February 1810, at Bergen, in Norway. His father's opposition only deepened his natural passion for music. In 1829 he went to study under Spohr at Cassel, but was so coldly received that he betook himself to Göttingen to study law. But music soon asserted its mastery over him, and an acquaintance with Paganini gave him the impulse that he needed. He accompanied his master to Paris, but here his fortune sunk so low that he thought of drowning himself in the Seine. The patronage of a lady of rank saved him, and soon he rose to fame as a violinist. His style of playing was in some respects like that of Paganini. He was received in Italy with prodigious enthusiasm, and after visiting England, Scotland, and Ireland, he made a tour of triumph through Russia, Germany, and Norway. In 1844 he sailed to America, whence he returned three years later. In 1855 he went out once more, and made enormous sums by his concerts, much of which he lost by unfortunate land speculations, especially an attempt to found a colony of Scandinavians in Pennsylvania. This turned out a complete fiasco, and once more Bull had to take to his violin. He afterwards paid a third visit to the United States, but returned to end his days in Europe. He died at his villa near Bergen, 17th August 1880. If it is not true that he was half charlatan, half genius, it may be said with truth that he was quite as much a bizarre virtuoso as a great artist. His compositions have had but little reputation apart from his own playing. See the *Memoir* by Sara C. Bull (1886).

Bulla, or **BUBBLE-SHELL**, a genus of Gasteropod Molluscs, formerly somewhat ambiguous, but now defined as one of the Tectibranchs or 'snails' with concealed posterior gills. In the family (Bullidae) to which the bubble-shell belongs, the shell is thin, often almost globular, with concealed spire and wide aperture. It serves to protect the gills, and less frequently the entire animal. In some cases it is quite covered



Bulla aperta.

by the mantle and foot lobes. In the closely allied Haminea, the shell is horny and elastic; in the Sea-hares (*Aplysia*) it is very rudimentary; in some of the likewise nearly related Philinidae it is entirely absent. The Bullidae are carnivorous, and limy plates in the gizzard aid in internal mastication. There are numerous fossil and living species, all marine, and some British. See GASTEROPODS.

Bulla, a metallic seal. See BULL, and SEAL.

Bullace (*Prunus insititia*), a shrub or small tree, larger and much less spiny than the sloe, but very closely allied to it, as it is also to the plum, so that many botanists regard them all as one species (see PLUM). The fruit is larger than the sloe, generally globose, and although it partakes in some degree both of the acidity and the roughness of the sloe, it is not unpleasant, especially after having been mellowed by frosts, and makes excellent pies or tarts. 'A bullace-pie is a standing dish at the harvest-home supper in the south of England, only it requireth rather more sugar than the housewife is always willing to allow.' The bullace is common in hedges, coppices, and banks in England, and in many parts of Europe, and is sparingly naturalised in the United States.

Bullace-plum, the Jamaican name of the pleasant fruits of *Melicocca bijuga*, a sapindaceous tree introduced from Guiana and New Granada.

Bulla, or **BLEBS**, are collections of serous fluid of considerable size, situated immediately beneath the cuticle, and raising it from the true skin. They differ from vesicles only in size; and no very definite line can be drawn between a large vesicle and a small bulla. They usually vary in diameter from a quarter of an inch to two inches. The most familiar examples are the 'blisters' produced on the hands by rowing, or the feet by walking. They are met with occasionally in many diseases of the skin—e.g. eczema, erysipelas, urticaria, scabies, &c.; but in pemphigus and in some forms of hydroa they constitute the chief feature of the disease.

Bull-baiting, a barbarous sport, once very popular in England, and in which all classes of society delighted equally. A number of dogs were set on to attack a bull; and in order that he might be made as furious as possible, his nose was sometimes blown full of beaten pepper before he was turned loose. Another form of the sport was to fasten the bull to a stake, by a rope of some yards' length, and to set bulldogs on him, one at a time, which were trained to seize him by the nose—which, when accomplished, was called *pinning* the bull. But no small part of the enjoyment of the spectators was derived from the success with which the attacks of the dogs were met by the bull lowering his head to the ground, and receiving them on his horns, often tossing them to a great distance. King James I. greatly delighted in this sport; and when the Czar Nicholas of Russia visited England, before his accession to the empire, a boxing-match and a bull-baiting were got up to show him English tastes. Bull-baiting was declared illegal in 1835.

An equally barbarous sport, termed *Bull-running*, was formerly practised at Stamford and Tutbury, where men and women took the place of dogs, maddened the bull with hideous noise, and then pursued it with 'bull-clubs,' till the wretched brute sank under the blows of its assailants.

Bulldog, a breed which is regarded as peculiarly English, the only country in which it has been kept pure. The bulldog disputes with the greyhound the honour of being the oldest known dog. The general appearance of the bulldog is that of a smooth-coated, compact dog, low in stature, but broad and powerful, with a massive head, large in proportion to its body, which is short and well knit. The bulldog should convey an impression of determination and strength, without unwieldiness. The following are its principal points: Head as large as possible, measuring over 20 inches in circumference in first-rate specimens;



Bulldog.

forehead flat, with the skin much wrinkled, with a groove or indentation called the 'stop' running up between the eyes; ears small and thin, folding over at the back, showing the inside; eyes round, black, and not bloodshot; the face very short, the nose being set almost between the eyes, allowing the dog to breathe while pinned on to the bull in the old days of bull-baiting; upper lip joining the lower, quite covering the teeth, which should not project; shoulders sloping back and muscular; body well ribbed up, with the belly tucked up; back short, narrow at the loins, the spine rising from the shoulders to the loins, and curving to the tail, forming an arch, a characteristic of the breed termed 'roach-back'; the tail short and smooth, with a slight twist which prevents it being raised high—an abortive or 'screw-tail,' though common, is not a good point; fore-legs straight boned, but carried wide apart, presenting a bowed appearance; action, a peculiar roll, the body swinging between the fore-legs; colour, brindle, white, or fawn; weight, about 50 lb. The bulldog was extensively used for Bull-baiting (q.v.), whence he derives his name. After



Bull-terrier.

the abolition of this pastime the breed was reduced to very small numbers, only kept by most disreputable patrons, until his good qualities as a companion began to be understood, since which time he has gradually become more popular. The bulldog shares with the gamecock the distinction of being the most fearless of animals, but in disposition is so lazy that he is slow to take offence, though he will fight to the death if attacked. The bulldog is a most devoted and faithful companion, his affection being mainly centred on one person.

The BULL-TERRIER was originally a cross between the bulldog and the terrier, but is now a distinct breed. He combines the courage of the bulldog with the activity of the terrier; from his quickness and sagacity he makes a good companion, though somewhat quarrelsome. Head long, with pointed muzzle; ears naturally large, but generally cut to a fine point, standing erect; body lightly ribbed but powerful; colour, pure white.

Buller, CHARLES, born in Calcutta in 1806, was educated partly at Harrow and at Cambridge, but during 1822-24 was Carlyle's pupil at Edinburgh. He was called to the English bar in 1831, and entering parliament before the Reform Bill, continued a member of the Lower House till his untimely death, 29th November 1848. In politics a philosophical Radical, he held several posts under Whig governments. The interest taken in his career, and his popularity, were due alike to his talents and to his amiability and accomplishments.

Bullet is the leaden projectile discharged from any kind of small-arm. Case-shot or canister and Shrapnel Shell (q.v.) are also filled with spherical bullets hardened by the addition of antimony to the lead. Formerly all bullets were spherical, and cast in moulds. Now all rifle-bullets are elongated. A machine unwinds a leaden rod of the proper thickness, cuts it into the required length, and stamps the bullets into shape by means of steel dies, dropping them into a box when finished. Each machine can turn out 7000 per hour, and one man can attend to four.

The only spherical bullet adapted to the rifle is a belted ball. The elongated forms are singularly numerous. Robins's bullet was egg-shaped, with the centre of gravity at the larger end; Beaufoy's was ovoid, with a hemispherical cavity at one end; Greener's was oval, with a plug of mixed metal driven into a hole barely large enough for it; Norton's, Delvigne's, and others were of various shapes, generally with some kind of plug, which, driven

This expanding or dilating action has been claimed by many inventors; but the government in 1857 awarded Mr Greener £1000, as the person who had practically solved the difficulty as far back as 1836. Its effect is to communicate a twist to the bullet, thus steadying it, and causing it to travel point first. This enables a heavier, because longer, projectile to be fired with accuracy from a smaller bore than was formerly used; thereby presenting less surface to the resistance of the air, and so increasing the range.

The plug in the Snider bullet is of baked clay, and the grooves or *canals* round it easily take the rifling. Its head is hollow, to lessen the weight while preserving the length. The Prussian bullet does not touch the grooves; the *sabot* takes them and communicates the twist to the bullet. The shoulders of the Chassepôt bullet and the slight taper in the Martini-Henry are for the same purpose. To avoid fouling the grooves, rifle-bullets are sometimes covered with steel, copper, or nickel. Bullets partially hollow, which expand in the wound, are sometimes used for shooting deer. Hollow-headed explosive bullets are only used for shooting big game, such as elephants and tigers. Their use in war is forbidden by the Convention of Geneva.

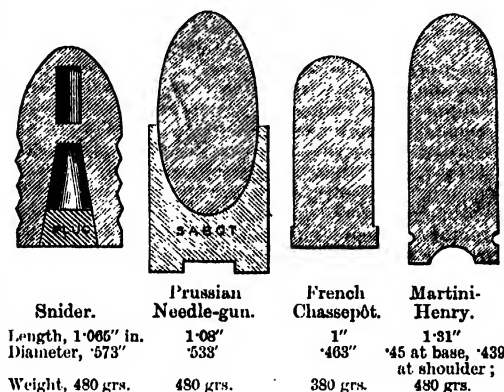
The diameter of rifle-bullets has been decreasing ever since their introduction. The new Enfield-Martini rifle, issued in 1888 to the troops of the British army, is designed to fire a bullet weighing 384 grains and only .402" in diameter, but resembling in other respects the Martini-Henry bullet; that of the new French military rifle of 1887 is only .314 inch calibre. That of revolvers is, of course, often still smaller; but those used in the British army have the .45" bore, and can take the Martini-Henry cartridge. See CARTRIDGE, RIFLE; and, for steel bullets, MACHINE GUNS. SHOT is treated in a separate article.

Bulletin, an authenticated report, is a diminutive of Bull (q.v.).

Bullet-tree, or BULLY-TREE (*Mimusops balata*), a sapotaceous tree found in Guiana, and valued for its wood, which is solid, heavy, close-grained, and durable, and also for its delicious cherry-like fruit. It yields balata-gum, a valuable substitute for india-rubber. The name is somewhat vaguely shared with other fruit-bearing congeners. Thus *Bumelia retusa* is the Bastard Bully-tree, and *B. ingens* the Black Bully-tree, while *Lucuma mammosa*, of which the fruit is called the marmalade, is sometimes called Jamaica Bully-tree.

Bull-fight. Combats of men with bulls for the entertainment of the public were common in Greece, particularly in Thessaly, and in Rome under the emperors, though in later times they were forbidden both by emperors and popes. They are still a favourite spectacle in Spain and Mexico, where, indeed, the *corrida de toros* is the national pastime. In Spain they were abolished by Charles IV.; but Joseph, Napoleon's brother, re-established them out of policy, the mass of the Spanish population being passionately fond of the sport. The most magnificent bull-fights were at one time instituted by the monarchs themselves; at present, both in the capital and in the larger towns of Spain, they are held either as private speculations or for the benefit of public institutions. So also in the city of Mexico, where in the season of 1887 nearly £70,000 was spent in fitting up the six rings in which bull-fights are held. In Madrid the bull-fighting season commences in April and lasts until November. During that time there is at least one Sunday or Saint's-day afternoon in every week devoted to the sport. The proceeds go to the funds of the public hospital. The

MODERN RIFLE-BULLETS.



into the lead by the force of the explosion, caused it to expand and take the grooves in the barrel.

fights take place in a kind of circus, called the *Plaza de Toros*, round which the seats rise one above another, like the steps of a stair, with a tier of boxes over them. The *Plaza* is capable of containing from 10,000 to 15,000 people, who pay a high price of admission, considering the rate of wages in Spain; and all go attired in their best to the spectacle. The Castilian bulls, usually chosen for fight in Madrid, are fiercer and more active, but inferior in strength to British animals. The horses engaged in the conflicts are worthless brutes, fit only for the knacker. The men employed in the fight are generally those who have been bred to it as a profession; but occasionally amateurs may take part in it.

The bull-fight has been described as a tragedy in three acts. The principal performers in the first are the *picadores*; in the second, the *chulos* are the only actors; the third and last act devolves solely on the *espada*. The *picadores* are all mounted, dressed like Spanish knights of the olden time, and armed with a lance; they take up their position in the middle of the circus, opposite the bull-stalls. The *chulos*, who are on foot, are gay with ribbons, and wear very bright-coloured cloaks; they distribute themselves in the space between the barriers. The *espada* or swordsman is also on foot. He is handsomely dressed, and holds in the right hand a naked sword, in the left the *muleta*, a small stick, with a piece of scarlet-coloured silk attached. On a sign given by the president of the sport, a bull is let out from the stalls; the *picadores* stand ready in the arena waiting his charge. With a brave bull, they find all their skill requisite in acting on the defensive; with a cowardly one, they act on the offensive; and should their stabs be ineffectual in rousing the animal to the requisite fury, the poor beast is hooted by the crowd, and ultimately stabbed ingloriously in the spine. Whenever a horse is wounded, the rider betakes himself to flight; and when either the above casualty happens, or a *picador* is thrown, the *chulos* rush in, and attract the bull by their cloaks, saving themselves, if need be, by leaping over the barrier which incloses the circus. At the same time, another *picador* calls off the bull's attention to himself by shouting. When the bull begins to flag, the *picadores* are succeeded by the *chulos*, who bring with them the *banderillas*—i.e. barbed darts about two feet long, ornamented with coloured paper-flags, which they stick into the neck of the animal. Sometimes these darts have crackers attached to them, the explosion of which makes the bull furious. The *espada* now enters alone to complete the tragic business. As soon as the bull's eye catches the *muleta*, he generally rushes blindly at it; and then the *espada*, if well skilled, dexterously plunges the sword between the shoulder-blade and spine, up to the very hilt, and the animal drops dead at his feet. A splendid team of mules then enter, glittering with flags and tinkling with bells, who drag off the slain at a gallop. The victorious matador is greeted with acclamations, and not less so the bull, should he wound or even kill his antagonist, in which case another matador steps forth into the arena; but human life is rarely sacrificed. From six to ten bulls are usually despatched in a single day, twenty minutes being about the time usually taken to slay one. It has been computed that about 2500 bulls and 3500 horses are annually killed in Spanish bull-fights.

Every large town in Spain possesses a *Plaza de Toros*, and so do many towns in Spanish America; those of Madrid, Seville, and Caceres are especially handsome. Bull-fighters personally are esteemed much as prize-fighters are in England; but they are the idols of the lower classes, from whose ranks they are drawn. Formerly, those

who were killed on the spot, and died without confession, were denied burial rites; but a clergyman is now in attendance with the consecrated host, in case of accident.

Bullfinch (*Pyrrhula rubricilla* or *vulgaris*), a bird of the great finch family Fringillidae (q.v.), a little larger than the common linnet, and of a genus closely allied to the grosbeaks and crossbills. The genus is particularly characterised by the short, thick, rounded bill, of which the sides are inflated and bulging, and the tip of the upper jaw overhangs that of the lower one. The plumage is very soft and dense. The crown of the head, the long wing-feathers, and the tail are shining black. The back of the male is ashy gray, that of the female brownish gray. The under surface of the male is a bright tile-red, that of the female bluish gray. There is a conspicuous white bar across the wing. The tail of the bullfinch is almost even.



Bullfinch.

This bird is not infrequent in England, Ireland, and the south of Scotland; and is found in most parts of Europe, from the south of Norway to the Mediterranean, extending eastward throughout Asia, even to Japan. It frequents woods and gardens, and builds its nest in trees or bushes a few feet from the ground. The nest is loose, made of dry twigs and fibrous roots. The eggs are four in number, bluish or purplish white, spotted and streaked with purplish gray and reddish brown. It feeds chiefly on seeds and berries in winter, and in spring is excessively destructive to the buds of fruit-trees in those localities in which it is abundant, selecting the flower-buds, and apparently finding them the most palatable of all food. Selby says: 'I have known a pair of these birds to strip a considerable sized plum-tree of every bud in the space of two days.' On this account gardeners are sometimes compelled to wage war against the bullfinch. He is also deliberately adjudged to be the farmer's enemy by impartial judges (see Wood's *Farmer's Friends and Foes*, 1888).

The song of this bird, in a wild state, is very simple, but it is remarkably susceptible of improvement by education. Some trained bullfinches can whistle an air very accurately, and with a power and variety of intonation far exceeding their natural song. The ability to whistle several airs well is rare. The training of these birds is a work both of time and trouble: it is chiefly carried on in Germany. Not less than nine months of training are requisite: it begins when the bird is a mere nestling, and must be carefully continued till after the first moulting; for it is a curious circumstance, that all which has been previously acquired is very apt to be lost at that time, or is afterwards so

imperfectly remembered that the bird is of little value. The bullfinch is capable of very strong attachment to those who feed and caress it, and often becomes so thoroughly domesticated as to exhibit no desire for liberty (see CAGE-BIRDS).—Curious variations of plumage are sometimes observed in it.—Other species of the genus *Pyrrhula* are known, natives of different parts of the world; and in this genus some ornithologists include *Corythus* of Cuvier, of which one species, the Pine-finch or Pine Grosbeak, is a native of Britain. The canary (*Serinus canarius*) is closely allied.

Bull-frog (*Rana mugiens*), a species of Frog (q.v.) found in most parts of the United States and Canada, but chiefly abundant in the southern states. It is of a large size, 8 to 12 inches long. The colour is olive green or reddish brown, with large brown or black spots, and with a yellow line along the back. The under surface is yellowish. It receives its name from the remarkable loudness of its voice, heard as a hollow bass in the frog concerts which take place in the evening and all night long in marshy places in America. Its voice can be distinctly heard at a distance of forty or fifty yards. It sits for hours during the day, basking in the sun, near the margin of a stream, into which it plunges with a great leap on the least appearance of danger. It does not confine itself to insects and worms like smaller frogs, but eats fish and other frogs, and is said to be partial to young ducks, and to swallow them entire. Audubon says 'its flesh is tender, white, and affords excellent eating,' the hind-legs, however, being the only part used. He adds that these parts make excellent bait for the larger cat-fish, and that he generally used the gun for procuring bull-frogs, loading with very small shot.

Bullhead, or MILLER'S THUMB (*Cottus gobio*), a small fish in the Acanthopterygii subdivision, abundant in clear rivers and streams, in some parts of the British Islands, throughout the greater part of Europe, and in the north of Asia. It seldom exceeds 3 or 4 inches in length. The colour varies somewhat with the activity of the fish, but is brown on the upper parts, and white beneath.



Bullhead.

The fins are rather large, prettily spotted, and with rays slightly produced into spines. The general appearance is not unlike that of the Gurnards (q.v.). The smoothness of the slippery skin, and the quaint depressed head, have suggested its names, that of miller's thumb referring to the flatness caused by the miller's perpetually rubbing flour between finger and thumb. The bullhead eats all sorts of little animals and the spawn of rival genera. Its own is buried in a hole, which the female makes with her tail, and over the cradle the male watches. Its flesh is delicate, and, when boiled, is reddish, like that of the salmon.—The other British species of the genus *Cottus* (q.v.) are marine. The Sea-scorpion (*C. scorpio*), or Father Lasher, is a common form which sometimes ascends rivers. The name bull-head is not usually given to any of them. A

sea-fish of a nearly allied genus (*Aspidophorus*) is sometimes called the Armed Bullhead; it is also known as the Pogge (q.v.).

Bullinger, HEINRICH, a Swiss Reformer, was born at Bremgarten, in the canton of Aargau, July 18, 1504. The son of a priest, who later embraced the reformed doctrine and married the mother of his five sons, he became acquainted with the writings of Luther during his studies at Cologne; next he attended the theological expositions of Zwingli at Kappel, and accompanied his master to the religious conference held at Bern in 1528, which resulted in the reformation of the canton. In 1529 he married a former nun, and two years later became pastor of the principal church at Zurich, and Zwingli's successor as leader of the reformed party in its struggle with the Catholics, as well as with the Zealots and the Lutherans. He took a principal part in drawing up the first Helvetic Confession at Basel in 1536, and aided by his counsel the struggling church both in France and England. He died September 17, 1575. Part of the story of his life he wrote himself in his *Diarium*. His history of the Reformation was edited by Hottinger and Vögel (3 vols. 1838-40). See the Lives by Pestalozzi (1858) and Christoffel (1875).

Bullion usually means uncoined gold and silver in bars or other masses, though occasionally it is used as practically synonymous with the precious metals, coined and uncoined. The origin of the word bullion in its present sense, as well as that of the French *Billon* (q.v.), and the corresponding Spanish *rellon*, seems to be as follows: Bullion originally meant the mint, where the alloy for the coinage was prepared and the coin stamped (either from the Lat. *bullia*, a round boss or stud, or stamp; or from the verb *bullare*, to boil or bubble); and hence it came in England to signify the standard metal of which the coins are made. In France, where the kings debased the currency much more than ever took place in England, *billon*, the mint, came to signify the base mixture issued therefrom.

It is difficult to obtain trustworthy statistics regarding the production and consumption of the precious metals even at the present time, and still more so at remote periods. For ancient and mediæval times the reader may consult Jacob's *Historical Inquiry into the Production and Consumption of the Precious Metals*, published 1831, which was long regarded as the standard work on the whole subject. Recently, however, Dr Adolph Soetboer has made much more thorough investigations for the period 1493-1885, and his *Materials for the Study of the Precious Metals* is now the work most generally relied upon.

As regards the production of the precious metals, two great revolutions are to be observed in the 16th and 19th centuries. Between 1493-1520 the total production of gold and silver was in the proportion of about 57 per cent. of gold to 43 per cent. of silver (the value being reckoned at the actual value of the time), whilst between 1581-1600 the proportion became (in value) 17·2 gold to 82·8 silver. This change was principally due to the discovery of the silver mines of Potosi (1545). Between 1831-40 the production (in value) was 34·9 gold to 65·1 silver, and for the period 1851-55 the proportion had become 77·6 gold to 22·4 silver. This change was caused by the discovery of the great gold mines in Australia and California. The magnitude of these discoveries may be estimated from the fact that between 1493-1850 (358 years) the total production of gold is given at 4,752,070 kilograms, whilst between 1851-85 (35 years) it is given at 6,383,388 kilograms. The value of a kilogram of gold is £130, 10s. Since 1855 the relative

production of gold to silver has gradually declined, the figures for 1881-85 being 49.3 gold to 50.7 silver. The total production of gold (in value) was (1493-1850) about £663,000,000, and from 1851-85 about £890,000,000; the total production of silver (estimated at its actual gold value at different times) was (1493-1850) about £1,472,000,000, and from 1851-85 about £480,000,000.

The most remarkable circumstance in these changes in the relative amounts of gold and silver produced is the slight effect on the ratio between gold and silver. Before the discovery of the rich silver mines of Potosi the ratio was (1521-40) about 11½:1, and from 1601-20 it was only 12½:1. Again, just before the great gold discoveries in this century (1841-50) the ratio was 15.83:1, and between 1851-55, in spite of the enormous increase in gold, it fell only to 15.41:1. See Bimetallism.

The production of the precious metals must of course be compared with their consumption or use. The principal uses are for coinage, including keeping up the coins to their full weight, for the arts, and for hoards. The statistics are largely conjectural, and are given by Dr Soetboer with due reserve. The most interesting conclusion is the large increase in the use of gold for the arts and for exportation to the East, more than five-sixths of the annual supply being used for these purposes.

Bullock's Heart. See CUSTARD APPLE.

Bull-roarer, a provincial English name for a boy's plaything, made of a piece of wood about 8 inches long and 3 broad, sharpened somewhat at the ends, to one end of which a string 30 inches or so in length is tied, then twisted tightly round the finger, when the whole is whirled rapidly round and round until a loud and peculiar whizzing noise is produced. An instrument of the same kind, called *turndun*, is still used by the native Australians to produce a sound warning off intruders during several religious mysteries; and Mr Andrew Lang has not only collected evidence of its similar use in New Mexico, New Zealand, and South Africa, but identifies it with the *rhombos* used in the ancient Greek mysteries, itself an unconscious survival of more ancient and more savage mysteries. See 'The Bull-roarer,' in Lang's *Custom and Myth* (1884).

Bull Run, a small stream separating Fairfax and Prince William counties in Virginia, about 25 miles W. by S. of Washington, and giving its name to a famous American battlefield, where two battles were fought during the civil war on July 21, 1861, and August 29, 1862. In the first, the Confederate army of 22,000 men, commanded by Beauregard, with reinforcements of 8000, after a hard-fought contest, routed the Union forces, 34,000 strong, under McDowell, and drove them back on Washington with a loss of 2950 men. The Confederates' loss was 1652. In the second battle, the Union forces of 49,000 men, under Pope, were defeated by Longstreet, with 32,000 men, and T. J. Jackson, with 23,000. The Union loss was 11,000, that of the Confederates 7241. See UNITED STATES.

Bulls and Bears. In the slang of the stock exchange, a *bull* is a person who seeks artificially and unduly to raise the price of stock, and speculates on a rise. On the other hand, a *bear* is one who speculates on a fall; who sells stock for delivery at a future date, in the hope that meanwhile prices will fall, so that he will buy at a lower price what he has sold at the higher price. See STOCK EXCHANGE.

Bull Trout (*Salmo cambricus* or *griseus*), a species of the Salmon genus, and like it, migratory in its habits, ascending rivers, in which it deposits its spawn, but living chiefly in the sea. It

occurs in many of the rivers of Britain, and is not unfrequently taken in the Tweed and its tributaries. It is frequently called the Gray Trout,



Bull Trout (*Salmo cambricus*).

or simply the Gray, and is the Sewen of the Welsh rivers. It occasionally attains the weight of 20 lb., although even the larger ones are commonly under 15 lb. weight. It is less elegant in form than the salmon; the head and nape of the neck are thicker in proportion; the teeth are longer and stronger; the gill-cover is larger and more nearly square; the anal fin is further back; and the tail, beyond the adipose fin, is more bulky and muscular. The tail fin is square at the end in young fish (in some places called *whillings*), and in older ones becomes convex by the elongation of the central rays, whence the name *roundtail* sometimes given to this species. The scales are rather smaller than those of a salmon of equal size, the lower jaw of the male less elongated; the colour is less bright; the males in the spawning season being reddish or orange brown, the females blackish gray; at other times the general colour is like that of the salmon trout. The bull trout agrees with the salmon in having only a few teeth on the most anterior part of the *romer* (the bone which runs down the centre of the palate); while the salmon trout, the common trout, and the great lake trout, have a long line of teeth in that position. To anglers, the bull trout is next to the salmon as a prize, and by many is mistaken for it. The flesh is paler in colour, coarser, with much less flavour, and is proportionately less esteemed.—The name has been also given to the Hucho (*S. hucho*), or salmon of the Danube, which sometimes attains the size of 30, or even, it is said, of 60 lb. The laws for fishing salmon apply also to the Bull Trout. See SALMON.

Bülow, FRIEDRICH WILHELM, BARON VON, Prussian general, was born in 1755, and entered the army young. When Prussia declared war with France in 1813, it was Bülow that commanded in the first successful encounter with the French at Möckern, and revived the self-confidence of the army after the adverse battle of Lützen. His victories over Oudinot and Ney at Grossbeeren and Dennewitz saved Berlin, and inflicted severe loss on the enemy. He acted a conspicuous part in the battle of Leipzig, and, by taking possession of Montmartre, finished the campaign of 1814. The king acknowledged his services by an estate worth £30,000, and the title of Count of Dennewitz. In the campaign of 1815 he joined Blücher by forced marches, and headed the column that first came to the aid of Wellington at Waterloo. He died at Königsberg, February 25, 1816.

Bülow, HANS GUIDO VON, pianist and composer, was born at Dresden, 8th January 1830, the son of Karl Eduard von Bülow (1803-53), poet and author. Hans studied music with zeal, and after being sent to Leipzig and Berlin to qualify for

a legal career, resolved to give himself to music. Having spent some time with Richard Wagner, he in 1857 became the pupil of Liszt, whose daughter he married. In 1854 he became Prussian court-pianist, in 1864 pianist to the Bavarian court, and head of a music-school at Munich. In 1869 family troubles led him to resign his appointments and retire to Florence; and subsequently he undertook the great concert tours through which he became known in England and America. In 1880 he settled as director of music to the court at Meiningen. He is one of the most brilliant pianists of his time, remarkable for his extraordinary memory and unparalleled skill in conquering technical difficulties, and is famous as a concert director, and as a representative of the Liszt-Wagner school. He has produced works for piano and for the orchestra, as also numerous editions of pieces by the great musicians, with arrangements and transcriptions from the works of Berlioz, Wagner, and Liszt.

Bulrush, an English popular name for large rush-like or reed-like plants growing in marshes, not very strictly limited to any particular kind. The application of the term, both in literature and botany, has hesitated particularly between two distinct plants of tolerably similar vegetative habit—*Typha latifolia* and *Scirpus lacustris*. The former



Bulrush:

A, Common Cat's-tail (*Typha latifolia*); B, Common Bulrush (*Scirpus lacustris*).

of these, also called Reed-mace or Cat's-tail, belongs to the Typhaceæ; it is a large handsome plant of grass-like habit, and reaching a height of 5 to 7 or 8 feet. The characteristic long flowering heads bear the male above the female flowers, although other species are dioecious. The cloud of pollen is collected to adulterate the Lycopodium (q.v.) of pharmacy; the rhizome is astringent, but contains starch used by the Kalmucks; and the shoots of this and allied species are eaten by the Don Cossacks, and hence are sometimes called Cossack Asparagus. The stems of bulrushes are used in

many countries for thatching and fuel, the leaves for mats, chair-bottoms, packing, &c. The woolly fruiting heads are also used as packing material, and in combination with feathers to stuff beds.

The other and apparently rightful claimant of the name bulrush belongs to the Cyperaceæ. There are about 50 species of *Scirpus*, widely distributed through all climates, and applied to almost identical uses with the preceding where they sufficiently abound. It is easily recognised by its compound umbel-like (but probably cymose) heads of spikelets. One species, *S. tuberosus*, is cultivated in India as a source of starch. The common British species may reach a height of 8 feet, and like *Typha* grows in vast swamp jungles along the margins of lakes and slow-running streams, to which they impart a characteristic picturesqueness. *S. maritimus* grows extensively along the shores of the Baltic.

Bulsar, a seaport of India, in the district of Surat, on the estuary of the river of the same name, 115 miles N. of Bombay by rail. Timber is the chief export. Pop. (1881) 13,229.

Bultfontein, a place in Griqualand West, east of Kimberley. For its diamond mines, see CAPE COLONY.

Bulti, a name given to the northern part of Kashmir, once an independent state.

Bul-tso ('Borax Lake') is a lake of Tibet, 100 miles NW. of Lassa. Its area is 24 sq. m.

Bulwer, HENRY LYTTON, diplomatist and author, was born 13th February 1801, the second son of General Bulwer, and an elder brother of Lord Lytton. Entering the diplomatic service in 1827, he was attached successively to the British embassy at Berlin, Brussels, and the Hague. In 1830 he was returned to parliament, and during the following seven years represented, as an advanced Liberal, the constituencies of Wilton, Coventry, and Marylebone. In 1837 he became secretary of embassy at Constantinople, where he negotiated and concluded a very important commercial treaty. In 1843 he was made minister plenipotentiary to the court of Madrid, and, as arbitrator, negotiated the peace between Spain and Morocco in the following year. His firmness and candour offended Narvaez, the Spanish marshal-dictator, who, pretending to have discovered Bulwer's complicity in certain plots, ordered him to leave Madrid. The House of Commons indorsed the whole course of his conduct, and he was made a K.C.B. in 1848, a G.C.B. in 1851. In 1849 he proceeded to Washington, where he concluded the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty (q.v.); in 1852 to Florence, and in 1856 to Bucharest. From 1858 to 1865 he was ambassador to the Ottoman Porte, and as successor to Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, ably carried out Palmerston's policy on the Eastern Question. In 1871 he exchanged the familiar title, Sir Henry Bulwer, for that of Lord Dalling and Bulwer. He died at Naples, 23d May 1872. Among his works were *An Autumn in Greece* (1826); *France, Social, Literary, and Political* (1834-36); *a Life of Byron* (1835); *Historical Characters* (1868-70); and an unfinished *Life of Palmerston* (1870-74).

Bulwer Lytton, SIR EDWARD. See LYTTON.

Bumboat, a boat employed to carry provisions and other articles from harbours and ports to vessels lying at some distance from the shore. Boats of this kind belong to a class of petty traders, who in England are, for the most part, women.

Bummaloti. See BOMBAY DUCK.

Bunbury, HENRY WILLIAM, caricaturist, was the son of the Rev. Sir William Bunbury, and was

born at Mildenhall in Suffolk in 1750. Educated at Westminster and Cambridge, he early became distinguished for his humorous designs, which gave him the right to rank after Rowlandson and Gillray. He usually avoided political subjects. He drew mainly in pencil and chalks, but also produced water-colours. He died in 1811. His son, Sir Henry Edward Bunbury, seventh Bart. (1778-1860), wrote several historical works, including one on the Peninsular war.

Bundelesh is the name of a book in the Pehlvi language, which is one of the most important sources of information as to the Zoroastrian system of belief. There are translations by Justi (1868) and West (1879). See ZOROASTER.

Bundelkhand, a region of Upper India, having the river Chambal on the north and west, and the Jumna on the north-east. The area known as Bundelkhand includes five districts belonging to the British North-western Provinces (Banda, Jalaun, Jhansi, Lalitpur, and Hamirpur), and also the 'Bundelkhand Agency,' a subdivision of the Central India Agency, which is a group of some 30 native states and petty jaghires under native princes. The area of the agency is 10,332 sq. m., and the pop. (1881) 2,206,402; whilst the figures for the entire territory are 20,550 sq. m. and 3,622,982. Studded, as Bundelkhand is, with isolated rocks rising precipitously from its surface—each of them a nucleus, as it were, of independence—it has generally been very much subdivided. Notwithstanding that it is well watered, the climate renders irrigation indispensable; and it is accordingly interspersed, at the cost of great labour and ingenuity, with artificial dams and a canal. It possesses deposits of iron ore, diamonds (in Panna), and copper, but the produce is almost solely agricultural. The principal towns of Bundelkhand are Kalpi, Jhansi, Kalinjar, Banda, Jalaun, Chhatarpur, and Datia.

Bundi, a native state of Rajputana, lying between Jaipur, Tonk, Kotah, and Udaipur. It is traversed from SW. to NE. by a double range of hills, with few passes, has large tracts of woodland, and is drained by the river Mej. Area, 2300 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 254,701, nearly all Hindus. The chief town, Bundi (pop. 20,744), built on the steep side of the hill, which is crowned with a fort, commands the principal pass. It is walled, and has a large palace, and upwards of 425 temples and shrines.

Bungalow, the species of house usually occupied by Europeans in the interior of India, and commonly provided for officers' quarters in cantonments. Bungalows are properly of only one story, with a veranda, and a pyramidal roof, generally of thatch, although tiles are sometimes substituted; houses of masonry, with terraced roofs, are distinguished as *pukka houses*. The name is a corruption of the native word *Bangla*, 'Bengalese,' and probably refers to the first district where the form of building was noticed by Europeans.—*Dak-bungalows* are houses for travellers, still to a reduced extent maintained by government, where bed, table, and bathroom are provided, and food can be had at a moderate cost. A rupee a day is charged for the use of these bungalows, which are found on the main routes every 10-15 miles, and on the less frequented roads at intervals of 40-50 miles.

Bungay, a market-town of Suffolk, on the Waveney, 6 miles W. of Beccles. It grew up around the 12th-century castle of the Bigods, Earls of Norfolk, some ruins of which still remain; but mostly it is later than the great fire of 1688. It has a large printing establishment, and carries on a considerable trade in corn, malt, flour, coals, and lime. Pop. (1881) 3579.

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Bungener, LOUIS FELIX, Protestant writer, born at Marseilles, of German family, in 1814, studied theology at Geneva, and became director of the gymnasium there in 1843, but was removed by the new Radical government in 1848. Engaging in literature, he published a series of writings on theological and historical subjects, but is most widely known for several works, in the form of romances, in which the principles of Protestantism are set forth and defended. He died 14th June 1874.

Bunias, a small genus of Cruciferae. The leaves of *B. orientalis* are eaten in Russia, and are cultivated in Western Europe as a fodder-plant. The leaves and root of *B. cruceo* are eaten in Greece.

Bunion is a term applied in Surgery to enlarged bursa, or synovial sacs, situated on any part of the foot; but most common over the metatarsophalangeal joint of the first or the fifth toe (see FOOT), and accompanied by more or less distortion of the joint. In the great majority of cases, bunions are directly produced by the pressure of badly-fitting boots; and if the boots are constructed of patent leather, or any material which stops the excreting action of the skin, this, too, may be regarded as an indirect cause of their formation. Sometimes, however, the tendency to suffer from bunions is hereditary, and almost irremediable. A bunion begins as a painful and tender spot at some point exposed to pressure; the part gradually enlarges, and there are indications of an effusion into a natural bursa or a newly-formed sac. The progress of the affection may stop here, the enlarged bursa remaining, and serving to protect the subjacent parts from pressure; but far more frequently the bunion undergoes repeated attacks of inflammation, causing further increase in size; or becomes the seat of corns or of suppuration. The last action may be followed either by obliteration of the cyst and a cure; or, especially in persons of languid circulation, by a troublesome form of ulcer. The one great thing, when there is a tendency to bunions, is the wearing of roomy boots or shoes, of soft and pervious material, and so shaped as not to press upon susceptible points. When pain occurs, wet lint covered with waterproof material, or poultices, should be applied, at all events at night. Enlargement may sometimes be reduced in its earlier stages by the application of iodine or a mercurial ointment. Where suppuration takes place, the sac should at once be laid freely open. The disease sometimes proves so troublesome that amputation of the toe, or excision of the ends of the bones affected, has been resorted to.

Bunker Hill, an elevation (112 feet) on the peninsula of Charlestown, now part of Boston, Massachusetts, connected by a ridge, 700 yards long, with Breed's Hill (75 feet). The two heights were the scene of the first hard-fought battle of the American Revolution (June 17, 1775), in which the Americans, from behind some works hurriedly constructed during the preceding night, repulsed two attacks by General Gage's forces, and were dislodged only after reinforcements had been brought up, and their ammunition was spent. The British loss was 1054, that of the Americans 449. A granite obelisk, 221 feet high, marks the site of the redoubt. See UNITED STATES.

Bunkum, a phrase used in the United States for mere bombastic speech-making, intended for the newspapers rather than to persuade the audience. There is a county named Buncombe, in North Carolina, to which the word seems originally to have been due. Bartlett quotes from Wheeler's *History of North Carolina*: 'Several years ago, in congress, the member for this district

arose to address the house, without any extraordinary powers in manner or matter to interest the audience. Many members left the hall. Very naively he told those who remained that they might go too: he should speak for some time, but he "was only talking for Buncombe."

Bunsen, CHRISTIAN KARL JOSIAS, BARON, the distinguished German diplomatist and scholar, was born 25th August 1791, at Korbach, in the principality of Waldeck. He first studied theology at Marburg (1808), and then philology under Heyne at Göttingen (1809-13). His prize essay *De jure Atheniensium Hereditario* appeared in 1813, and in that year he went to Copenhagen to study Icelandic under Finn Magnussen. He spent some months of 1815 in Berlin, and there became acquainted with the historian Niebuhr. In 1816 he went to Paris, and studied Persian and Arabic under Silvestre de Sacy, and in the same year to Rome, where he married Frances Waddington (1817), and was appointed (1818) secretary to the Prussian embassy on the recommendation of Niebuhr, then Prussian ambassador. On Niebuhr's departure from Rome (1824), Bunsen, who during Friedrich-Wilhelm III.'s visit to Rome in 1822 had gained the king's favour by the frank expression of his views on the Prussian ritual and hymn-book question, conducted the embassy provisionally for a time, and was appointed resident minister in 1827. Bunsen employed the years of his Roman sojourn partly in the study of Plato and the constitutions of antiquity; and still more in biblical inquiries, Egyptology, and researches into the history of the Christian church and its liturgies. He contributed largely to the *Beschreibung der Stadt Rom* (3 vols. Stutt. 1830-43), and wrote the explanatory text to the volume of engravings *Die Basiliken des Christlichen Roms* (Munich, 1843). The Archaeological Institute, established at Rome in 1828, found in Bunsen its most active supporter, and it was at his instance that Lepsius obtained from the Prussian government the means for his expedition to Egypt in 1842. He founded a Protestant hospital on the Tarpeian Rock, and with the help of Richard Rothe, then chaplain to the embassy, introduced into the services there a remodelled liturgy, the most part of which was afterwards embodied in his anonymous *Gesang- und Gebetbuch zum Kirchen- und Hausgebrauch* (1846), which has found very great favour in Germany. Becoming involved in the question of mixed marriages, and in the disputes between the Prussian government and the Archbishop of Cologne, he saw his position as Prussian ambassador at the papal court compromised, and, being recalled from Rome in 1838, he was appointed in 1839 Prussian ambassador at Bern. In 1841 he was sent on a special mission to London, to negotiate the erection of an Anglo-Prussian bishopric in Jerusalem, and in the next year was appointed ambassador at the English court. On a visit to Berlin in 1844, he represented the urgency for a deliberative assembly, and also made a complete plan of a constitution for Prussia closely resembling the English. In the Sleswick-Holstein question, Bunsen strongly advocated the German view, in opposition to Denmark, and protested against the London protocol of 1850, but was obliged to sign the treaty of 1852. His views regarding the part that Prussia should act in the Eastern question not being in accordance with those of his court, he ceased in 1854 to represent Prussia at the court of England, and retired to Heidelberg. In 1857 he was created a baron. The last two winters of his life were spent at Cannes, and, settling at Bonn in 1860, he died there on the 28th November of that year. In the estimation of Englishmen, Bunsen must ever hold a high place. No foreigner has ever shown a

deeper appreciation of their national characteristics, or a heartier love of their social and political liberty. Bunsen was all his life an ardent student, and all his investigations tended to the one aim which he set before himself at the beginning of his career—'the knowledge of God in man, especially in language and religion.' His eager desire for positive results and his lively imagination led him in many cases to form premature conclusions, and the fresh impulse which he gave to the studies of others has been a still greater service to religion and science than his own researches. His chief works are: *Die Verfassung der Kirche der Zukunft* (1845; Eng. ed. *The Constitution of the Church of the Future*, 1847); *Die drei ächten und die vier mächtigen Briefe des Ignatius von Antiochien*, and *Ignatius von Antiochien und seine Zeit* (Hamb. 1847); *Ägyptens Stelle in der Weltgeschichte* (6 vols. 1844-57), of which the English edition (1847-67), with many additions by Bunsen and Samuel Birch, is the more valuable; *Hippolytus und his Age* (2 vols. 1852), which was specially written for English readers, and in its second edition formed part of the extensive work, *Christianity and Mankind* (7 vols. 1854), including 3 vols. of *Analecta Ante-Nicena*, with contributions by Lagarde and other scholars, and *Outlines of the Philosophy of Universal History as applied to Language and Religion* (2 vols.), with contributions by Anfrecht and Max Müller; *Die Zeichen der Zeit* (2 vols. Leip. 1855; Eng. trans. by Susanna Winkworth); *Gott in der Geschichte* (3 vols. Leip. 1857-58); and the *Bibelwerk für die Gemeinde*, completed by Kamphausen and Holtzmann in 9 vols. (1858-70). See Bunsen's *Memoir* (2 vols. 1868) by his widow, Frances Waddington (1791-1876), and her own *Life and Letters* by Hare (2 vols. 1879). His correspondence with Friedrich-Wilhelm IV. was published by Ranke in 1873. His five sons were Heinrich (1818-85), rector of Donington, Shropshire; Ernst (born 1819), author of *Bible Chronology* and other works; Georg (born 1824), Prussian statesman; and the diplomatists, Karl (1821-87) and Theodor (born 1832).

Bunsen, ROBERT WILHELM, a distinguished German chemist, born at Göttingen, March 31, 1811. He began the study of zoology, chemistry, and physics at the university of his native town, and continued them at Paris, Berlin, and Vienna. After having lectured at Göttingen and Cassel, he filled the chair of chemistry in succession at Marburg, Breslau, and, from 1852, Heidelberg. His papers on physics and geology, as well as on chemistry, are numerous. The charcoal pile and the burner which bear his name are in extensive use. That the hydrate of oxide of iron is an antidote to arsenic, is an important fact which was made known by him, along with his friend Berthold, in 1837. Bunsen was the first to produce magnesium in large quantities; and in 1860 he invented the magnesium light, which has proved so important to photography. But the greatest discovery with which his name is associated, is that of the spectrum analysis—made in conjunction with his friend Kirchhoff—which has been the means of working so many wonders in chemistry, and revealing so much to astronomers. Its first result was the discovery of two new metals. Besides his original work in chemistry, Bunsen proved himself also one of its most successful teachers, with a singularly happy manner of demonstration. Among his works are: *Enumeratio ac Descriptio Hygrometrorum* (1830), *Das Eisenoxydhydrat* (2d ed. 1837), *Gasometrische Methoden* (1857; English by Roscoe), *Einleitung zur Analyse der Aschen u. Mineralwässer* (1874), and *Flammenreaktionen* (1880). The government of Baden made him a privy-councillor in 1863. See *Nature* for 1881.

Bunsen Burner. Probably no invention has done so much to facilitate work in the chemical laboratory as that of the Bunsen burner, so named after the distinguished chemist. Prior to its introduction, the heating by gas or oil had been unsatisfactory, owing to the imperfect combustion of the carbon causing the deposit of soot on any body in contact with the flame. Applying the principle of the Blowpipe (q.v.), a plentiful supply of air was caused to mingle with the gas before ignition, so that a smokeless flame of low luminosity but great heating power was the result. The Bunsen burner



Bunsen Burner.

has undergone many changes, by which it has been adapted to the various requirements of domestic life, but through all, the essential principle remains the same. The simplest form consists of an ordinary gas-jet, over which is placed a piece of metal tube, 4 to 6 inches long, and perforated with holes at the bottom. The gas having been turned on, air rushes in at the holes, so that when a light is applied to the upper end of the tube, a greenish-blue flame is obtained. If the air is in excess, the flame inclines to green; if deficient, a yellow flame results. The great objection to this, the original form, lies in its tendency to *burn back*, if the gas pressure be but small. When this occurs, and the flame burns at the jet, before it mixes with the extra volume of air, a long smoky flame issues from the tube, while the disagreeable odour of acetylene, C_2H_2 , a product of the imperfect combustion of coal-gas, at once becomes apparent. To remedy this drawback, wire-gauze, through which flame cannot pass, is sometimes placed over the aperture, forming a 'solid flame' burner, or the mixture of gas and air is allowed to issue through small holes or narrow slits. The purposes for which the Bunsen burner is used are very varied. For cooking, fire-lighting, heating, ironing, soldering, &c., its utility is well known, while for the production of asbestos gas-fires many ingenious forms have been devised.

Bunt. a parasitic disease of cereals, due to *Tilletia caries*, a mould belonging to the Astlagineae. See PLANTS (DISEASES OF).

Bunter Sandstein, or 'variegated sandstone,' is the lowest member of the Triassic system. As the Trias is more perfectly developed in Germany than in Britain, the German beds are considered the typical group of this system. The bunter sandstein consists of various coloured sandstones, interstratified with red marls and thin beds of limestone, which occasionally, as in the Harz, are oolitic, but in other places dolomitic. They attain a maximum thickness of 1500 feet. The English representatives of the bunter sandstein are chiefly developed in Lancashire and Cheshire, and consist of red and mottled sandstones with beds of marl, and thick rather irregular bands of partially consolidated conglomerate called 'pebble beds.' Many species of fossil plants have been found in the bunter sandstein of Germany, consisting chiefly of ferns, cycads, and conifers. The English bunter sandstein, however, is for the most part unfossiliferous, an equisetum, one or two ferns, and a few

conifers being all the plants yet met with. But the most remarkable fossils in this formation are the remains of huge batrachians. Originally, the footprints which had been left by the animals on the moist sand were alone observed. From their resemblance to the impressions made by a human hand, the animal producing them was provisionally named *Cheirotherium* (q.v.). The subsequent discovery and examination of the remains of teeth and bones in the same beds have afforded sufficient materials to enable Owen to reconstruct an animal named by him *Labyrinthodon* (q.v.), which undoubtedly produced the footprints. (More recently these footprints have been assigned to more than one form of labyrinthodon.) These remains have been detected in Lancashire and Cheshire, as well as in Germany.

Bunting. JABEZ, Wesleyan minister, was born at Manchester in 1779, and in 1799 entered the ministry, in which he was very successful. He was president of the conference in 1820, and again in 1828, 1836, 1844. In 1835 he was chosen president of the Wesleyan Theological Institute, and he acted as second secretary to the Wesleyan Missionary Society for upwards of twenty years. He was the chief authority in all matters relating to the government and polity of Wesleyan Methodism. He died 16th June 1858. See his Life by his son (1887).

Bunting (*Emberiza*), a genus of birds in the great finch family Fringillidae. They are nearly allied to the crossbills. The most marked characteristics are a short, straight, conical bill; a curved form of the gape, produced by a narrowing of the sides of the upper jaw, and a corresponding enlargement of the under one; and a hard rounded knob on the palate or inner surface of the upper jaw. This knob probably aids in crushing the seeds, which are a principal part of the food of these birds. The species of bunting are numerous, and may be arranged in several sub-genera.—The Common Bunting, or Corn Bunting (*E. miliaria*), is a bird considerably larger than a house-sparrow, brown, with darker streaks on the upper parts, whitish brown with spots and lines of dark brown on the under parts, and with a slightly forked tail. It is frequent, particularly in low cultivated grounds in Britain, and in most parts of Europe, extending also into Asia, living in pairs during spring and summer, but in flocks in winter, and often visiting barn-yards at that

Reed Bunting (*Emberiza schoeniclus*).

season, along with chaffinches and sparrows. It is the largest of the British buntings. It is supposed that the winter flocks in Britain are much increased by migration from more northerly regions. This bunting often passes the night on

the ground in stubble-fields, and is taken in the nets employed for catching larks, and brought with them to market. It usually builds its nest on or very near the ground. Its notes are harsh and unmusical, and sometimes sound like the clicking of knitting needles.—The Reed Bunting, or Black-headed Bunting (*E. schoeniclus*), is a species common in marshy situations, both in Britain and on the continent of Europe. It feeds much on willow and other buds. It is a very pretty little bird, in the male with black head, cheeks, and upper throat; in the female with brown instead of black, and with a white throat.—The Cirl Bunting (*E. cirius*), of which the head is olive-green, with black streaks, and with patches of bright lemon-yellow on the cheeks and over the eyes, is a rare British bird, and belongs chiefly to the south of Europe and the north of Africa. To this genus belong also the Ortolan (*E. hortulanus*, q.v.), and the Yellow-hammer (*E. citrinella*, q.v.).—The Snow Bunting (q.v.), or Snowflake (*E. nivalis* of many authors), has been placed in the new genus *Plectrophanes*. The name bunting has been often very vaguely used, and many species have been almost indiscriminately called buntings or finches. The palatal knob affords the best distinctive character. North America has a large number of species of bunting. The Black-throated Bunting (*E. americana*) is extremely plentiful on the prairies of Texas and other south-western parts of the United States; extending, however, as far as to Ohio, and even to Massachusetts. In the middle and northern states it occurs only as a summer bird of passage. In its habits it closely resembles the Common Bunting of Europe; but the palatal knob is less hard. See Macgillivray's *British Birds*, vol. i.

Bunting, or BUNTINE, is a thin woollen material of which the flags and signals of ships are usually made.

Bunyan, JOHN, author of the *Pilgrim's Progress*, was born at Elstow, near Bedford, in 1628. His father describes himself in his will, the original of which is still in existence, as a 'braseyer,' and is ordinarily spoken of as a tinker, in which craft his eldest son John was duly trained. Sir Walter Scott, in the *Quarterly Review* of 1830, started the idea that, as Gypsies were frequently tinkers, Bunyan may have belonged to the Gypsy race. Recent researches, however, have shown that there is no historical basis for the suggestion. The name originally took the form Buington, and the family were certainly in Bedfordshire in 1199, if not earlier. There is also documentary evidence connecting them with the identical spot where Bunyan was born, in the east fields of Elstow, as early as 1327. From the Court Roll of the manor of Elstow we find that Thomas Bonyon did fealty and suit of court for his cottage and nine acres of land to the lord of the manor in 1542 and on to 1550. In a minute of the Privy-council he is described as 'Bonyon, victualler,' and in the Court Roll of the manor as a 'common brewer of beer' and as a 'common baker of human bread.' He probably kept a little roadside inn in his cottage on the bridle-road between Bedford and Wilstead. The place where he lived is also described in the same record as 'Bonyon's End,' that is, the end or extremity of the parish where the Bunyans lived. This is the name which it had evidently borne for a long time previously, and it is the name by which that part of Elstow has continued to be known down to our own day. The grandson of this Thomas Bonyon, who was Bunyan's grandfather, describes himself in his will as a 'pettie chapman,' or small village trader. According to the transcript registers from the parish of Elstow, Bunyan's father married Margaret

Bentley on the 23d May 1627, and on the 30th November 1628 their illustrious son was baptised at Elstow Church. When he was in his sixteenth year his mother and his sister Margaret died within a month of each other; and the following year Bunyan, probably under the action of a levy made by parliament upon the villages of Bedfordshire, was drafted into the army, and took part in the civil war between Roundhead and Royalist. Probably not for long, however, as he did not reach the army regulation age of sixteen till November 1644, and in June 1645 the battle of Naseby practically put an end to the war. On the disbanding of the army, Bunyan returned to Elstow, and about 1649 married a wife who brought him no dower of worldly wealth, for, says he, 'this woman and I came together as poor as-poor might be, not having so much household stuff as a dish or spoon betwixt us both.' She brought with her, however, two books which had belonged to her father, the *Plain Man's Pathway to Heaven*, and the *Practice of Piety*, in which they read together, and by which Bunyan was considerably influenced. His *Life and Death of Mr Badman*, which he published in 1680, shows not a little resemblance to the first of these books. During these early days of his wedded life, he lived in the cottage at the entrance of the village of Elstow, now known as Bunyan's cottage, the house in which he was born being in the fields about a mile to the east. It was while living here that his blind child was born, and that he took such pleasure in ringing the bells in the tower of Elstow Church. It was here also that he began to pass through those deep religious experiences which he has described so vividly in his *Grace Abounding*.

During this time he was introduced by some good people at Bedford to their minister, John Gifford, a converted royalist major who had organised a little community, sometimes incorrectly described as a Baptist church, it being a church in which baptism and some other questions much debated in those days were left to the individual conscience, and not made an essential part of church life. Bunyan joined this Christian fellowship in 1653, and about 1655 he was asked by the brethren to address them in their church gatherings. This led to his beginning to preach in the villages round Bedford, and in 1656 he was brought into discussions with the followers of George Fox, which issued in his appearance as an author, his first book, *Some Gospel Truths Opened*, being published against the Quakers in 1656. This earliest effort of his pen, though rapidly written, is a vigorous production, and altogether remarkable as the composition of a working-man whose school-days had become a far-off memory. To this Edward Burrough, an eminent Quaker, replied, and Bunyan gave rejoinder in *A Vindication of Gospel Truths Opened*. Two other works were published by him, after which, in the month of November 1660, he was arrested while preaching in a farmhouse at Samsell, a little hamlet a few miles south of Ampt-hill. The imprisonment which followed upon this arrest lasted for twelve long years, during which Bunyan wrote *Profitable Meditations, Praying in the Spirit, Christian Behaviour, The Holy City, The Resurrection of the Dead, Grace Abounding*, and some smaller works. This imprisonment was in the county gaol, which stood at the corner of the High Street and Silver Street, in the centre of the town of Bedford. Bunyan was released after the Declaration of Indulgence of 1672, under which he became a licensed preacher, having been chosen by the church to which he belonged as their pastor. He had occupied this position for three years, when in the month of February 1675 the Declaration of Indulgence was cancelled, and the licenses of the

Nonconformist preachers recalled by proclamation. The following month, March 4, a warrant, signed by no fewer than thirteen magistrates, and sealed by ten out of the thirteen, was issued for his arrest. This warrant turns out to have been preserved among the Chauncy MSS., and came to light in July 1887 when these were brought to the hammer at Messrs Sotheby's. Brought to trial at the midsummer sessions under the Conventicle Act, Bunyan was sent to prison for six months in the town gaol on Bedford Bridge. It was during this later and briefer imprisonment, and not during the twelve years in the county gaol, that he wrote the first part of his memorable work, the *Pilgrim's Progress*. This was entered in the register of the Stationers' Company, 22d December 1677, and in a contemporary catalogue of books appears as licensed February 18, 1678. When first issued it was shorter than it afterwards became. It then contained no Mr Worldly Wiseman, and no second meeting with Evangelist. The discourse with Charity At the Palace Beautiful, the further accounts of Mr By-end's rich relations, the story of Diffidence, the wife of Giant Despair, and various other passages, were added afterwards in the second and third editions, which appeared in the autumn of 1678 and the early part of 1679. This was followed by the *Life and Death of Mr Badman* in 1680; by the *Holy War*, his most memorable work after the *Pilgrim's Progress*, in 1682; and by the second part of the *Pilgrim*, containing the story of Christiana and her children, in 1684. Bunyan had been pastor of the Bedford Church for sixteen years, when, after a ride through the rain on horseback from Rending to London, he was seized with a fatal illness at the house of his friend, John Strudwick, a grocer at the sign of the Star on Snow Hill, Holborn, and here he died on the 31st August 1688, and was buried in the *Campo Santo* of the Nonconformists in Bunhill Fields.

During the sixty years of his life, Bunyan wrote something like sixty books, but he will be best remembered by three of these—the *Grace Abounding*, the *Holy War*, and the *Pilgrim's Progress*, and best of all by the last of the three. The *Pilgrim's Progress* sprang at once into fame, 100,000 copies being sold during the subsequent ten years of its author's life. It was also printed at Boston, in New England, in 1681, and a Dutch translation was issued by Joannes Boekholt of Amsterdam in 1682. This last and a subsequent edition of a superior character, issued in 1685, were illustrated by Dutch engravers, then the leaders of the art of engraving in Europe. The book was also translated into Welsh, Walloon French, German, Polish, and Swedish, between 1688 and 1743. Since then it has been translated into no fewer than eighty-four languages and dialects, the versions in Japanese and the Canton vernacular being admirably illustrated by native artists, who have adapted the scenery and costumes to those of their own country. Traces of the influence of the work upon Schiller have been pointed out in his two poems, 'Der Pilgrim' and 'Die Sehnsucht,' by Gustav Kettner; and Wieland mentions that he first learned English from the *Pilgrim's Progress*. Of the English issue six copies of the first edition of the first part are in existence, and a complete series of editions down to the thirty-fourth, with the exception of the seventeenth. Since the thirty-fourth no record has been kept, the editions becoming in number numberless. An incomplete folio edition of Bunyan's general works was published in one volume in 1692, and complete editions in two volumes folio were issued in 1736-37, and in 1767. A folio edition in one thick volume of 1112 pages, double columns, was also published in Edinburgh by Henry Galbraith in 1771, and various other collected editions in quarto

and octavo were subsequently issued in England, Scotland, and America. A statue of Bunyan was unveiled in Bedford in 1874. See the Lives of him by Southey (1830), Offor (1862), Froude (1880), and Brown (1885; new ed. 1888).

Bunzlau, a town of Prussian Silesia, on the Bober, 25 miles WNW. of Liegnitz by rail. Its chief industry is the manufacture of earthenware; but woollens, glass, and hosiery are also made. Here the poet Opitz was born. Pop. (1871) 8812; (1885) 11,532.

Bunzlau, JUNG (Czech *mladý Boleslav*), a town of Bohemia, on the Iser, 32 miles N.E. of Prague by rail. Pop. (1880) 9681.

Buol-Schauenstein, KARL FERDINAND, COUNT, Austrian statesman, born 17th May 1797, was minister in succession at Karlsruhe, Stuttgart, Turin, and St Petersburg. He was second Austrian plenipotentiary at the Dresden Conference (1850), after which he was minister at London, until the death of Schwarzenberg recalled him to Vienna, to hold the portfolio of foreign affairs. He presided at the Vienna Conference in 1855, and represented Austria at the Congress of Paris. He died October 28, 1865.

Buonaparte. See BONAPARTE.

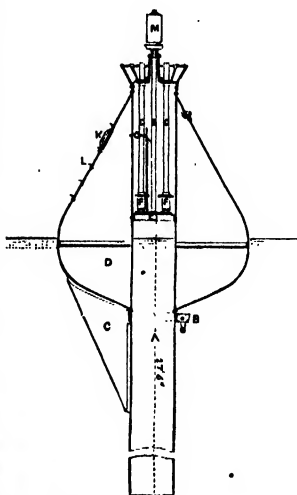
Buonarroti. See MICHAEL ANGELO.

Buononcini, or BONONCINI, is the name of three Italian composers. The elder, Giovanni Maria (1640-78), wrote instrumental pieces, songs, and church music. His sons, Marc Antonio (1660-1726) and Giovanni Ballesta (1667-1750), were known as composers of operas. The latter settled in London in 1720, and for some years was very famous and popular.

Buoy, in nautical affairs, is a floating mark placed in the navigable track of vessels to indicate the existence of a sunken danger. They are made of various shapes and colours so as to indicate on which hand vessels must keep them in passing. A conference of the nautical authorities of Great Britain and Ireland resolved in 1883 to adopt a systematised scheme of buoyage. For full particulars the reader is referred to this report; but the chief conditions are as follows: Buoys showing the pointed top of a cone above water shall be called conical, and shall always be starboard-hand buoys. Buoys showing a flat top above water shall be called can, and shall always be port-hand buoys. Buoys showing a domed top above water shall be called spherical, and shall mark the ends of middle grounds. In Scotland, however, port and starboard hand buoys must be painted of a different colour. Port-hand buoys are black, and starboard-hand buoys are red. Spherical buoys are distinguished by white stripes. The starboard buoys are on the right hand when the vessel is ascending a river. On the coast the starboard-hand buoy is on the right hand when the vessel is going with the main stream of flood-tide. Wreck buoys are painted green, and marked *Wreck*. Buoy dues are levied on ships coming to ports within the jurisdiction of the several authorities which maintain the buoys.

Lighted Buoys.—River buoys are now in many cases lighted by compressed oil-gas on Pintsch's principle; the buoy is charged to a pressure of about 7 atmospheres, or 105 lb. per square inch. The buoys are surmounted by a small dioptric apparatus in which the light burns constantly. The buoys are charged once a month. The Clyde Lighthouse Trustees were the first (in 1880) to introduce these buoys in Scotland, having erected a work at Port-Glasgow for the manufacture and compression of the gas. This trust also lights the buoys of the Clyde Navigation Trnst. Twelve lighted buoys have been moored in the Clyde.

Eight lighted buoys have been moored by the Trinity House in the Thames. In the United States certain buoys are lighted by electricity; others by various systems of compressed-gas burning.



The Courtenay Automatic Sounding Buoy:

a, cylinder; b, mooring shackles; c, rudder; d, buoy; e, diaphragm; f, ball-valves; g, air inlet tubes; h, outlet tube to whistle; i, compressed-air inlet to buoy; k, main hole; l, steps; m, whistle.

ing of air, which by an arrangement of valves is compelled to impinge on the edge of the whistle, and thus produce a deep loud sound, heard in favourable circumstances at a distance of 5 to 7 miles. One of these buoys was in 1879 moored at the east end of Inchkeith in the Firth of Forth. A similar 'whistling buoy' is largely used in American waters.

Bell Buoy.—The bell buoy is formed as a large segment of a sphere, the flat side being uppermost. On this is erected a framework which carries a bell of about 3 to 7 cwt. The bell is a fixture, and is rung by the swinging of movable clappers. It is not nearly so efficacious as the Courtenay buoy.

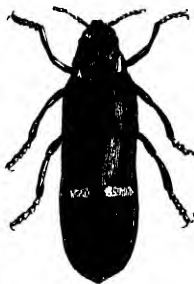
For LIFE-BUOY, see that head.

Buoyancy is that quality whereby a ship, or any other floating body, is enabled to support a certain weight. In the case of a ship, it is necessary that such weight should be carried without her sinking too deeply in the water, or floating too lightly on it. The weight of a ship, not loaded with any cargo, is exactly equivalent to the weight of the volume of water she displaces (see HYDROSTATICS). Therefore, given a certain draught-line to which a ship is to be loaded, multiply the number of cubic feet of the volume of the immersed part by the weight of a cubic foot of sea-water (64 lb.), and the product will be the weight of water displaced by the ship at the given draught-line. If from this the weight of the ship herself be subtracted, the residue is the amount of extra weight, or cargo she is capable of carrying at that draught-line, and is a measure of her quality of buoyancy.

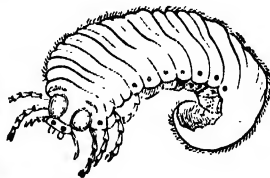
Buphaga. See BEEF-EATER.

Buprestis, a genus of beetles, typical of a large family—Buprestidae. Those occurring in warmer countries are conspicuous for lively colour and metallic sheen. Some of them are popularly known as Golden Beetles. *B. gigas*, found in Cayenne, is about 2 inches long. Some small species occur in England. The larvæ bore tunnels

in wood. The adults are drawn from their hiding-places among plants by the warmth and brightness of the mid-day sun, with which their own vividness seems so markedly in harmony. The wing-cases of



Buprestis bicolor.



Larva of *Buprestis gigas*.

some species are used to enrich the embroidery of the Indian zenana, and the joints of the legs are also strung into necklaces and bracelets.

Bur, in an engraving, is a slight ridge of metal raised on the edges of a line by the *graver* or the *dry point*. It produces an effect like a smear, and is therefore usually regarded as a defect, and scraped off. Some etchers, however, take advantage of it to deepen their shadows, and Rembrandt made use of it in this way with telling effect. As the bur soon wears off, in valuable old proofs its presence is strong evidence of the early date of an impression.

Bur. See BURDOCK.

Bura'no, an island and town of Northern Italy, 5 miles N.E. of Venice. Vegetables are raised, and fishing employs the greater number of the inhabitants. There is a school for the designing and making of fine laces; this manufacture, once famous, then nearly extinct, having latterly been revived. Pop. of town, 4492; of commune, 6800.

Burbage, RICHARD, one of the great English actors, born most probably about 1567, the son of James Burbage, himself an actor, and the builder of the Shoreditch and Blackfriars theatres. Richard made his debut early, by 1588 having already earned some reputation, and during the next ten years outstripped all competitors, and earned the title of 'Roscius.' The death of his father in 1597 brought him a share in the Blackfriars Theatre, and in 1599, together with his brother Cuthbert, he pulled down the Shoreditch house, and built with the materials the famous Globe Theatre as a summer playhouse, while the Blackfriars was to become exclusively a winter house. For the expenses of building Burbage had to borrow money, and he took as partners in his undertaking Shakespeare, Hemming, Condell, and others. At one or other of these two theatres Burbage gained his greatest triumphs, and took the leading part in almost every new play until his death in 1618. Though short and stout in person, he played heroic tragedy with great fire and genius, and Overbury tells us of the modulations of his voice, and his 'full and significant action of body.' Richard III. was one of his most popular parts. Burbage was a not unskilful painter, and an undoubted picture of him is preserved at Dulwich College. See J. P. Collier's *History of English Dramatic Poetry* (1879).

Burbot (*Lota vulgaris*), a fish closely allied to the Ling (q.v.), and remarkable as the only freshwater species of the Cod family (Gadidae). It is found in the Cam, the Trent, and other rivers of the eastern and midland counties of England, but is one of the most local of British freshwater fishes. It is found also in various parts of middle

Europe, and in Asia. In English rivers, it often reaches 2 or 3 lb. in weight, but has been taken of 8 lb. weight; and in some parts of Europe, it is said to reach as much as 10 or 12 lb. In appearance, the burbot very much resembles the



Burbot.

ling, but is rather thicker at the neck, and tapers somewhat more rapidly, although still of a somewhat elongated form. It has two dorsal fins, the first short, the second very long, and a very long anal fin. It differs from the ling in the form of the tail-fin, which is oval and slightly pointed; but agrees with it in having a single barbule on the lower jaw. It is of a greenish-brown colour, clouded and spotted with darker brown on the upper parts, the under parts lighter; the scales are small; and the whole body is covered with a mucous secretion. The flesh is white, firm, and of good flavour. The burbot usually keeps to the bottom of deep water, and swims up the river at spawning times (midwinter). It can survive for a long time out of water. It is commonly taken by trimmers and night-lines, as it feeds principally during the night. Its food consists of small fishes, worms, molluscs, fish-spawn, &c. Its liver yields an oil similar to cod-liver oil. It is one of the hosts of the asexual stage of the formidable parasite, *Bothriocephalus* (q.v.).

Burckhardt. JOHN LEWIS, traveller, born at Lausanne, Switzerland, in 1784, was educated at Neuchâtel, Leipzig, and Göttingen. In 1806 he came to London with an introduction from Blumenbach to Sir Joseph Banks, the leading spirit of the African Association, who accepted his services to explore the interior of Africa; and in 1809 he embarked for Malta, having previously qualified himself for the undertaking by a study of Arabic, and also by inuring himself to hunger, thirst, and exposure. From Malta he proceeded, under the disguise of an oriental dress and name, to Aleppo, where he studied more than two years, at the end of which time he had become so proficient in the vulgar Arabic, that he could safely travel in the disguise of an oriental merchant. He visited Palmyra, Damascus, Lebanon, and other remarkable places, and in 1812 went to Cairo, his object being to proceed from thence to Fezzan, and so to the source of the Niger. No opportunity offering itself at the time for that journey, he went into Nubia, and thence in 1814 proceeded to Mecca, the first Christian or European who had ever performed the pilgrimage. So completely had he acquired the language and ideas of his fellow-pilgrims, that, when some question arose respecting his orthodoxy, he was thoroughly examined in the Koran, and was not only accepted as a true believer, but was highly commended as a great Moslem scholar. In 1815 he returned to Cairo, and in the following year ascended Mount Sinai. The Fezzan caravan, for which he had waited so long, was at last about to depart, and Burckhardt had made all his preparations for accompanying it, when he was carried off by dysentery at Cairo, October 15, 1817. He was buried, as a holy pilgrim, in the Moslem cemetery. His collection of oriental MSS., in 350 volumes, was left to the university of Cambridge. His journals of travel, remarkable alike for their interest and evident truthfulness, were published in 1819-30 by the African Association. They form

five works—*Travels in Nubia, in Syria, and in Arabia, Notes on the Bedouins, and Arabic Proverbs.*

Burdekin, a river of Queensland, draining the district of North Kennedy. It rises not far from the coast, and after an irregular course forms a delta emptying into Bowling Green and Upstart bays. It was discovered by Leichhardt in 1845, and explored by Dalrymple and Smith in 1859-60.

Burden, a term of law in Scotland, used to signify any restriction, limitation, or encumbrance affecting either person or property. With regard to mere personal burdens, or obligations to pay, no difficulty occurs. But if the payment of a sum of money is intended to make a real burden on land, or to be secured on land which is being conveyed, care must be taken to give the exact sum and the name of the creditor (or by reference to recorded deeds to give the means of ascertaining these), and to state distinctly (although no particular form of words is essential) that the money is to be a burden or charge on the land. Registration of such words in the Register of Sasines is essential to the validity of the burden. The creditor in a real burden can point the movables on the land, and can adjudge the land itself, and thereafter sue the tenants for rent. See the Scottish Land Title Acts of 1868 and 1874.

Burden of Proof, in legal procedure, signifies the obligation to establish by evidence certain disputed facts; and, as a general rule, this burden lies on the party asserting the affirmative of the issue to be tried or question in dispute, or on the party who would fail if no evidence were adduced on either side. Accordingly, it almost always rests on the plaintiff or pursuer in an action, or on the party asserting the facts on which the result of the litigation must depend. There may, however, be such a legal presumption in favour of the pursuer, that the burden falls on the defender. Thus, where a deed granted by a client in favour of a law-agent is impeached, the law-agent would have to prove that it was properly obtained, and afterwards confirmed by the client. And matters alleged in defence must of course be proved by the defender. Thus, in an action for infringement of patent, it is presumed, unless the defender proves the opposite, that the patent was for an original and meritorious invention. In fact, all the legal presumptions—e.g. in favour of innocence of charges of crime and fraud, in favour of the course of business having been followed, in favour of the onerosity of bills of exchange (i.e. that they were granted for value)—throw the burden of proof on the party contradicting these presumptions. A party is generally bound to prove what is peculiarly within his knowledge. The general presumption in favour of innocence is often displaced by statute for reasons of public policy, as in prosecutions under the Poaching and Post-office and Inland Revenue acts. This subject is treated by all the writers on Evidence, as Taylor, Roscoe, and Powell in England; Dickson in Scotland; and Greenleaf in America. See also Bentham's *Rationale of Judicial Evidence*.

Burder, GEORGE, Congregationalist minister, was born in London in 1752. He studied for an artist and engraver, but in 1776 began preaching, and in 1778 was appointed pastor at Lancaster. He removed in 1783 to Coventry, and in 1803 to London. Here he became secretary to the London Missionary Society, and editor of the *Evangelical Magazine*. He died 29th May 1832. His *Village Sermons* have been translated into many languages; and he was the author of other series of sermons and publications which have had an immense circulation. See his *Life* by H. Burder (1833).

Burdett, SIR FRANCIS, Bart., the most popular English politician of his time, was born 25th January 1770. Educated at Westminster and Oxford, he spent three years (1790-93) on the Continent, and was a witness to the progress of the French Revolution. In 1793 he married Sophia, youngest daughter of Coutts, the wealthy London banker; in 1796 was elected M.P. for Boroughbridge, Yorkshire, and in 1797 succeeded to the baronetcy. In the House of Commons he made himself conspicuous by his opposition to the war, and his advocacy of parliamentary reform, Catholic emancipation, freedom of speech, prison reform, and other liberal measures, most of which were afterwards carried. One of the most effective political speakers of that excited period, he for many years prominently occupied public attention, and was the idol of the London populace. His candidature for Middlesex in 1802 involved him in four years' costly and fruitless litigation; but in May 1807, in which same month he fought a duel with a Mr Paull, he was returned for Westminster, which he represented till 1837. Burdett having in 1810 published, in Cobbett's *Political Register*, a Letter to his Constituents, declaring the conduct of the House of Commons illegal in imprisoning a radical orator, the Speaker's warrant was issued for his apprehension, as being guilty of a breach of privilege. For two days he barricaded his house; the populace supported him in his resistance, and in a street contest between them and the military one life was lost; but after two days an entry was forced, and Burdett conveyed to the Tower. The prorogation restored him to liberty. In 1820 a letter on the 'Peterloo massacre' involved him in three months' imprisonment and a fine of £1000. In 1835 he joined the Conservatives; in 1837 was returned for Wiltshire, which he represented till his death, on 23d January 1844.

Burdett-Coutts, THE RIGHT HON. ANGELA GEORGINA, BARONESS, daughter of Sir Francis Burdett, was born 21st April 1814. In 1837 she inherited much of the property of her grandfather, Thomas Coutts, the banker, on the death of his widow, Miss Mellon the actress once, now Duchess of St Albans. The liberal and philanthropic use she made of this wealth, in her efforts to mitigate the sufferings of her fellow-creatures and of the lower animals, has rendered her name well known and deservedly popular. Besides spending large sums of money in building and endowing several churches and schools, she endowed the three colonial bishoprics of Cape Town, Adelaide, and British Columbia, founded an establishment in South Australia for the improvement of the aborigines, got up the Turkish Compassionate Fund (1877), and established a fishery school at the Irish village of Baltimore (1887). In her zeal for the good of her own sex, she effected important reforms in the teaching of girls at the National Schools, and established a shelter and reformatory for fallen women. To the city of London she presented, besides several handsome fountains, the Columbia Market, Bethnal Green (1870), for the supply of fish in a poor district; she also built Columbia Square, consisting of model dwellings at low rents, for about 300 families; and the People's Palace owes much to her generosity. A lively interest in emigration led her from time to time to assist many poor families in their passage and outfit. Her private charities have been on a corresponding scale; and she is also a liberal patroness of art. In 1871 she accepted a peerage from government. In 1872 the freedom of the city of London was conferred upon her, in 1874 that also of Edinburgh. In 1881 she was married to Mr William Ashmead-Bartlett (born 1846), who in 1882 obtained the royal license to assume her name, and

who, in 1885, was elected Conservative member for Westminster.

Burdock (*Arctium*), a genus of *Compositæ* (q.v.), familiarly characterised by the bracts of the involucre which are hooked inwards at the point. By means of these hooks, the flower-head, popularly called a *bur*, readily lays hold of the clothes of a passer-by, the wool of a sheep, or the like, and thus the fruitlets are transported from one place to



Greater Burdock (*Arctium Lappa*, var. *majus*):
a, section of flower-head, showing hooked bracts.

another, the short hairy pappus being insufficient to waft them far on the wind. The Common Burdock (*A. Lappa*) is consequently of wide distribution throughout the north temperate zone, and has numerous varieties or sub-species: it is very common in the United States. It flowers in July and August. The root was formerly used in medicine, and the young shoots for culinary purposes, for which it has even attained cultivation in Japan.

Bureau, a French word signifying a writing-table or desk; also an office for transacting business, a department of government, or the officials that carry it on. In the United States, it is also used in the latter sense; but is universally the word for a chest of drawers.—**BUREAUCRACY** is a name often given to signify the kind of government where the administration is centralised in regularly graded series of government officials, who are responsible only to their chiefs, and who interfere with and control every detail of public and private life.

Burg, a town of Prussian Saxony, on the Ilbe Canal, 15 miles N.E. of Magdeburg by rail. It has busy manufactures of woollens, pottery, leather, and tobacco, besides dye-works, foundries, &c. Pop. (1885) 16,414.

Burgage Tenure is the name of two different tenures of land, one in England, the other in Scotland. In England, it is a species of free *Socage* (q.v.) holding, and it prevails where the king or other person is lord of an ancient borough in which the tenements are held by a certain and determinate rent, and subject to a variety of customs, the principal and most remarkable of which is that called *Borough English* (q.v.). Among the other customs was one that the wife shall be endowed with all her husband's tenements, and not with the third part only, as at common law.

In Scotland, by this tenure is meant a peculiar sort of military holding affecting property in royal

burghs, the sovereign being superior or overlord, and each individual proprietor or burgess holding direct of the crown, for the *reddendo* or service of *Watching and Warding* (q.v.). This service is otherwise termed 'service of burgh used and wont,' and is now merely nominal. The proper vassal of the crown is the whole community; hence the tenure was not subject to the incidents of non-entry and relief, and the burgesses enjoyed peculiar facilities in the completion of titles by heirs and purchasers through the intervention of the magistrates. Since the conveyancing legislation of 1868 and 1874, however, there is not for practical purposes much difference between burghage and the ordinary feu-holdings in Scotland. At one time no widow's terce was due from burghage lands, but this was altered by the Conjugal Rights Act, 1861.

Burgas, a port of Eastern Roumelia, on the Gulf of Burgas, in the Black Sea, 76 miles NE. of Adrianople. It has a trade in agricultural produce, and sends large quantities of clay to the Turkish pipe-makers. Pop. about 5000.

Burgdorf (Fr. *Berthoud*), a Swiss town, 14 miles NE. of Bern by rail, with manufactures of silk, linen, and colours. In the old castle here Pestalozzi established his famous school (1798-1804). Pop. (1880) 6581.

Bürger, GOTTFRIED AUGUST, German lyric poet, was born 31st December 1747, at Molmerswende, near Halberstadt, the son of the Lutheran pastor. In boyhood he displayed no inclination to study, and Latin he especially abhorred; but he showed at the same time a relish for verse, though his only model was the Psalm-book. He was educated at Aschersleben and Halle, where in 1764 he began to study theology; but in 1768 he migrated to Göttingen, and entered on a course of jurisprudence. His life here was wild and extravagant, and he might have sunk into obscurity, if the intimacy which he happily formed with Voss, the two Stolbergs, and others of that youthful poet band, had not stirred up his better nature, and inspired him with an ambition to excel. He studied closely the ancient and modern classics; Shakespeare and Percy's *Reliques* had the strongest influence of all. As to his poems, chiefly ballads and songs, even German critics, such as Schiller, Gervinus, and Vilmar, differ widely in their opinions; but all agree in praising the clear, strong versification of *Lenore*, the *Wild Huntsman*, and other of his ballads. As Percy's *Reliques* had inspired Bürger, so Bürger in turn inspired Sir Walter Scott, whose earliest production was a translation of *Lenore*. Bürger's life was spent in great poverty and misery, the result partly of misfortune, and partly of his own sin. Thrice he married, and thrice unhappily—first in 1774, Dora Leonhart; next in 1785, her sister Auguste, the 'Molly' of his poems, who had borne him a son in Dora's lifetime; and lastly, in 1790, his 'Swabian maiden,' Elise Hahn, whom he divorced in 1792. Unfortunate speculations involved him in embarrassment; and, favourite poet though he was of the German nation, he was left to earn his bread by translations and similar hack-work. He died at Göttingen, 8th June 1794. Of his poems, the first collection of which appeared in 1778, there have been numerous editions, the best being Reinhard's (4 vols. 1796-98), Tittmann's (1869), Grisebach's (2 vols. 1873), and Sauer's (1884). See his *Life* by Döring (1826) and Pröhle (1856), and his *Letters* (5 vols. 1802-74).

Burgess, or BURGHER, from the same origin as borough, means, when taken in a general sense, the inhabitant of a burgh, or much the same thing as the word citizen, but has a variety of special meanings, according to local institutions. In almost all parts of Europe, when used in a technical

sense, the word means a person who holds some peculiar privilege in a town or municipal corporation. The burgesses of the towns of southern Europe were, and still nominally are, an interesting relic of ancient Roman institutions, existing in contest and rivalry with the institutions of feudality. The burgess is virtually the *civis* or citizen of the Roman municipality, with a different name. The European monarchs frequently found it their interest to support the burgesses, as a check on the influence of the feudal aristocracy; and thus was nourished the great system of city communities, which have exercised so important an influence on the fate of the world. See MUNICIPALITY.

In the law of England, a burgess is a member of the corporation of a corporate town, or he may be described as a freeman duly admitted as a member of the corporate body. This privilege was, and to some extent still is, acquired by birth or apprenticeship—that is, by being born of a freeman, or by apprenticeship for seven years within the borough to a freeman. It might also be obtained by gift or purchase. The Municipal Corporation Act of 1835, while abolishing the last-mentioned mode of admission by gift or purchase, expressly reserved the rights of freemen and their families; and it also provided for the making up and preservation of a list of burgesses so admitted, to be called the *Freeman's Roll* (q.v.). As the law at present stands under the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, a burgess (and this includes females) is a person of full age who has occupied a house or other building, and has resided for one year in a borough, and has paid poor and borough rates, and as such has been enrolled in the Burgess Roll (45 and 46 Vict. chap. 50). See BOROUGH, TOWN-COUNCIL.

In the Scots law, the definition of burgess is very similar to the English one above mentioned. But there was this distinction, that a person could always be admitted to the privilege by *election of the magistrates of the burgh*—the burgesses taking, on the occasion of their admission, a quaint form of oath, in which they profess the religion of the country, and loyalty to the sovereign and to the provost and bailies of the burgh and their officers, and declare, *inter alia*, that they will 'make concord where discord is, to the utmost of their power.' On taking this oath, and paying the customary dues of admission, the burgess obtained an extract of the act of his admission from the town-clerk. One of the peculiar privileges of a burgess in Scotland—viz. that of his heir having a right of succession to *heirship movables*, was abolished by the Titles to Land (Scotland) Act, 1868. The admission of burgesses is now regulated by the Act 23 and 24 Vict. chap. 47, which applies to royal burghs, as amended by 39 Vict. chap. 12, which applies to both royal and parliamentary burghs. The last-mentioned statute was intended to assimilate the law of Scotland to some extent to that of England as regards the creation of burgesses. It provided that every person is a burgess who is of full age and who has occupied property within any burgh for a period of three years prior to any term of Whitsunday after 1876, and who during the term of such occupation has been an inhabitant householder within the burgh, and who has paid poor-rates during the period of such occupancy. A female may become a burgess, but not an alien or one who has within 12 months immediately previous to the last term of Whitsunday of the period of his occupation received parochial relief or any charitable allowance.

BURGESS LIST and BURGESS ROLL are lists made under the provisions of the Municipal Corporation Act of 1835, as amended by 20 and 21

Vict. chap. 50, and 32 and 33 Vict. chap. 55. The overseers of the poor of every parish wholly or in part within any borough are directed to make out an alphabetical list, called 'The Burgess List,' of all persons who may be entitled or qualified to be enrolled on the burgess roll of that year, such list to be printed and made public. This list is afterwards revised by the revising barrister, and the names of those persons allowed, on revision, to remain are then transferred to the *Burgess Roll*, which is copied into a general alphabetical list in a book provided for that purpose by the town-clerk or clerk of the peace, and which book must be completed on or before the 22d of October in every year; every such book being the burgess roll of the burghesses entitled to vote for councillors, assessors, and auditors of the borough. Copies of such burgess roll, so completed, shall be made in writing, or printed, for delivery and sale to all persons applying for the same, on payment of a reasonable price for each copy.

In Scotland, the list corresponding to the English burgess roll is the Register of Municipal Electors qualified according to the provisions of the Municipal Acts of 1833, 1868, and 1870. The 'roll of burghesses' in Scotland is quite different from the register of municipal electors. See Marwick on Municipal Elections, p. 208.

In exercise of their power to admit burghesses by election, it is the custom for the magistrates of the more important cities and towns of the United Kingdom (the royal and parliamentary burghs in Scotland), to admit persons of distinction, whether residents or strangers, to the position of honorary burghesses. This is popularly known as 'presenting the freedom of the city.' The names of such honorary burghesses are entered in the burgess list or register of municipal electors, but they are not entitled, when not resident or carrying on business in the particular city or town, to exercise the municipal franchise, or be inducted to the town-council.

Burgh. See BOROUGH.

Burghers, the name of a former religious denomination in Scotland. See UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

Burghley, WILLIAM CECIL, LORD, one of England's greatest statesmen, was born at Bourn, Lincolnshire, his grandfather's seat, 13th September 1520. His father, Richard Cecil of Burghley, Northamptonshire, rose high in favour with Henry VIII., and left large estates at his death in 1552. Educated at the grammar-schools of Stamford and Grantham, young Cecil thence passed in 1535 to St John's College, Cambridge, where he was remarkable alike for his diligence and aptitude in learning, but where he formed an imprudent attachment for a wine-seller's daughter, Mary Cheke, the sister of the great Greek scholar. They were married in 1541, two months after his entering Gray's Inn, but she died three years later, leaving him one son. At Gray's Inn he devoted himself assiduously to the study of law. History, genealogy, and theology also formed part of his studies at this time; and his knowledge of the last recommended him to the notice of Henry VIII., who in 1547 presented him with the valuable office of *custos breviarum*. His second marriage (1545), to the daughter of Sir Anthony Cooke, procured him the patronage of the Protector Somerset, who in 1547 made him Master of Requests, and in the following year his secretary. He shared in Somerset's disgrace, even to two months' imprisonment in the Tower; but in 1550 his pre-eminent abilities secured for him the post of secretary of state, and in 1551 the honour of knighthood. During his second secretaryship,

Cecil effected most important and beneficial changes in the commercial policy of the country. With a sagacity far beyond the spirit of his age, he endeavoured to throw trade open, and did succeed in abolishing some monopolies; but others proved too strong for him, standing as he did alone, at a time when exclusive privileges were considered the only sureties of a profitable trade. During Mary's reign he conformed to Catholicism, and was one of Pole's escort from Brussels to England, but to him was mainly owing the rejection of the bill introduced into parliament to confiscate the estates of Protestant refugees. Prior to Mary's death, he had entered into correspondence with Elizabeth, who, on her accession to the throne (1558), at once recognising Cecil's capacity for government, appointed him chief secretary of state. A life of Cecil from this time until his death would be a forty years' history of England, when England was greatest, seeing that he was alike the originator and director of that policy which made Elizabeth's reign memorable above that of any other English sovereign. For although Elizabeth, in occasional caprice, might favour other courtiers, Burghley was the statesman whose judgment she relied on in all matters of consequence. His policy at home and abroad was at once shrewd and cautious, liberal and comprehensive, while he displayed a power of decision, ready and stern, when necessity demanded. As a statesman, he was above animosities and favouritism; his enemies never suffered, and his friends profited nothing, by his power. Capacity, truth, and honour were what he sought in public men. Had he been less just, history might have been more generous to his memory, whose darkest blot is his employment of a whole army of spies. The queen created him Baron Burghley in 1571, and conferred on him the Order of the Garter in the succeeding year, when he was also made lord high treasurer, an office he held till his death. His emoluments were as nothing to his expenditure, which was especially lavish in the building and beautifying of his stately mansions—Burghley, Theobalds in Herts, and Cecil House in the Strand. He died at the last of these on 4th August 1598, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. From his first-born, Thomas (1542–1622), created Earl of Exeter in 1605, was descended Henry, eighth earl (1754–1804), who in 1801 was made Marquis of Exeter, and whose marriage in 1791, two years before his accession to the earldom, to a Shropshire maiden, Sarah Hoggins (1774–97), forms the theme of Tennyson's 'Lord Burleigh.' From the second son, Robert (1563–1612), created Earl of Salisbury in 1605, came James, seventh earl, who was raised to the Marquisate of Salisbury in 1789. See Nare's *Memoirs of Lord Burghley* (3 vols. 1828–31), and works cited under ELIZABETH.

Burghs, CONVENTION OF. See BOROUGH.

Burgkmair, HANS, a noted old German painter and wood-engraver, was born at Augsburg in 1473, and died there in 1531. He was the father-in-law of the elder Holbein and the friend of Albert Dürer, whose influence is manifest in his works. Several excellent paintings by Burgkmair are preserved in the galleries of Munich, Berlin, Augsburg, and Vienna; but he is best known as a wood-engraver, his cuts amounting in all to nearly 700. Among the most celebrated of these is his 'Triumph of the Emperor Maximilian,' in 135 cuts, with a description by the emperor himself; and 'The Wise King,' another fine series of 237 cuts.

Burglary (an Old Fr. law term, made up of *bourg*, 'a town,' and *leres*, 'a robber,' from Lat. *latro*), in the criminal law of England, is defined to

be a breaking and entering a dwelling-house by night, with intent to commit some felony therein, whether such intent be executed or not. By the Consolidation Act, 1861, night is defined as extending from 9 P.M. to 6 A.M. House means a permanent building in which the owner, or the tenant, or any member of the family habitually sleeps at night. A building may be constructed in several parts without internal communication so as to constitute separate houses, but outhouses, at least, where there is communication either immediate or by means of a covered or inclosed passage, are regarded as part of the dwelling-house. Occasional residence is sufficient, but not the mere sleeping of a caretaker in a house not otherwise used as a residence. Burglary thus corresponds to the ancient *hamocna* or *hamfare* of the Anglo-Saxon law, which did not adopt, as was elsewhere done, a distinction depending on the number of house-breakers. The punishment was formerly capital, but since 1837 the maximum punishment is penal servitude for life, and not less than five years' penal servitude, or two years' imprisonment. This punishment may also be inflicted in the case of breaking into a place of worship and committing a felony there, although by day. As regards similar offences during the day, and in buildings not dwelling-houses, see **HOUSEBREAKING**. Neither the name Burglary, nor the legal distinction, is known to the Scottish law, although housebreaking by night is generally reckoned a more serious affair than housebreaking by day.

In the United States, burglary is punished by state laws, but the common law is generally followed. Some states include breaking into shops, offices, warehouses, factories, and meeting-houses as burglary. An act by congress of 1825 expressly includes breaking into boats and vessels with intent to commit a felony. In some states the same deed done in the daytime is defined as burglary in the second degree. The night is the time between one hour after sunset and one hour before sunrise, or when the features of a man cannot be clearly discerned. In the United States, burglary is never punished by penal servitude for life.

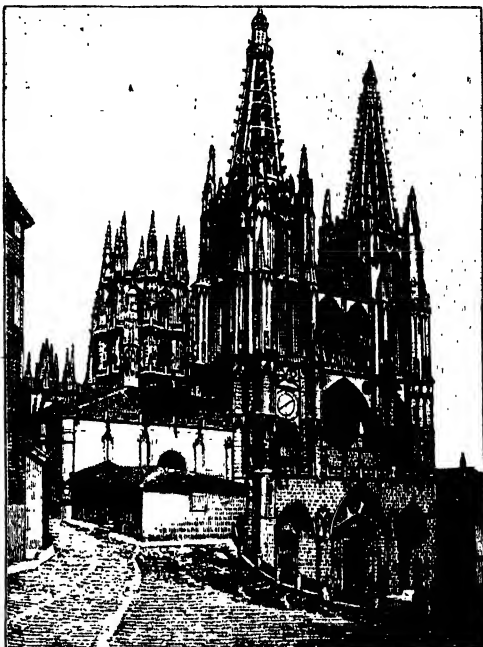
Burglen, a village of Switzerland, in the canton of Uri, about a mile from Altorf, is the traditional birthplace of William Tell. The supposed site of the patriot's house is now occupied by a chapel, erected in 1522, upon the walls of which are represented certain well-known scenes from his history. Pop. 1478.

Burgomaster, a kind of Gull (q.v.).

Burgomaster, the Anglicised form of the Dutch *burgemeester* (German *bürgermeister*), the title of the chief-magistrate of a city or town, analogous to the French *maire*, the English *mayor*, and the Scotch *provost*.

Burgos, a city of Spain, the ancient capital of the kingdom of Old Castile, stands on the right bank of the river Arlanzon, 225 miles N. of Madrid by rail. Burgos, which is the see of an archbishop, was founded in 884. Many of the gloomy old houses of its early history still remain. In the castle, Edward I. of England was espoused to Eleanor of Castile. The cathedral, founded in 1221, ranks with those of Toledo and Leon, the three great Spanish churches of the Early Pointed period. 'Better known than either of the others,' says Mr Street, 'Burgos is inferior in scale and interest, and its character has been much altered by added works more or less Rococo in character, so that it is only by analysis and investigation that the 13th-century church is still seen under and behind the more modern excrescences.' Still, it is a glorious building, with its twin-spired western façade, its exquisite lantern, and its fifteen chapels

so rich in fine sculpture and tombs, of which there are upwards of 60, with 44 altars and fully 100 full-length statues. The church of Agueda is associated with the legend of the Cid; that of San Esteban was formerly a convent. The chief street is the Espolon, which forms a promenade by the river. The town-hall is a modern building. There are several convents in the neighbourhood. The suburbs are connected with the older part of the town by three stone bridges. Burgos was the birthplace of the Cid (q.v.), whose bones are preserved at the town-hall, as also those of Pedro the Cruel, San Julian, and San Lesme.



Burgos Cathedral.

It has manufactures of woollens and linens, and some traffic as a mart of agricultural produce. It has several hospitals and educational institutions: the university founded in 1550 is now obsolete, but there is a college with a staff of twenty-one professors. The city formerly had a much larger population—as many as 50,000—but on the removal of the court to Madrid in the 16th century, it began to decline in population and importance. It was further greatly injured in November 1808 by the French, who sacked it. In 1812 the castle was four times unsuccessfully besieged by Wellington, who, however, took it in the following year, when the French blew it up, as well as the fortifications. Pop. (1884) 28,781.—The province of Burgos has an area of 7082 sq. m., and a population (1884) of 348,152. The surface is elevated, the soil fertile, yielding grain and fruits. The hills afford rich pasture; and gold, silver, iron, lead, and copper are found.

Burgoyne, JOHN, British general and dramatist, was born in 1723, and entered the army in 1740. He eloped three years later with a daughter of the Earl of Derby, resided nine years in France (1747-56), and then resuming active service, distinguished himself in Portugal by the capture of Alcantara (1762). Several years followed of fashionable life, during which he sat in parliament as a Tory, till in 1774 he was sent out to America, and in the summer of 1777 led an expedition

from Canada into the rebellious districts. On 6th July he took Ticonderoga; but on 17th October, after two engagements, his retreat cut off, and his ammunition exhausted, he found himself forced to surrender to General Gates at Saratoga (q.v.). The British and American armies at the time of the capitulation are estimated by American writers at 5804 and 10,817; by English, at 3500 and 20,000. On his return to England he lost all his appointments, and went over to the Whigs, who, when in 1782 they came into power, made him commander-in-chief in Ireland. This office he held eighteen months, and subsequently devoted himself to light literature. He was the author of some pamphlets in defence of his conduct, of *The Maid of the Oaks* (1775), and of *The Heiress* (1786), a most successful comedy. In 1787 he was one of the managers for conducting the impeachment of Warren Hastings; and he died on 3d June 1792. See his *Life* by E. B. de Fonblanque (1876).

Burgoyne, SIR JOHN FOX, Bart., engineer officer, a natural son of the above, was born in 1782. After three years at Eton (where he was Hallam's fag) and two at Woolwich, he entered the Royal Engineers in 1798; from 1800 to 1807 served in the Mediterranean; was with Moore at Corunna in 1809; and served under Wellington through all the Peninsular war, well earning the K.C.B., which he did not, however, receive till 1838. In 1814 he was commanding engineer of the expedition to New Orleans, and in 1826 of Clinton's to Portugal. In the Crimean war he was chief of the engineering department of the British army; but the discovery that Sebastopol could not be taken off-hand led, in February 1855, to his unjust recall. However, he was made a baronet in 1856, constable of the Tower in 1865, and a field-marshal in 1868, besides receiving many more marks of honour. He died 7th October 1871. See his *Life* by Colonel Wrottesley (2 vols. 1873).

Burgundy, once an independent kingdom of wide extent, and later a French province (Fr. *Bourgogne*). The ancient Burgundians (*Burgundi* or *Burgundiones*) were originally a German tribe settled on the banks of the Oder and the Vistula, who afterwards extended themselves to the Rhine and the Neckar, and in 406 penetrated into Roman Gaul. In 437 they sustained a defeat from the Huns, and placed themselves under the supremacy of the Romans, by whom they were settled in the modern Savoy. From their seat there they extended their dominion in the confusion attendant on the downfall of the Roman empire till it embraced nearly the whole Rhone valley, with the exception of Provence. Their conversion to Christianity took place in the course of eight days! They adopted a brief Arian confession of faith, and were baptised. The Burgundian kingdom was, however, unable to maintain itself against the Franks, and in 534 it was conquered by that people.

The weak government of the later Carolingian kings allowed Burgundy once more to assert an independent existence under Boso of Vienne in 832. Boso's realm, known as Cisjuran Burgundy, or, from its capital, the kingdom of Arles (Arles), lay mainly in the basin of the Rhone. A second Burgundian state arose about the same time in the country between the Saone and the Reuss, and was known as Transjuran or Upper Burgundy. These states, united in 930, were for a time powerful and famous; but in 1038, on the extinction of the royal dynasty, Burgundy became part of the German empire, and continued to form a part of it for nearly three centuries. It was afterwards broken into several fragments, nearly all of which were gradually absorbed by France.

In mediæval times the name of Burgundy is better known as associated with the dukedom founded by Richard, Count of Autun, a brother of the Boso above mentioned. The nucleus of the dukedom was in Lower Burgundy, the region which afterwards became the French province of Burgundy, to the north and west of the other Burgundian realms. Its brilliant period began when John of France in 1363 conferred the dukedom on his son Philip the Bold. By his marriage with Margaret, heiress of the Count of Flanders, Philip added to his dukedom a great part of the Low Countries, and was appointed regent of France during the insanity of Charles VI. of France. The quarrels of the rival dukes of Burgundy and Orleans at this period, and during the English invasions of Henry V., made a great noise in France, and were most fatal to its prosperity. In 1435 their feuds were arranged by the treaty of Arras, which led to great increase in the possessions of Burgundy. Charles the Bold (1467-77) was one of the most powerful princes in Christendom, and had a gorgeous court. The possession of the flourishing cities of Flanders made him the wealthiest monarch of Europe, and by this time the House of Burgundy had acquired almost the entire Netherlands. His power was shattered by the victories of the Swiss at Granson and Murten, and he was slain at Nancy (1477). After that Burgundy no longer played a great rôle as an independent state. Louis XI. of France, as overlord, appropriated the dukedom. Mary, daughter and heiress of Charles, marrying Maximilian of Austria, transferred to that house the rest of her dominions; and they passed to Maximilian's grandson, the emperor Charles V. The final result was, that the domains of Burgundy properly so called were incorporated with France, while its possessions in the Low Countries remained with the House of Hapsburg. The portion of Burgundy that fell to the Hapsburgs, together with the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, formed, from 1512 till the rebellion of the Netherlands, one of the ten 'circles' of the German empire. Ultimately they went to constitute modern Belgium. See CHARLES THE BOLD, NETHERLANDS, PHILIP THE BOLD, PHILIP THE GOOD.—A later Duke of Burgundy (1682-1712), the grandson of Louis XIV. of France, is chiefly known as the unworthy pupil of the great Fénélon.

The French province of Burgundy, as constituted in 1477, comprised what are now the départements of Ain, Côte-d'Or, Saône-et-Loire, and Yonne, with parts of adjoining departments; and among its towns were Dijon, Macon, Autun, Châlon-sur-Saône, and Bourg. The wines of Burgundy are treated separately. See Dubois, *La Bourgogne depuis son Origine* (2 vols. 1867).

Burgundy Pitch, a resinous substance prepared from common Frankincense (q.v.), the spontaneous exudation of the Norway spruce-fir (*Abies excelsa*; see FIR) by melting it in hot water, by which means it is freed from a considerable part of the volatile oil which it contains. By straining it through a coarse cloth, impurities are also removed. Burgundy pitch is of a yellowish-white colour, hard and brittle when cold, but softening by the heat of the hand, and readily adhering to the skin. It has a not unpleasant resinous odour, and when pure, no bitter taste. It is used in medicine as an external application only, and generally acts as a mild irritant. A very common application of it is as a plaster in complaints of the chest, and in rheumatic complaints. It enters also as an ingredient with resin, oils, &c., into a compound plaster of similar use. The Burgundy pitch of commerce is now principally brought from Finland, Austria, and Switzerland; but the greater

part of what is sold under that name is made by melting together pitch, rosin, and turpentine, and agitating with water, thereby imparting to it the necessary yellowish colour. This imitation may be distinguished from the genuine Burgundy pitch by its bitter taste, less agreeable odour, and by its not being soluble in twice its weight of glacial acetic acid.

Burgundy Wines are chiefly the produce of vineyards cultivated on the hilly lands forming the Côte-d'Or, and rank amongst the finest in the world. The wines of Upper Burgundy, and the wines of Lower Burgundy (Yonne), Macon, and Beaujolais, are other two groups of Burgundies. The finest of the *white* Burgundy is Mont Rache; Chablis is a *white* wine of Lower Burgundy. Beaune is the centre of the trade. The most celebrated of the *red* wines of Burgundy are Romanée-Conti, Chambertin, Richebourg, Clos-Vougeot.

Burhanpur, a town of India, in Nimar district, Central Provinces, on the north bank of the Tapti, 280 miles NE. of Bombay, and 2 from the railway station of Lalbāgh. The remains of buildings show that the town extended over an area of 5 sq. m. when under the Moguls. Eight sets of aqueducts can still be traced. The city was taken by General Wellesley in 1803, but it was only in 1860 that Burhanpur came completely under control of the British government. The town contains a palace built by Akbar, and a mosque built by Aurangzebe. Although on the decline, there are still some manufactures of cotton and of muslin, silk, and brocade, for which the place was formerly notable. Pop. (1881) 30,017.

Burial, a word of Teutonic origin (A.S. *byrgan*, 'to bury'), is applied to the prevalent method among civilised nations of disposing of the dead by committing them to the earth. The general tendency of mankind has always been to bury the dead out of sight of the living; and various as the methods of accomplishing this end have been, they have resolved themselves into three great classifications: (1) The simple closing up of the body in earth or stone; (2) the burning of the body, and the entombing of the cinders; and (3) the embalming of the body. The first of these is the earliest form of which we have any knowledge. The palæolithic cave-dwellers of France and Belgium buried their dead in natural grottos and crevices of the rocks similar to those in which they lived. The later stone-age people throughout Europe buried in chambered barrows and cairns. The bronze-age people buried in unchambered barrows, or in cemeteries of stone cists set in the ground, often in natural eminences of sand or gravel, or surrounded by circles of standing stones. Cremation was practised side by side with simple inhumation throughout the prehistoric period. It was also a general characteristic of burial in pagan times that the dead, whether cremated or not, were provided with grave-goods, such as urns or vessels of clay, bronze, gold, or glass, clothing and personal ornaments, implements, and weapons. Christianity abolished cremation, and restricted the provision of grave-goods to the burial of kings and priests, who continued to be interred in their royal and sacerdotal robes, and with their insignia of office. The stone cist became the stone-lined grave of the early Christian cemeteries, and the stone sarcophagus, which can be traced back to the time of the Egyptian kings who built the Pyramids, continued throughout the middle ages. In the first four centuries of the Christian era the Christians at Rome had buried their dead in the Catacombs, a series of subterranean excavations, consisting of long horizontal passages, with recesses on either side, arranged in tiers, for the reception of the

bodies, closed in by slabs bearing inscribed memorials and emblems of the faith. During the persecutions of the 2d century the Catacombs were used as places of assembly for worship; and the association of the church and the cemetery thus established has continued ever since. It was not till the 9th century, however, that the formal consecration of churchyards became customary. In Egypt, and perhaps also in Palestine, the Christian church inherited the practice of embalming, to which there is frequent allusion in the Scriptures. The Israelites may have learned the art from the Egyptians, among whom it was so extensively practised, that Egyptian corpses, as inoffensive as any article of wood or stone, are scattered over Europe in museums, and are even to be found as curiosities in private houses. The soil and climate of Upper Egypt seem to have afforded facilities for embalming unmatched in any other part of the world; and in other places the vestiges of the practice are comparatively rare, though it is not unusual even yet to embalm royal corpses, and in some places to preserve a series of desiccated bodies, as in the vault of the monastery of Krenzburg, at Bonn, where the monks have been successively preserved in their costume for centuries. Cremation is described in the Homeric poems as an honourable mode of sepulture practised in the heroic ages of Greece. The Romans, who in the time of the Republic had interred their dead, adopted the Grecian usage in the days of Sulla. It is mentioned in the Sagas as the older custom of the early Norsemen, who used occasionally to place the viking in his ship, and 'send him flaming out to sea,' instead of entombing him beneath the mound of earth, with all his belongings, in his vessel set on even keel, which was the more usual method. The Esthonians also practised cremation; and the custom was retained till the 10th century among the tribes along the Volga, along with the horrible accompaniment of human sacrifice in honour of the dead, as we learn from the narrative of Ahmed Ibn Fozlan, who states that he was an eye-witness of the whole ceremonies. It was prohibited among the conquered Saxons, under pain of death, by Charlemagne. It is still practised in India, but without the suttee, or burning of the living widow with the corpse of the husband. Until quite recently cremation was a common custom in Japan, and was practised side by side with unburned interment. The latter has been the universal custom in Europe from the several dates of the introduction of Christianity into the different countries.

Some of the grandest buildings in the world have been tombs; such are the Pyramids, the castle of St Angelo, the tomb of Cecilia Metella, and many temples in eastern countries. The notion that the dead may require the things they have been fond of in life has also preserved to the existing world many relics of the customs of past ages; the tombs of Egypt have supplied an immense quantity of them, which have taught the present age more of the manners of ancient nations than all the learned books that have been written. Herodotus tells us of favourite horses and slaves sacrificed at the holocaust of the dead chief. The same thing has been done in our own day in Ashanti.

Amongst the ancients an unburned or unburied body was held to be disgraced, and the spirit was unhappy till a kindly stranger at least threw a few handfuls of earth on the corpse. In the Christian countries, too, the denial of the rite of Christian burial involved a judgment on the life of the deceased; this sad fate was usually or frequently reserved for the unbaptised, including unbaptised infants, non-Catholics, excommunicated persons, notorious mockers at religion and evil livers, unrepentant sinners, persons who did not take the

Eucharist at least once a year, executed criminals, suicides, persons who fell in duels; and till the Revolution every French stage-player had to be content with burial in unconsecrated ground. Thus in 1730 the brilliant actress, Adrienne Lecouvreur, had for this reason alone to be buried in unconsecrated ground without the semblance of a religious rite, in spite of strong pressure brought to bear on the Archbishop of Paris.

In England, burial in some part of the parish churchyard is a common-law rite, which may be enforced by mandamus—that is, every person may be buried in the parish where he dies. But the body of a parishioner cannot be interred in a metal coffin or vault, or even in any particular part of a churchyard, as, for instance, the family vault, without an additional fee. By the canons of the Church of England, clergymen cannot refuse or delay to bury any corpse that is brought to the church or churchyard; on the other hand, a conspiracy to prevent a burial is an indictable offence. It is a popular error that a creditor can arrest or detain the body of a deceased debtor; and the doing such an act is indictable as a misdemeanour. It is also an error that permitting a funeral procession to pass over private grounds creates a public right of way. By Acts of 1823, the inhabitants of any parish, township, or place, when going to or returning from attending funerals of persons in England who have died and are to be buried there, were exempted from any toll within these limits; and in 1824 the same regulation was extended to Scotland; the only difference being, that in the latter case the limitation of the district is described by the word *parish* alone. Not till 1823 was the barbarous mode of burying suicides at cross roads, with a stake driven through the body, abolished. It was then enacted that their burial should take place, without any marks of ignominy, privately in the parish churchyard, between the hours of nine and twelve at night, under the direction of the coroner. In Scotland, the right of burial in a churchyard is an incident of property in the parish; but it is a mere right of burial, and there is not necessarily any corresponding ownership in the *solum* or ground of the churchyard. Registration (q.v.) of death should precede burial. The solemn rites of burial at sea are regulated by the necessities of the case. Usually the dead body is sewn up in a hammock, with a weight attached to the feet, and a modified form of the English burial service is read before the body is committed to the deep.

At various times, and in various places, there has been much popular excitement as to the possibility or probability of persons' being buried in a state of suspended animation, but still really alive. Few of the many stories of cases of this kind have been authenticated; if any such occurs, it must be the result of inexcusable haste and carelessness. A competent medical man can easily decide by auscultation whether the heart has ceased to beat. (For the other signs of death, see DEATH, CATALEPSY.) In some places the dead are kept for a time in mortuary houses specially fitted up for the purpose—a bell-pull being attached to the extremities of the corpse, so as to give a summons on the smallest motion of the body. But these precautions have always proved needless; a corpse has never revived under such circumstances.

In Christian countries, if the remains of the saint to whom a church was dedicated could be obtained, they were buried near the altar in the choir. It became a prevalent desire to be buried near these saints, and the bodies of men eminent for their piety, or high in rank, came thus to be buried in churches. It can scarcely be said that a practice so detrimental to the public health as the burial

within churches, was checked in this country until the whole system of intramural interment, including the practice of pit burial, as it was called, was attacked by Southwood Smith, Walker, Chadwick, and other sanitary reformers. Measures were afterwards carried for shutting graveyards in crowded cities, and placing internments in open cemeteries under sanitary control. The first great measure was passed in 1850, when the Board of Health was made a Burial Board for the metropolis, and power was given to the Privy-council to close the city graveyards. The act was extended to the English provinces in 1853, and to Scotland in 1855, and has been repeatedly amended.

The main features of burial legislation are these: The Privy-council may, on the representation of the Home Secretary, order the discontinuance of burial in any graveyard, and may interfere to prevent any vault or place of burial becoming dangerous to health. They may also regulate burials in cemeteries established under statute. Licenses may be got for the continued use of private vaults and graves. The Privy-council may also require the vestry in an English parish to meet and consider whether a new burial-ground shall be provided. If they proceed, a burial board of from three to nine persons is appointed by the vestry. Town-councils in boroughs, and local boards of health, may be constituted burial boards by order in council. Parishes may combine for this purpose, and the burial-ground need not be within the parish. It must not be within 100 yards of any dwelling-house, without the consent of the owner in writing. Part of the burial-ground must be consecrated, part unconsecrated; but the fees, which are subject to public control, must be the same in both parts. The boards are authorised to arrange for the conveyance of the dead, and to provide reception-houses. They are also bound to keep accurate registers of interments. Any expenses beyond receipts are charged on the poor-rate. In 1872 very valuable suggestions for providing and managing burial-grounds were issued by the Home Secretary. These deal with situation, soil and drainage, paths, fencing and planting, size of grave spaces (which should be 9 feet by 4 feet, or 4 square yards, with a depth of from 4 to 6 feet), reopening of graves, which is permitted after 14 years, &c. The controlling authority in such matters will now be the new County Council. There are about 500 burial boards in England, who have expended £1,600,000 on the provision of cemeteries. Thousands of churchyards have been closed. There is also a very large number of cemeteries conducted by companies for profit. The administrative arrangements in Scotland are very similar, the Parochial Board being there the Local Authority, and the ratepayers being entitled to raise the question of closing an old, or providing a new burial-ground by petition before the sheriff.

In the United States, neglect to bury a dead body by any one whose duty it is to bury it, and having sufficient means to do so, is a misdemeanour. It is also a misdemeanour to fail to notify a coroner that a body on which an inquest ought to be held is lying unburied, or to bury or otherwise dispose of such body without giving notice to the coroner.

For other matters connected with the subject of burial, see CEMETERIES, CHURCHYARDS; CREMATION, EMBALMING; TOMB, COFFIN, CATACOMBS, BARROWS, CAIRNS, PYRAMIDS, TOPE. And for the law of the subject, see Glen, *Law relating to Burial of the Dead* (1881); Baker, *Laws relating to Burials* (1882).

Burial Societies are friendly societies constituted in the usual manner, and with the express object of supplying a fund for paying the funeral expenses of the members on their death (see

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES). It became customary to enter the names not only of adults, but of children, in such societies. The proceedings of the criminal courts have shown that, in some instances, children on whose lives such an insurance was effected have been killed or allowed to die of neglect, and the alarm created by such instances was enhanced by the discovery that children were frequently insured in more than one society. To obviate this calamitous use of a beneficial arrangement, it was provided that no insurance of a child under six years of age in a burial society should be legal. The Hon. E. Lyulph Stanley, Inspector under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875, says, in a report on Friendly Societies, 1885 (B.B. 89), referring to burial societies: 'I wish to make a general remark on burial societies which has been impressed upon me during this inspection. It is that I am satisfied that there is a large amount of insurance of persons without their knowledge by persons not entitled to insure them, and that in this way frauds are extensively practised on burial societies, and no doubt these are temptations to murder.' On the other hand, in evidence before the Select Committee on Friendly Societies in 1849, it was stated in respect of Liverpool, that in the societies of that city, numbering some 100,000 members, no case of death by violence for the sake of burial money had occurred. In the Friendly Societies Act of 1850, and in that of 1875 (38 and 39 Vict. chap. 60), stringent arrangements for certifying the cause of death have been adopted.

Buriats, a Mongol race, with several branches, in East Siberia, on both sides of Lake Baikal, numbering about 208,000. They are a peace-loving but slothful and discourteous people, prone to petty thefts, and passionately fond of drink. Though some have become good farmers, the majority are nomads, breeding cattle, or living by hunting and fishing. Some of the tribesmen have of late years, however, studied with success several branches of science; and the blankets, leather, and metal-work of the people are known throughout Siberia. Those dwelling west of the lake have conformed to the Greek Church, and the others have adopted Buddhism; but of most, Shamanism (q.v.) is still the actual religion. Under Russian rule since 1644, they yet preserve among themselves a patriarchal form of government. There is a Grammar and Vocabulary by Castren and Schiefner (St Petersburg, 1857) of their language; and a Grammar by Orloff (1878).

Buridan, JEAN, a French schoolman of the 14th century, born at Béthune, in Artois, about 1300, studied at Paris under Occam, became himself a teacher of the nominalist philosophy, and was rector of the university of Paris in 1327. Of his life almost nothing is known, but it is certain that he was alive as late as 1358. There is a tradition that he had to flee from France, and that at Vienna he helped to found the university, but this is contrary to historical fact. His works treat of logic, metaphysics, physics, ethics, and politics—almost every subject save theology, which he avoided because it does not rest on reason alone, the sole authority in philosophy. Like Occam, he denied objective reality to universals, which are mere words, singulars or individuals alone existing (see NOMINALISM). In his comments on the *Nicomachean Ethics* of Aristotle he makes the will depend entirely on motives, the only freedom being a certain power of suspending the judgment and determining the direction of the intellect. The celebrated sophism known to the schoolmen under the name of Buridan's Ass, has been discussed at superfluous length, and with needless ingenuity, by Bayle. It occurs nowhere in his

books, and was no doubt due to some opponent who wished to cast ridicule upon his determinism. The sophism referred to is, that if a hungry ass be placed exactly between two bundles of hay of equal size and attractiveness, it must starve, as there is nothing to determine the will of the animal towards either bundle. (This hypothetical case is, however, found in Aristotle, *De Caelo*, ii. 14, and in the fourth book of Dante's *Paradiso*.) His chief works are *Summulae de Dialectica* (1487), *Compendium Logice* (1489), *In Aristotelis Metaphysica* (1518), and *Questiones in x. libros Ethicorum Aristotelis* (1489).

Burin, or GRAVER (Fr. *burin*, from Ital. *borino*; but originally cognate with English *bore*), the principal instrument used in copper-engraving, is made of tempered steel, and is of prismatic form, the graving end being ground off obliquely to a sharp point. The distinctive style of a master is frequently described by such expressions as a *soft burin*, a *graphic burin*, or a *brilliant burin*.

Burino. See CHIZEROTS.

Buriti Palm (*Mauritia Sagus vinifera*), a beautiful palm which grows in great abundance in the swamps of Northern Brazil, particularly on the Orinoco. It is one of the loftiest of palms, reaching 100 feet. The stem yields a kind of sago, which is cut in slices and eaten like bread; the pulp and seed of the sago-like fruit are eaten and made into sweetmeats—and the abundant sweet sap before flowering is drunk fresh, or is easily fermented into palm wine by the natives. Humboldt describes how the Guarani people at the mouth of the Orinoco not only derive their food from the tree, but make their nets, mats, hats, &c. from its fibres and leaves, and yet more literally live upon the tree, by suspending huts of its matting from stem to stem during the rainy season, annually returning to this arboreal existence. *M. fleucosa*, the Moriti or Sea Palm of Trinidad and Brazil, is of similar appearance and uses; but its leaves yield better fibre, and its stem a useful wood.

Burke, EDMUND, a celebrated orator and philosophic politician, was born in 1729 at Dublin, where his father had an extensive practice as an attorney. In 1741 Burke was sent to school at Ballitore, in the county of Kildare, and in 1743 entered Trinity College, Dublin. His undergraduate course was not marked by the ordinary distinctions, and he mainly devoted himself to a very extensive and desultory course of reading. Cicero was his favourite author. In 1748 he graduated B.A. Being destined for the English bar, he proceeded to London in 1750 to keep his terms at the Middle Temple. He never took kindly, however, to legal studies, and ultimately abandoned the idea of becoming a barrister.

The period from 1750 to 1760 in the life of Burke was a time of obscurity, spent chiefly in literary work, which in time brought him a considerable reputation. His first important publication was the celebrated *Vindication of Natural Society*, written in imitation of the style and ridicule of the reasoning of Lord Bolingbroke, in which, with well-concealed irony, he confutes Bolingbroke's views of society by a *reductio ad absurdum*. It was published anonymously in 1756, when its author was twenty-seven; with many of its readers it passed as a serious work. Soon after, in the same year, appeared his well-known essay, *A Philosophical Inquiry into the Origin of our Ideas of the Sublime and Beautiful*—a treatise which attracted considerable attention both in this country and in Germany, and which, though crude, contains much able and independent thinking (see AESTHETICS). The same year Burke made a happy marriage with the daughter of a Bath physician, Dr Nugent.

In 1759 the first volume of the *Annual Register* appeared, a work which Burke originated, and to which he contributed largely till 1788. These writings of Burke not only introduced him to society, but opened up a wider field of activity. In 1761 Mr W. G. Hamilton ('Single-speech Hamilton'), then Secretary for Ireland, having appointed him his private secretary, he returned to Dublin, where he spent about two years, and received a pension on the Irish establishment of £300. In return for this favour Hamilton claimed that Burke should thenceforward devote his whole time to his special service, with the result that they had a violent quarrel, and Burke threw up his pension.

On his return to London he became a member of the Literary Club, the history of which is associated with almost every considerable name in the literature of the period. But literary society did not draw his attention from the chances of a political career. In 1765 he became private secretary to the Marquis of Rockingham, at that time premier, and in the same year was returned to parliament as member for Wendover. He obtained the seat through the influence of Lord Verney. His eloquence at once gained him a high position in the Whig party, and in the House of Commons. The Rockingham administration, however, lived only about a year, and with it terminated his second political employment. Though he held no office till the downfall of the North ministry in 1782, the public activity of Burke never ceased till his death. His eloquence, political knowledge, and force of character gave him a foremost place among the statesmen of the time.

The times were, indeed, unfavourable for a *new man*, who had only his natural genius to rely on for advancement, and whose strong convictions unfitted him to be an instrument of mere court or party interests. At that time there were two great forces in English politics, the court and the territorial aristocracy. With the accession of George III., the court had reasserted itself, and by an unsparring use of the public money in influencing elections, had gathered round it a powerful party. George III. found a willing servant in Lord North, whose long administration from 1770 till 1782 was marked by the unsuccessful coercion of the American colonies, by corruption, extravagance, and a prevailing reaction. Against this policy Burke and his Whig friends could only raise a strong protest. The best of Burke's writings and speeches belong to this period, and may be described as a defence and exposition of sound constitutional statesmanship against prevailing abuse and misgovernment. His first great pamphlet was *Observations on the Present State of the Nation*, a reply to George Grenville, written in 1769. In 1770 he published another great political pamphlet *On the Causes of the Present Discontents*, which treats of the many questions arising out of Wilkes' controversy, and the attitude of the court. Three great writings on the American struggle are perhaps the finest of his many efforts. These are the speech on *American Taxation* (1774), the speech on *Conciliation with America* (1775), and the *Letter to the Sheriffs of Bristol* (1777). In all three Burke is the advocate, with reference to the colonies, of wise and liberal measures, which would have averted all the mischief that ensued. In 1774 Burke had to retire from his seat for Wendover, but the important constituency of Bristol elected him as its representative. His Bristol seat he lost through loyalty to his political convictions. He claimed the right not to be a mere delegate, but the reasoning and independent representative of his constituents. When proposals were made for relaxing the restrictions on the trade of Ireland with Great Britain, and for alleviating the laws against Catholics, he

supported them in opposition to the wish of his Bristol constituents. With regard to Ireland generally, he showed a knowledge of her affairs, and a sympathy with her people, worthy of the best statesmanship. He had a kindly and reverent feeling for Catholicism; his mother and wife had been brought up in that faith, and he always advocated a broad and liberal policy towards its members.

The enlightened views of Burke were not pleasing to the majority of his Bristol constituents. He lost the seat in 1780, and from that time till 1794 he represented Malton. When the disasters and difficulties arising out of the American war had at last brought Lord North's government to a close, Burke's patron, Lord Rockingham, was called to office in 1782. Under him Burke held the post of Paymaster of the Forces, and he resumed it under the coalition government headed by the Duke of Portland in 1783. His tenure of office on each occasion was for only a few months; and the emoluments were reduced to £4000 a year in accordance with the principles laid down by himself in his *Plan for Economical Reform*.

After the fall of the Whig ministry in 1783 Burke was never again in office, and he was so far misled by party feeling that he opposed Pitt's measure for Free Trade with Ireland and the Commercial Treaty with France. In 1788 he opened the trial of Warren Hastings by the celebrated speech which will always rank among the masterpieces of English eloquence. Till his death the energies of Burke were now practically absorbed by the French Revolution. Loving 'liberty only in the guise of order,' he had from the beginning regarded the proceedings of the Revolution with suspicion. In 1773, during a visit to Paris, he had learned to dread the new opinions current amongst the leaders of French thought, and the excesses which soon marked the progress of the revolutionary movement made him tremble for social order. In 1790 he appeared as the champion of the old state of things in Europe by the publication of his famous *Reflections on the French Revolution*. This book had an influence far beyond that of any other writing of Burke. In less than a year it reached its eleventh edition. It was read all over Europe, and tended powerfully to encourage its rulers in a strenuous resistance to the Revolution. In the subsequent career of Burke, his attitude to the Revolution had a decisive influence, alienating him from Fox and many of his other Whig associates, but giving him a position of credit and honour in the political world, and especially with the reactionary portion of it, which he never enjoyed before. As time went on, Burke became more and more vehement in his denunciations of the French innovations, till he became incapable of expressing a calm and rational judgment about them. Most of his subsequent writings, the *Appeal from the New to the Old Whigs*, *Thoughts on French Affairs*, and *Letters on a Regicidal Peace*, are marred by the passion with which he urges the government not only to fight the Revolution but to suppress free opinions at home. Burke died 9th July 1797. He was buried in the little church at Beaconsfield, where in 1768 he had purchased the estate of Gregories. During his whole political life Burke's private affairs were sadly embarrassed. He had to borrow money to buy his estate, and he was always deeply in debt. He had considerable pensions granted him in 1794. A proposal to raise him to the peerage under the title of Lord Beaconsfield on his retirement from the House of Commons in that year, was arrested by the death of his only son.

Burke ranks as one of the foremost orators and political thinkers of England. He had vast knowledge of affairs, a glowing imagination which kindled everything he touched, a wide and passion-

ate sympathy with the most remote and unfamiliar conditions of life as shown in his great speeches on India, and an inexhaustible wealth of powerful and cultured expression. His manner and delivery as a speaker, however, was unattractive and even awkward and ungainly. Speeches which captivated the reader only served to empty the benches of the House of Commons. Generally, and especially in his earlier days, he was on the side of an orderly freedom and a well-considered progress; yet it should be remembered that party feeling led him to oppose some of the wisest and most liberal measures of the younger Pitt, and that the fiery vehemence of his utterances on the French Revolution did much to let loose the passions which made Europe a scene of war for three and twenty years. His views were lucid, comprehensive, and philosophic. Society he regarded as a stable and orderly system moved by large historic influences; but in his passionate reverence for ancient order, he greatly exaggerated the value of things as they were. The irritable and untractable temperament which grew upon him during his later years, together with his circumstances as a *new man* handicapped by social prejudice, prevented him from attaining a worthy position in the ministries of the time. Yet in the application to politics of vast knowledge, high moral principle, great intellectual power, and rich and noble gifts of expression, he still stands unrivalled among English statesmen and orators.

A collected edition of his works in quarto, begun in 1792, was finished in 1827; another edition of *Works and Correspondence*, in 8 vols. 8vo, in 1852; an edition of *Select Works* by E. J. Payne in Clarendon Press, 3 vols. 1874-78. His writings on Irish affairs were edited by Mr Matthew Arnold in 1881. The best biography of Burke is that of Sir J. Prior (1824; 5th ed. 1854). See also J. Morley's *Edmund Burke, a Historical Study* (1867); his admirable sketch in the *Men of Letters* series (1879); and Dilke's *Papers of a Critic* (1875).

Burke, Sir John Bernard, herald and genealogist, the son of John Burke (1787-1848), representative of a Tipperary family, who settled in London as a literary man, and in 1826 published the *Peerage and Baronage of the United Kingdom*. The son, born in London in 1815, and educated at Caen in Normandy, was trained as a lawyer, and called to the bar in 1839. In 1853 he was appointed Ulster King-of-arms, was knighted in 1854, became LL.D. of Dublin in 1867, and C.B. in 1868, and in 1874 was appointed governor of the National Gallery of Ireland. Besides editing the successive issues of the *Peerage* founded by his father (49th ed. 1887), he has published other works on the *Landed Gentry* (1846), *Extinct Peerages* (1846), *Anecdotes of the Aristocracy* (1849), *Family Romance* (1853), *The Vicissitudes of Great Families* (1859), *The Rise of Great Families* (1873), and *Reminiscences* (1882).

Burke, Robert O'Hara, one of the first white men to cross the Australian continent from south to north, was born at St Cleran, County Galway, in 1820, was educated in Belgium, served in the Austrian army (1840), became captain, joined the Irish constabulary (1848), and emigrated to Australia in 1853. While inspector of police in Victoria he accepted the leadership of an expedition for crossing the Australian continent. After many hardships, Burke and Wills reached the tidal waters of the Flinders River. Burke died of starvation on his return journey, 28th June 1861. An expedition brought his remains and Wills's to Melbourne; and statues have been erected to their memory. See *AUSTRALIA*, vol. i. p. 592; and *Wills's Exploration of Australia* (1863).

Burke, William, born in 1792, the partner with William Hare in a series of infamous murders. Both Irishmen and labourers, the latter started a lodging-house in a West Port close, Edinburgh, to which Burke came to live in 1827. Towards the close of that year they sold for dissection to Dr Robert Knox, instead of burying it, the body of an old pensioner who had died in the house, and the ease and safety with which they had earned this money tempted them to commit a series of murders to procure more bodies. Their plan was to inveigle unknown travellers into the lodging-house, make them drunk, and then suffocate them in such a way that the bodies showed no marks of violence. With the help of their wives they had already murdered fifteen persons, and received from Dr Knox for their bodies sums of money varying from £8 to £14, when their infamous trade was discovered by the police, aroused by the suspicions of the neighbors. Hare, the more execrable wretch of the two, was admitted king's evidence, and after his release found shelter in a nameless obscurity; while Burke was hanged, amid the execrations of the crowd, 28th January 1829. His abhorred name has added a word to the English tongue.

Burkitt, William, commentator, was born at Hitcham, Suffolk, in 1650. He was educated at Stowmarket, and Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, and must have been ordained at a very early age, as in 1672 he was curate, afterwards rector, at Milden, in Suffolk. In 1692 he was preferred to the vicarage of Dedham, in Essex, and here he died in 1703. Burkitt's sermons were soon forgotten; his *Notes* on the four Evangelists, and his *Expository Notes* on the New Testament, were long popular. The last was a meritorious compilation, although as Doddridge said, the 'sentiments vary in different parts of the work, as the authors from whom he took his materials were orthodox or not.'

Burleigh. See BURGHLEY, and BALFOUR (JOHN).

Burlesque (through Fr. from Ital. *burlesco*, 'a jest'), denoting a style of speaking, acting, writing, drawing, is a low and rude grade of the comic. The legitimate comic brings together contrasts with a final view to harmonising and reconciling them; the burlesque distorts and caricatures, and brings the incongruities into stronger relief. The farce is the burlesque of comedy. Deformities and monstrosities that excite disgust do not belong to the burlesque. The lofty and the abject, the great and the little are conjoined, with the sole view of exciting a laugh. Nor does the true burlesque turn real greatness and nobility into laughter, but only sham greatness—false pathos, and all hollow pretension and affectation. There is pure burlesque in Aristophanes, but the modern burlesque in sustained form may be said to have originated among the Italians, more particularly with the poet Berni. The genuinely national *buffone* of the Italians personates the burlesque. Carlo Gozzi, in his tragi-comedies, is perhaps the greatest in this vein. Some of the more remarkable burlesques in English literature are Chaucer's *Rime of Sir Thopas*, a burlesque of the long-winded and interminable stories of the middle ages; Beaumont and Fletcher's *Knight of the Burning Pestle*, on the imitations of the tales of chivalry; and the Duke of Buckingham's play, *The Rehearsal*, intended to ridicule the heroic language in contemporary plays. There are no happier examples in English than some of *The Rejected Addresses*. Butler's *Hudibras* has much of the burlesque in it, but is a book that stands quite by itself. Similarly, *Don Quixote* contains burlesque elements enough, while it is one of the greatest and wisest books in the world. Parody or Travesty is a species of

burlesque. There is a good collection in Morley's 'Universal Library' of English *Burlesque Plays and Poems* (1887).

Burlingame, ANSON, American diplomatist, born in 1820 at New Berlin, New York, was educated at Harvard, and after settling as a lawyer at Boston, became a prominent member of the Free-soil party. Elected to the Massachusetts senate in 1853, he entered congress in 1854. He was sent as United States minister to China by President Lincoln; and when, in 1867, he was returning home, the regent, Prince Kung, made him special Chinese envoy to the United States and the great powers of Europe. As such he succeeded (1868) in securing the acceptance and ratification by the United States and China of the Burlingame treaty, by which China officially accepted the principles of international law. He subsequently visited England, France, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, Prussia, and Russia as Chinese envoy, and died at St Petersburg, 23d February 1870.

Burlington, the name of three cities in the United States: (1) The capital of Des Moines county, Iowa, on the right bank of the Mississippi (here crossed by a railway bridge), 207 miles WSW. of Chicago by rail. It occupies a natural amphitheatre formed by the limestone bluffs which slope backward from the river, and is an important centre. Laid out in 1834, it is the seat of a Baptist college, and has manufactures of machinery, farming implements, flour, carriages, &c. Pop. (1870) 14,930; (1880) 19,450.—(2) A port of entry of Burlington county, New Jersey, on the Delaware, 7 miles above Philadelphia, with which, as well as with New York, it is connected by rail. It possesses an Episcopalian college (1846), and large manufactories of shoes, ironware, and thread. Pop. (1880) 6090.—(3) A port of entry and capital of Chittenden county, Vermont, and the most populous city in the state, beautifully situated on the eastern shore of Lake Champlain, 40 miles WNW. of Montpelier by rail. It has a good harbour, with a breakwater and lighthouse, and has access by canals and the Richelieu River to the Hudson and St Lawrence, besides railway communication with all parts of the United States and Canada. It is the seat of the State Agricultural College (1865), and of the Vermont University (1800), which crowns the slope on which the city stands. It has cotton, flour, and planing mills, machine-shops, and manufactures of furniture, &c., and is one of the largest lumber markets in the United States. Pop. (1870) 14,387; (1880) 11,365; (1885) 13,370.

Burlington. See BRIDLINGTON.

Burma is the largest of all the provinces of the Indian empire. It stretches from 28° lat., on the confines of Tibet, southward for 1100 miles, to 10° lat., far down the Malay Peninsula, and from 103° long., on the Chinese border, for 700 miles westward to the Bay of Bengal. It is contuminous with China and Siam on the east; and for the rest it is bounded by the Indian provinces of Bengal and Assam, and by the ocean. Its total area is about 280,000 sq. m., of which one-third belongs to the old province of Lower Burma and two-thirds to the new province of Upper Burma. The country consists of the great basin of the Irawadi and its affluents; the rugged country drained by the Salween and Sittang rivers, on the upper waters of which are situate the Shan States; and the narrow maritime provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim. The deltas of the Irawadi, Salween, Sittang, and Koladan rivers are flat plains, and there are smaller areas of level land at the mouths and on the banks of some of the feeders of the Irawadi. The level cultivable plains probably do not exceed

50,000 sq. m. in all. The rest of Burma is hilly broken country, covered for the most part with forest. There are large highland tracts, with a ruling elevation of 2000 to 4000 feet. The principal hill-ranges are the Patkoi Mountains in the north, which reach at one point a height of 12,000 feet, and from which outliers jut far down into the valleys of the Irawadi and the Chindwin; the China hills in the north-east, culminating in perpetual snow-peaks 15,000 feet high, close to the Chinese city of Talifoo; the Arakan Yoma range, running from Bengal to Cape Negrais; the Pegu Yoma range, separating the Sittang valley from the basin of the Irawadi; the Tenasserim range, running from the Salween River to the foot of the Malay Peninsula; and lastly, the Shan States, a vast upland, cleft by deep chasms, in which flow the Salween and the Cambodia rivers and their feeders. The chief river of Burma is the Irawadi, with a course of probably 1100 miles from its unknown source in the snows of Tibet down to the Bay of Bengal. This great stream is navigable all the year round by river-steamers, which, with their flats, carry 1000 tons of cargo and hundreds of passengers up to Bhamo, 700 miles from the sea, and 50 miles from the Chinese border. Some hundreds of miles of delicate channels of the Irawadi are also navigable by large river-steamers. Of the affluents of the Irawadi only the Chindwin, the Shweli, and the Myit-nge are navigable by large craft. The Chindwin is navigable for 300 miles in the rainy, and 150 miles in the dry season. The Salween River, which has its origin in the Tibet snows, is navigable for only about 80 miles from the sea. The Sittang River rises in the hills to the south-east of Mandalay. All these rivers and many of their feeders are traversed in the rainy season by tens of thousands of native barges and boats, which carry cargoes up to 120 tons. The rivers are the chief, and were, until British occupation, the only highways of the country. During the dry season all the rivers, except the very largest and the tidal channels, are too low for navigation; and therefore, until recently, no movement of heavy goods for any distance could take place from December to July over the greater part of the country. During the flood season the Burma rivers top their banks. The Irawadi at Prome, 200 miles from the sea, is about a mile wide, and there the difference between the highest and lowest level of the river is 45 feet. During the great floods the river water spreads over the country; and sometimes the flood-waters of the Irawadi submerge the country for 10 or 15 miles on either side to a depth of 4 to 14 feet. The inundated villages, however, do not suffer, as the houses are all built on piles, and the flood-waters move slowly.

Climate and Rainfall.—The rainfall varies widely in different parts of Burma. Along the coast from Akyab to Mergui the average rainfall exceeds 200 inches a year at each of the six registering stations. At Bassein, Rangoon, and Pegu, a little way inland, it averages 100 inches. Up the Irawadi valley the rainfall decreases rapidly; at Prome it is 42 inches, and at Thayetmyo only 37 inches. Information about the rainfall of Upper Burma is as yet meagre. Apparently there is a dry belt, with less than 30 inches of rain per annum, from Thayetmyo to Myingyan; at Mandalay, where the hills approach the river, the rainfall is about 45 inches a year; it may increase to 60 inches at Katha, and perhaps to 80 at Bhamo. On the Upper Chindwin, on the Ruby Mines plateau, on the Shan hills, and in the narrow valleys of the Salween and Sittang, the rainfall is heavy. In the delta and along the coast the rainy season lasts for five, six, or sometimes even seven months. During



those months the climate is very moist, but the heat is by no means excessive. From the middle of November to the end of January the climate is cool, and the thermometer at dawn sometimes falls as low as 60° F. From February to the end of April the climate of the delta is dry and hot, and the thermometer occasionally reaches 100° in the shade; but the nights are always cool, and there is never any hot wind as in India. Higher up the Irawadi valley at Prome, Thayetmyo, and in the dry belt, the climate is much hotter and dryer in the summer, and it is much cooler in the winter months. At Mandalay and Bhamo the months of December and January are cooler still; at Mandalay and over the dry belt, the dust and glare are sometimes excessive in April and May. On the Ruby Mines plateau, at an elevation of 5600 feet, the thermometer in the shade does not exceed 86° in the hottest season: in this neighbourhood an attempt is being made to found a sanatorium for European troops. The climate of Burma is more trying to Europeans than that of the plains of India.

Flora and Fauna.—The forests of Burma contain an abundance of useful and beautiful trees. The most important and valuable tree is the Teak (*Tectona grandis*). Teak trees, as well as trees of other kinds, are seen 15 to 25 feet in girth, and 90 or 120 feet from the ground to the lowest branch. The most beautiful and not the least useful of the products of the Burma forests is the bamboo. Different species, from the slender bamboo used for arrows, up to the giant bamboo 9 inches thick and 100 feet high, are employed for manifold purposes (see BAMBOO). Several Burma trees produce valuable wood-oil, varnish, tannin, and gums; and many creepers yield valuable fibres. There are rubber-yielding creepers besides the *Ficus elastica*; and cutch, obtained from the *Acacia catechu*, is a most valuable gum. Orchids, ferns, and mosses of much beauty are found in abundance. Ground flowers are comparatively few; but a Burma forest, particularly in the month of March, is quite bright with the many colours, and sweet with the varying scents of thousands of flowering trees, flowering creepers, flowering shrubs, and orchids.

Among the wild animals of Burma may be mentioned the elephant, three species of rhinoceros, tapir, buffalo, bison, many kinds of deer, small wild cattle, hog, tiger, leopard, bear, and wild dog. The forests are so vast, and in parts so dense, that the pursuit of wild animals is difficult. Among domestic animals, the buffalo, oxen, elephants, and ponies are all good. No horses are bred, sheep and goats are rare, and donkeys are hardly ever seen. The domestic fowls are better than in India. Pythons and cobras abound; and the hamadryad, the most deadly of eastern snakes, is occasionally met. The variety of birds is immense: the peacock of Burma is larger and more gorgeous than its Indian congener; the argus pheasant, the golden and the silver pheasant, are the most brilliant of the gallinaceous birds; aquatic birds, from the pelican and wild goose down to the snipe, abound. The quantity and variety of the fish caught on the coasts and inland waters of Burma are prodigious. Alligators are not usually eaten, but every other inhabitant of the water, from the shark down to the shrimp and sea-slug, either fresh or dried and salted, contributes to the food of the Burmese. Among the rarer delicacies furnished by marine creatures may be named the edible birds'-nests found in the caves of the Mergui Archipelago, and the eggs of the sea-turtle. The right to collect these eggs is leased by the state; and a small turtle-bank, not one mile long, on an island near one of the mouths of the

Irawadi, yields a rental of £1500 a year to the public treasury for turtle-eggs only.

Minerals.—The geology of Lower Burma has been examined by scientific officers of the Survey. Gold is found in small quantities by washing river-sand; silver is extracted at lead-workings in the Shan States, but not in great quantity. Iron, copper, lead, and tin exist in great quantity, but none of these pay for working, except tin, which is worked by Chinese settlers in the Mergui district. Attempts to work tin and lead after European methods have failed. Earth-oil or petroleum is found at many points on the Irawadi River and in Arakan. The Irawadi oil is a dark, viscous fluid, yielding only 20 per cent. of burning oil; while the Arakan oil is a light-coloured, clear fluid, that can be burned in a lamp as it comes from the well. About 550 wells in the Irawadi oil-region, and 150 wells in the Arakan region, are or have been worked. As yet, nothing in the shape of a springing well or of a constant supply has been found. Jade and amber are both found and worked in the country north of Bhamo, on the feeders of the Chindwin River. The mines are worked by the local tribes under the superintendence of Chinese; and jade is exported to China and Japan to a value of some £50,000 a year. Fine white marble is found near Mandalay, and is used for images of Buddha and for ornamenting pagodas. Coal exists at several places in the Shan States, at Kalé on the Chindwin River, and at Thingadaw on the Irawadi River above Mandalay. All these coal sources are in Upper Burma; one only, that on the Chindwin River, is being worked for steamer-fuel; some of the others were examined in 1887. The coal found as yet in Lower Burma has proved of poor quality and scanty in quantity. Limestone of good type is found and burned in many parts. Building stones are found in most districts outside the delta; near Mandalay the stone is particularly good. The ruby mines north of Mandalay yield the best rubies in the world. The ruby-yielding area stretches over about 200 sq. m. Rubies are found by sinking holes down to the ruby-bearing stratum, and then sifting or washing the earth raised therefrom. The mines were worked in rude fashion, and yielded about £100,000 worth of rubies a year. All large stones were royal property, but, in practice, most of the valuable gems were secreted and smuggled away. European machinery and skill have since 1888 been applied to working these mines.

Population.—The census of February 1881 showed the population of Lower Burma to be 3,736,771, and in 1888 it was about 4½ millions. It is conjectured that the population of Upper Burma, including the Shan States, cannot be less than 4½ millions. It may be much more. Probably the whole population of Burma may be distributed somewhat thus:

Burmans	5,450,000
Shans	2,000,000
Karens	700,000
Other hill tribes	800,000
Indians, Chinese, Europeans, and others	300,000
Total	9,250,000

The Burmans are a short-statured, thick-set people; they wear long hair on their heads, but have little hair on their faces. They are flat-featured, and nearer the Chinese than the Aryan type. They are excitable and impulsive; fond of fun and laughter; much given to dramas, dances, and shows of all kinds; up to a certain point courageous. They are callous to suffering in others, and ready to commit crimes of violence. Dacoity or robbery with violence by gangs is a common crime among Burmans; the proportion of violent crimes and of convicts to the population is far larger than in any other Indian province. Burmese

women are well treated; they go to market, keep shops, and take their full share in social and domestic affairs. Men and women are well clad; they delight in gay colours and in silk attire. Burmese young men and maidens arrange their matrimonial affairs for themselves when they grow up. Women as well as men can procure divorce for good

can Baptist missionaries; and now there are over 500 parishes of Christian Karens, containing nearly 200,000 souls; each parish supports its own church, pastor, school, and schoolmaster. The Chins live in the uplands between Arakan and the Chindwin River; they make yearly raids upon the peaceful villages of the Kubo and Chindwin



Buddhist Monks, with their Pupils.

cause. Widows and divorced wives can re-marry. Burmans make good peasant farmers, good boatmen, good shopkeepers. But they are unmethodical and unpunctual; they do not make good soldiers, or policemen, or factory hands. They are lavish in their expenditure, and seldom hoard money. The general level of prosperity and standard of comfort is high; there are few poor, and no beggars. The wages of unskilled labour may be quoted at 4 rupees a week in the delta districts, and at 2 rupees in Upper Burma, as compared with 1½ rupees in continental India. The staple food of the people is rice, which is as cheap as in India. Burmans eat fish or meat daily, and have more liberal diet than Indians of the same class. The existence of ample fertile land, near to good markets and available on payment of a moderate land-tax, explains the high rate of wages. Burmans are Buddhists by religion, and their form of Buddhism is purer than in any other country except Ceylon. There are no large land-owners, and there is no aristocracy in the country except the officials. The most influential and respected class are the Buddhist monks, whose function is to set an example of a correct life, and to instruct the young. These monks, of whom there are over 20,000 in the country, strictly observe their vows of celibacy and poverty; but they can unfrock themselves and return to the world when they please. They shave their heads, wear yellow robes, and live in monasteries. They are well cared for by their lay supporters. No monastery or pagoda has any property or endowment.

The Shans resemble the Burmans; but being highlanders, are poorer, harder, and more courageous. They have a remarkable turn for trading of all kinds. The Karens used to be nature-worshippers; they were despised and oppressed by the Burmans among whom they lived. They are less clever, but more persevering and methodical than Burmans. A large number of Karens have embraced Christianity at the teaching of Ameri-

can Baptist missionaries; and now there are over 500 parishes of Christian Karens, containing nearly 200,000 souls; each parish supports its own church, pastor, school, and schoolmaster. The Chins live in the uplands between Arakan and the Chindwin River; they make yearly raids upon the peaceful villages of the Kubo and Chindwin valleys. Some Chin settlements are found on the hills of Lower Burma, where they live very poorly. The Kachins inhabit the hills, and dominate the trade routes north and east of Bhamo; they used to levy blackmail on caravans to China. They are courageous, and defend their mountain fastnesses well. They command the approach to the jade mines, and the path from the Upper Irawadi into the Assam valley. Close under the Assam hills the Chins merge into and are apparently identical with the Singphos. The Paloungs are the wildest of the Shan races; they pluck and send to market wild tea from their hills.

Language.—The Burmese language is monosyllabic; it is written from left to right; the shape of the letters is circular; and most of the letters are perhaps rounded modifications of Sanskrit letters. The grammar is simple; but the language is difficult to acquire perfectly by reason of its many breathings and tones. Among other peculiarities of the language, two may be mentioned. Ordinary acts, such as sleeping, eating, or walking, are denoted by different words according to the status of the actor; and, when a number of persons or things is mentioned, a generic noun is added after the numeral. For instance, one man = *tu ta yauk*, or man one person; two monks = *pongyi na bi*, or monks two holy men; three cows = *naua ma thon gung*, or she cattle three head; five hills = *taung nga lon*, or hills five round things; ten guns = *they nat tsé let*, or guns ten long things. Burmese has been a written language for perhaps 800 years. The Shan language has also been long written; it is akin to Burmese. Karen has recently been reduced to writing by the American missionaries. None of the other hill tongues are written languages. The classical language of Burma is Pali, in which are written the sacred books and the laws of Manu. Pali manuscripts are kept in many monasteries, and learned monks study Pali. The older literature of Burma consists of manuscript Pali books on religion and law, and of Burmese translations from these books. There are some few more or less apocryphal histories in Burmese. The favourite literature of the country consists of dramas and poetical fables. Of late years tens of thousands of copies of old and new dramas and fables have been struck off by presses established at Rangoon. About 1872 it would have been nearly impossible to find a book anywhere save in a monastery or in a large town. Now printed books are finding their way all over Lower Burma, and are sold in nearly every market. There are seven or eight vernacular newspapers, none of which has a circulation exceeding six hundred copies. A. Judson has published a Grammar (1866) and a Dictionary (3d ed. 1877). The name Burma is, according to Yule in *Hobson-Jobson*, an Englished form of *Mram-ma*, pronounced by the people *Bam-ma*. The following passage is the translation of John iii. 16

in Burmese, as published by the British and Foreign Bible Society (and see ALPHABET, vol. i. p. 189) :

ဘုရားသခင်၍သားတော်ကိရ်ကြင်သော
သူအပေါင်းတို့သင့်ပျက်စီးခြင်းသို့မရောက်။ အ
စည်ထားဝရအသက်ရှင်ခြင်းကိုရစေခြင်းငှါဘု
ရားသခင်သည်မိမိတို့တပါးတည်းသောသား
တော်ကိရ်တော်မူသင့်တိုင်အောင်လောကီသ
ားတို့ကိုချစ်သနားတော်မူ၍။

Education.—The primary schools of the country are the Buddhist monasteries, in which every Burman had *must*, according to national custom, sanctioned by religion, spend a part of his boyhood as pupil and as acolyte. At every monastery boys are taught to read and write; in Lower Burma most monasteries have accepted inspection by public officials, and teach up to the government standards. Some of the improved monastic schools have 120 or 150 boys apiece, and earn up to £100 a year as grants in aid. The census of 1881 showed that 61 per cent. of the males in Lower Burma above the age of twelve could read and write. Girls are not admitted to monastic schools; but they are frequently taught with boys in lay schools, and schools for girls are being gradually established. Recent statistics of education for Lower Burma show :

	Number of Institutions.	Boys and Girls on Rolls.
Colleges.....	1	20
Secondary Schools.....	70	8,881
Primary Schools (chiefly monastic).....	5325	149,621
Training and Technical Schools.....	16	410
Total.....	5412	158,932
Boys, 143,715; Girls, 15,217.		

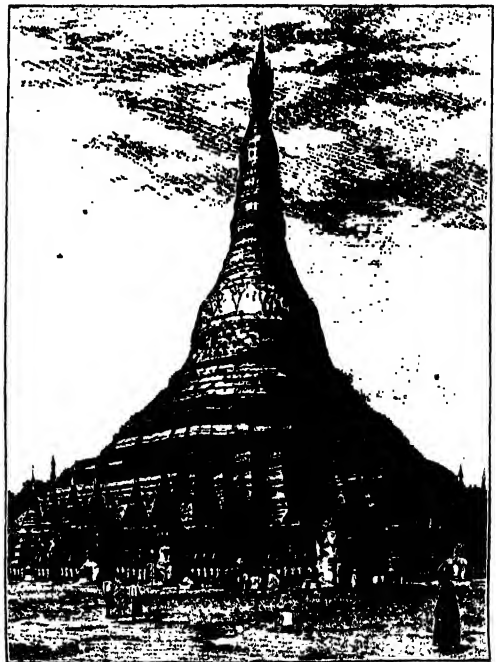
Trade.—The external sea-borne trade of Lower Burma is valued at fourteen millions sterling. Most of this trade centres in Rangoon. The chief export items are rice, valued at six millions sterling; teak timber, one million; cutch, hides, cotton; while the chief import items are cotton piece-goods and yarns, silk goods, coal, hardware, salt, and metals. The trade between British and Upper Burma before the last war was valued at three and a quarter millions sterling. The great staple of Lower Burma is rice, of which as much as 1,150,000 tons are exported in one year. This great trade has been fostered by the establishment of rice-cleaning mills at all the seaports. Burma rice goes direct to England, Germany, Italy, America, Singapore, and China; it fetches a better price than any Eastern rice except the Japan and Java products. It is usually quoted about 20 per cent. above the rice of Saigon or Bangkok. The activity of internal trade in Burma may be measured by the financial success of the Irawadi Flotilla steamers, and of the two railways.

Arts and Manufactures.—The arts in which Burmese excel are wood-carving, silver repoussé work, woven silk fabrics of many colours, and lacquer-ware. In wood-carving Burmese workmen display much skill and imagination; each man draws on the wood his own patterns, according to his own fancy, before he begins with his graving tools. Much of the lacquer-ware is made on delicate woven bamboo frames. Excellent boats are built on all the larger rivers. The foundation,

or lower part of the hull, always consists of a hollowed, widened trunk of the thingan tree; the sides are built up with planks; both prow and stern are raised several feet above the deck, and are ornamented with much beautiful and grotesque carving.

Public Works.—Under Burmese rule no roads or public buildings save temples and monasteries were made by the state; but certain valuable, though short, irrigation canals were made near Mandalay, Kyouksé, and Salen; while in many towns and villages brick pathways were laid down, and bridges were built, as works of religious merit. Since Burma came, province by province, under British rule, about 500 miles of metalled and bridged roads have been made, besides streets and roads in towns; three navigation canals, aggregating 70 miles in length, have been dug; many cross-country roads and paths have been cleared; two railways, aggregating 330 miles, had already been opened, when a third (1888), 240 miles long, connected Mandalay, the capital of Upper Burma, with the seaboard; embankments to keep flood-waters off the land have been erected for 250 miles along the banks of the Irawadi River; the Irawadi Flotilla Company have placed on the Irawadi River a fleet of forty-seven large steamers and one hundred flats; court-houses, hospitals, schools, barracks, prisons, churches, and public offices have been built all over Lower Burma, and are being begun in Upper Burma; and the peace of the country is safeguarded by forts at Rangoon, Thayetmyo, Toungoo, Mandalay, and Bhamo, as well as by batteries at the ports of Rangoon and Maulmain.

Architecture.—Everybody in Burma lives in either



Shway Dagon Pagoda at Rangoon.

a wooden house or a bamboo hut, save in the large towns where a few rich people have built masonry

houses. Every house is built on posts or piles, so that the lowest floor is from 1 foot to 12 feet off the ground. In the inundated tracts house-posts are necessarily high; but even in upland country a Burman always has a space between his lowest floor and the ground, as he deems it unhealthy to sleep on the ground. Well-to-do people build their houses of teak or other wood planks; the high-pitched roofs, with projecting eaves and carved finials, are picturesque. The solid pagodas of masonry, and the teak monasteries, surmounted by three or seven-tiered roofs, and ornamented with beautiful or grotesque carvings, are the most notable structures in Burma. Monasteries (*kyoungs*) and rest-houses (*zayats*) are erected in every town and village by devout Burmans, who consider that such works secure for them *kátho*—that is, merit or reward in the next life. Rangoon, Maulmain, Prome, and Pegu, all possess beautiful pagodas and monasteries; so also do many towns on the banks of the Irawadi. But Mandalay is famous beyond all places in Burma for the number of its monasteries. The finest and most sacred pagoda in Burma is the Shway Dagon Pagoda at Rangoon; and among the finest monasteries are the Atoo nashée ('incomparable') Monastery, and the Mee-baya ('Queen's') Monastery at Mandalay. The most graceful wooden structure in Burma is the lofty woodwork spire above the hall of audience in the Mandalay palace; the exterior is gilded, beautifully carved, and lit up with innumerable mirror facets.

Finances.—The rate at which the revenues of Lower Burma have increased since the annexation of Pegu in 1854 may be seen from the following figures:

1855.....	total revenue, 45 lakhs.
1861.....	" " 80 "
1871.....	" " 123 "
1880.....	" " 270 "
1886.....	" " 308 "

As a lakh of rupees is equal to £7500 at an exchange of 1s. 6d. per rupee, these 308 lakhs would equal £2,310,000. But 34 lakhs must be deducted as being rather municipal than public; so that the total public revenue in 1886 was 274 lakhs (£2,055,000). In the same year the imperial expenditure was 184 lakhs; so that in this one year a surplus of 90 lakhs (£675,000) was contributed by Lower Burma to the India treasury.

Land is held by petty occupiers direct from the state, on payment of a land-tax, ranging ordinarily from half a rupee to 2½ rupees per acre. The average value of the rice crop on an acre may be quoted at 20 rupees, so that the land-tax is probably about one-tenth of the gross yield. The total area under cultivation in 1887 was 4,665,188 acres, of which six-sevenths were under rice, and 276,018 acres were kept fallow. The capitation-tax is an old Burmese impost, leviable on all adult males. The usual rate is 5 rupees a year for each married man, and 3 rupees for each bachelor.

All forests belong to the state, and the teak tree is everywhere reserved by ancient custom and by law as a royal tree. In all reserves conservancy and reproduction of teak is scientifically conducted; and the net revenue of the Lower Burma forests is 8 lakhs.

Excise revenue is raised by a still-head duty of 4 rupees per gallon on all London-proof spirit, by fees paid for licenses to sell opium and liquor, and by the sale of Bengal opium to licensed vendors. The excise revenue remains low by reason of the refusal to license additional liquor or opium shops. There were in 1887 in Lower Burma only 19 licensed opium shops as compared with 68 shops in 1880. The salt-tax is levied at 3 annas per mound (about 5d. per cwt.), or one-tenth of the Indian salt-tax

rate. Most of the salt consumed in Burma comes from Europe; some little is made locally from sea-water and from brine-wells. The import customs revenue to the amount of 7 lakhs a year is derived from duty on imported liquors. Export duty to the amount of 50 lakhs is levied on rice exported by sea, at the rate of 3 annas per mound, equal to about 7 per cent. *ad valorem*.

During the best times of Burman rule the public revenues of Upper Burma were approximately about 95 lakhs. But, for various reasons, more than one-third of the nominal revenue of the late government was lost to the British administration. Meanwhile the cost of occupying the country by troops and military police is very great. And so Upper Burma caused a heavy drain on the Indian exchequer. Hereafter the old sources of revenue will improve, and new sources will arise; the cost of the army and military police will be largely reduced as the country is brought into order. If the new province improves in the same ratio as Lower Burma has done during the years 1868-1888, the united province will pay its way long before the end of the century.

Government.—Burma is governed, in behalf of the Viceroy of India, by a chief-commissioner, whose headquarters are mainly at Rangoon. The territory is divided into eight provinces, over each of which a commissioner is the supreme judicial and executive officer; and each commissionership is again divided into districts. The deputy-commissioner is the head of his district in all executive, judicial, police, and revenue affairs; he has under him one or more European assistants; and each district contains five to ten townships (*myos*), over which presides a Burman magistrate. Beneath the township officer are the circle officers (*thuggys*). In each village one of the chief inhabitants is appointed headman, and is vested with petty police and revenue powers. The district administration is supported by a strong police force, partly Burmans and partly Indians, who are commanded by European officers. A military garrison, consisting in January 1888 of about 20,000 troops, occupies the country.

History.—The royal chronicles kept by the kings of Ava derive the earliest Burmese dynasty from Buddhist monarchs in India. It is conjectured that the Burmans came into the Irawadi valley from the highlands of Central Asia about 2000 years ago, and amalgamated with the races then living in the country. It seems certain that the Buddhist religion and a Buddhist dynasty were established on the Irawadi, perhaps near Prome, about the time of the Norman Conquest. In the 12th and 13th centuries flourished Burmese kings who had their capital at Pagán on the Irawadi, about 400 miles from the sea, where are still extant most remarkable groups of temples built by that dynasty. In those days Burmese was a written language, and the Pagán kings had a civilised court. After that time the seat of power was transferred at intervals to Pegu, to Toungoo, to Prome, to Sagain, and to Ava. The empire was wrested from the Burmans, and held for a short time by the Shans, and by the Talaings, a race who had preceded the Burmans in the Irawadi delta. In the 16th century a European traveller visited the court at Pegu, and has recorded an account of its magnificence. During the 17th century settlements in the Irawadi delta were made by the French and the English. At Syriam, near Rangoon, the Portuguese had established themselves nearly two centuries earlier. The last Burman dynasty was founded by Alompran (Ahompya), a Burman villager of Monshobo (Shwebo), 50 miles north of Mandalay. He rose against the Pegu king in 1753, and eventually established his power over Burma in 1757,

but died at the head of his army during an invasion of Siam. His successor carried Burmese arms to Arakan, Manipur, and the capital of Siam. During the later part of the 18th century Siam revolted, and Burma suffered three invasions by Chinese armies from the north. Early in the 19th century the Burmese conquered Assam, and about 1820 they first came into contact with the British power in India. The Burmese made incursions into British territory, maltreated British subjects, attacked British troops, and refused repeated demands for redress. In 1824 broke out a war which ended (February 1826) with the Yandabo treaty, whereby Ava ceded to the British the provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim. For a while the Burmans observed the treaty. But after 1830, when a new king succeeded to the throne, slights and insults were put upon the resident, who had to leave the capital and reside at Rangoon. By various acts the Burmans showed their hostility and contempt for the British. Eventually they seized certain British sailors, and refused redress. After a final protest by the British, war again broke out, and ended, after ten months' duration, in the acquisition of Pegu by the British. King Mindoon Min, who succeeded to the throne in 1853, made compacts with the British, treated traders well, entertained an English resident at Mandalay, and abstained from anything that might provoke hostilities. During the crisis of the Indian Mutiny in 1857 the Burmans kept quiet. In 1879 this enlightened monarch died, and was succeeded by his son Thebaw, whose accession was signalled by the massacre of his brothers, sisters, and relatives. The British resident protested against these barbarities, and his position at Mandalay was made so perilous that he was recalled. From 1880-85 the Mandalay government showed unfriendliness in many ways; infringed the terms of the existing treaty; arranged to give to a rival European power preponderating influence on the Upper Irawadi; and imposed a fine of a quarter of a million sterling on a British company working in Upper Burma. The Mandalay government refused requests for redress; in October 1885 an ultimatum was despatched to Mandalay, the terms of which were refused; and early in November King Thebaw published a proclamation calling all Burmans to join him in driving the English into the sea. On the 15th November a British force crossed the frontier and steamed up the Irawadi. What little resistance was made proved ineffectual. By the 28th November the Burmese troops had laid down their arms at Ava; the capital (Mandalay), with the palace, fort, and arsenal, were surrendered; and the king was carried off captive to India. Early in 1886 the whole of Upper Burma was incorporated with the Queen's Indian dominions. Since then a good deal of guerilla warfare has been waged in different parts of the country, and the people seemed unwilling to submit to British rule. But opposition is being overcome, and the country is being gradually pacified.

See Forbes, *British Burma* (1876); Fyche, *Burma, Past and Present* (1878); Scott ('Shway Yoe') *The Burman, His Life and Notions* (1882); Sir Arthur Phayre, *History of Burma* (1883); Scott, *Burma as it was, is, and will be* (1886); and for the railway scheme from India through Burma, Siam, and the Shan States to China, see works by Colquhoun and Holt Hallett.

Burmans, a Dutch family of scholars, originally from Cologne.—(1) Peter 'the elder,' born at Utrecht in 1668, studied law at Utrecht and Leyden, and next travelled through Germany and Switzerland. At first an advocate, he became professor of History and Rhetoric in the university of Utrecht, afterwards of Greek at Leyden, where he died in 1741. In his literary career, his hot temper

and intolerant spirit involved him in many controversies, often with adversaries like Le Clerc and Bentley. His chief works are editions of the Latin classics, in stately quartos, with extensive notes often dreary and tasteless to a degree.—(2) Peter 'the younger,' nephew of the preceding, born in 1714 at Amsterdam, made his studies at Utrecht, and became in succession professor at Franeker, professor at the Amsterdam Athenaeum, and keeper of the public library there. He retired in 1777 on a pension, and died the year after. He edited Virgil, Aristophanes, Claudian, and Propertius, and an anthology of the Latin epigrammatists; but his editions are now little valued.

Bur-marigold (*Bidens*), a widely distributed genus of composite annuals.

Burn, RICHARD, born in 1709 at Winton, in Westmoreland, was educated at Queen's College, Oxford, and in 1736 received the living of Orton, in his native county, which he held till his death in 1785. Among his eight works were the *Justice of the Peace*, which has passed through 29, and *Eccelesiastical Law*, 9 editions; a *History of the Poor-laws*; and a *History of Cumberland*.

Burn, WILLIAM, architect, born in Edinburgh, 20th December 1789, was trained under Smirke, founded a successful business in Edinburgh, and removed to London (1844), where he was equally popular and well employed, and where he died 15th February 1870. Specimens of his work are scattered over the whole kingdom. His 'restoration' of St Giles' Church (1829-33) in Edinburgh was singularly devoid of taste or reverence, and has been as far as possible undone.

Burnaby, FREDERICK GUSTAVUS, a daring traveller and dashing sabreur, was born at Bedford, 3d March 1842. The son of a clergyman and squire of Somersby Hall in Leicestershire, he was educated at Bedford, Harrow, and privately in Germany, and early became a capital linguist. He joined the Royal Horse Guards Blue in 1859, and became captain in the regiment in 1866, lieutenant-colonel in 1880, and colonel in 1881. His travels in Central and South America, his experiences in the Carlist camp in 1874, and with Gordon in the Soudan in 1875, prepared him for the great exploit of his life, his ride to Khiva, in the winter of 1875, across the steppes of Tartary. His brightly written *Ride to Khiva* (1876) at once made him famous; and indeed his great stature, immense strength, and reckless courage, no less than the outspoken frankness of his manners, his hearty patriotic hatred of Russia, and uncompromising Jingoism, were exactly the kind of qualities for a hero of the English people. He contested Birmingham without success in 1880, but polled over 18,000 votes. In 1876 he travelled in Asia Minor and Armenia, publishing on his return, *On Horseback through Asia Minor*, which was no less successful than his earlier book. In Graham's expedition to the Eastern Soudan he was attached to the Intelligence Department, and was badly wounded at El Tel; and in 1884 he made his way without leave to join Sir Herbert Stewart's column in the Nile expedition, and was killed by an Arab spear-thrust in the first battle, that of Abu Klea, 17th January 1885. Burnaby was a daring aeronaut, and crossed the Channel to Normandy in 1882 in the balloon 'Eclipse.'

Burnand, FRANCIS COWLEY, author and dramatist, was born 29th November 1836. He was educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge (1854-58), and afterwards went to Cuddesdon Theological College with a view to becoming a clergyman of the Church of England. In December 1858 he joined the Catholic Church, and for four months continued his studies at the house of

the Oblate Fathers at Bayswater. His first farce had been produced at Eton in 1851, and at Cambridge he had founded the 'A.D.C.' of which, subsequently, the Prince of Wales became president, and of which Mr Burnand published a *History* in 1879. He was called to the bar in 1862, but the success of some early dramatic ventures altered his plans. He has produced between eighty and a hundred pieces, chiefly extravaganzas and burlesques; four dramas; and some very successful comedies. He joined Mr H. J. Byron in starting *Fun*, but left that paper for *Punch*, then edited by Mark Lemon, in 1863. His first contribution to *Punch* was *Mokanna*, a burlesque on sensational romance writing; soon after appeared *How, When, and Where*, followed by the now well-known *Happy Thoughts*, which in book form soon ran through over sixteen editions. Later, he continued the *Happy Thoughts* series, and wrote a series of burlesques of popular novelists, that on Ouida's style, *Strappare*, being perhaps the happiest; when published separately, it reached a seventh edition within the first fortnight. Mr Burnand became editor of *Punch* in 1880.

Burne-Jones, EDWARD, A.R.A., was born at Birmingham, of Welsh descent, 28th August 1833. He was destined for the church, and educated at Exeter College, Oxford, where William Morris, the poet, was his friend; but his thoughts turned strongly to art; and having, about 1857, submitted some pen-drawings to Rossetti, whose work had powerfully influenced him, he received from this artist encouragement and guidance in his first attempts as a painter. His subjects were always poetical and imaginative. From the first he was a fascinating colourist, and his earlier works, as 'The Merciful Knight' (1864), 'Merlin and Vivien', the figures of the two heroines of Meinhold's *Sidonja* and 'The Wine of Circe' (1867), along with much medieval quaintness both in form and feeling, possess great expressional intensity. They attain, in water-colour, greater brilliancy and purity of hue than is usual even in works executed in oil, and are sometimes, as in 'Love among the Ruins' (1873), on such an extended scale as we usually associate with the more dignified medium. About 1870 he began to be known as an oil-painter, and his works of this period are inspired by the earlier art of the Italian Renaissance, and show more of grace and less of emphasis than his former paintings in body-colour. Among his pictures are, 'The Days of Creation,' 'The Beguiling of Merlin,' and 'The Mirror of Venus' (1877); 'Lans Veneris' (painted 1873-75), 'Le Chant d'Amour' and 'Pan and Psyche' (1878); 'The Golden Stairs' (1880); 'The Tree of Forgiveness' (1882); 'The Wheel of Fortune' (1883); 'King Cophetua' (1884); 'Andromeda Chained,' 'The Fight with the Sea-beast,' and 'The Brazen Tower' (1888). In 1885 he was elected an Associate of the Royal Academy, to whose exhibition he contributed 'The Depths of the Sea' (1886). Several of his latest works show a realism and a thoroughness of draftsmanship and modelling in his treatment of the nude unknown in his former productions; but his colouring tends on the whole to become less splendid, inclining to restrict itself to curiously varied tones of bluish purple and ruddy bronze. He has furnished many striking designs for stained glass, carried out by Messrs Morris & Co. Of these the windows at Christ Church, Oxford, may be named, as illustrating both his earlier and later styles.

Burnes, SIR ALEXANDER, was born in 1805 at Montrose, in Forfarshire, where his father was provost. (The provost's father was the cousin of Robert Burns). In 1821 he entered the Indian

army, and his knowledge of oriental languages gained him rapid promotion. After performing some important missions for the Indian government, he was, at his own suggestion, sent on a twelve-months' expedition into Central Asia. Starting from Lahore in 1832, and adopting the Afghan dress, he passed through Peshawur and Kabul, and crossed the Indian Caucasus to Balkh. Thence he passed on to Bokhara, Astrabad, and Teheran, and journeying through Ispahan and Shiraz, reached Bushire on the Persian Gulf, whence he embarked for India. On his return to England in 1833, he was received with high honours; and in September 1839, having previously been knighted and promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel, he was appointed political resident at Kabul, where he was murdered by the Afghan mob, 2d November 1841. See his *Travels into Bokhara* (1834), and *Kabul* (1842); and *Kaye's Lives of Indian Officers* (1869).

Burnet, GILBERT, Bishop of Salisbury, was born at Edinburgh, 18th September 1643. At the age of ten he entered Marischal College, Aberdeen, and, four years later taking his M.A., applied himself to the study first of law and then of divinity, with such diligence and success that in 1661 he was admitted a probationer. In 1663 he visited Cambridge, Oxford, and London, where he met with many of the leading divines of England; and next year passing over into Holland, perfected his knowledge of Hebrew under a learned rabbi of Amsterdam. In 1665 he became minister of Sulton, Haddingtonshire; in 1669 professor of Divinity in Glasgow University; but in 1674, having brought on himself the enmity of his old patron Lauderdale, he found it prudent to resign his chair, and settle in London, where he was made chaplain to the Rolls Chapel, and afterwards lecturer at St Clement's. In 1676 he published his *Memoirs of two Dukes of Hamilton*; in 1679-81 the first two volumes of his *History of the Reformation*, which procured him a vote of thanks from parliament; in 1680 *Some Passages in the Life and Death of the Earl of Rochester*; and in 1682 his *Life of Sir Matthew Hale*. The efforts which had previously been made were now repeated to induce him to break with the liberal and moderate party, and to attach himself to the king. He was offered the bishopric of Chichester, but refused it. In 1683 he attended the execution, and vindicated the memory, of his friend Lord William Russell. The king exhibited his unkingly spite by depriving Burnet of his lectureship; and on James's accession he went to the Continent, and travelled through France, Italy, Switzerland, and Germany. In 1684 he was introduced to the Prince of Orange, with whom he became a great favourite, and by whom he was frequently consulted in reference to the great scheme for the deliverance of England. When William came over, Burnet accompanied him as royal chaplain, and in 1689 was appointed Bishop of Salisbury. He entered on the duties of his diocese with great ardour; but his first pastoral letter, in which he founded William's right to the throne on conquest, gave so much offence to both houses of parliament, that they ordered it to be burned by the common hangman. In 1698 he was appointed preceptor to the Duke of Gloucester; in 1699 he published his celebrated *Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles*, which was condemned as heterodox by the Lower House of Convocation. In 1714 appeared the third volume of his *History of the Reformation*; and on 17th March 1715 he died at Clerkenwell of a pleuritic fever. He was thrice married; his first wife was remarkable for her beauty, the second for her fortune, and the third for her piety. Not until 1723-34 did *Bishop Burnet's History of his Own Time* make its appear-

ance—a work that was sarcastically but foolishly abused by Swift, Pope, Arbuthnot, and other Tory writers of the day. A Whig and broad churchman, Burnet was a man of strict, almost puritanical virtue, of marvellous charity, geniality, and moderation. His style is often harsh, his judgment not always reliable, yet the honesty, earnestness, simplicity, and vigour of his writings, as well as their fullness of details, make his works very valuable to the student of history. Of his two histories good editions have been issued from the Clarendon Press.

Burnet, JOHN, painter, engraver, and author, was born at Fisherrow, near Edinburgh, in 1784, and died at Stoke Newington, 29th April 1868. He first became known through his admirable engravings of Wilkie's works. Of his own paintings the best known is the 'Greenwich Pensioners' (1837). He wrote several books on art, the most important being a *Practical Treatise on Painting*; and he was also author of *Rembrandt and his Works* (1849), and, in conjunction with Cunningham, of *Life and Works of Turner* (1852).

Burnet, THOMAS, born in Yorkshire about 1635, studied at Cambridge, and in 1685 was elected Master of the Charterhouse. He succeeded Archbishop Tillotson as clerk of the closet to William III., but having in 1692 published a work, *Archæologia Philosophica* (also in English), displaying great learning, but treating the Mosaic account of the Fall as an allegory, he was obliged to retire from the clerkship, and lived in the Charterhouse till his death in 1715. His *Telluris Theoria Sacra* (1680-89) was written in Latin, but translated, or rather recomposed in English, by the author. It is an ingenious speculation, written in ignorance of the facts of the earth's structure, and is therefore a mere system of *cosmogony*, and not geology. But it abounds in sublime and poetical conceptions and descriptions, and called forth the highest applause at the time. See *Life* by Heathcote prefixed to the seventh edition of the *Theory* (1759).

Burnet, the English name of two closely

[*Sanguisorba*] *officinale*) is common in meadows in all parts of Europe. It is cultivated in Germany on poor soils for fodder. The root-stock is astringent, and was formerly used in medicine.—Common Burnet (*Poterium Sanguisorba*) grows in dry pastures, especially on chalky soils, on which it sometimes becomes of importance, and has also been cultivated as a fodder plant. It grows wild in the United States. It used to be cultivated in gardens, its slightly astringent leaves being used in salads or soups, also as an ingredient in *cool tankard* (the name *Poterium* being from a Greek word signifying a drinking-vessel). *S. Canadensis* is an interesting American species sometimes cultivated in gardens.

Burnet-saxifrage (*Pimpinella Saxifraga*) is an umbelliferous plant, which, on account of its similar foliage, habit, use as fodder, and (more distinctly) astringent root-stock, has been associated or confused with burnet from the earliest times.

Burnett, FRANCES HODGSON, novelist, was born at Manchester, November 24, 1849. About the close of the American civil war she emigrated with her parents to the United States, and settled in Tennessee. She married Dr Burnett in 1873, and after a lengthened tour in Europe, settled in Washington. She had early begun to write, but her first great success was her story, *That Lass o' Lowrie's*, which, after running through *Scribner's Magazine*, was issued at New York in 1877. Her second story, *Haworth's*, appeared in 1879. Both were novels of no common power, studies of Lancashire manufacturing life. The earlier of the two startled the reading public by its freshness and reality, no less than by a simple pathos and a delicate humour that recalled the touch of Mrs Gaskell. The chief later novels are *A Fair Barbarian* (1882), and *Through One Administration* (1883). Mrs Burnett has written many minor tales, two of which, at least, *Louisiana* (1880), and *Little Lord Fauntleroy* (1886), are not unworthy of the author of *That Lass o' Lowrie's*.

Burnett, JAMES. See MONBODDO.

Burnett Prizes, two theological premiums founded by bequest of John Burnett (1729-84), an Aberdeen merchant. Part of his fortune was to be accumulated for forty years at a time as a prize-fund to the authors of the two best treatises on 'The evidence that there is a Being all-powerful, wise, and good, by whom everything exists; and particularly to obviate difficulties regarding the wisdom and goodness of the Deity; and this independent of written revelation, and of the revelation of the Lord Jesus; and from the whole to point out the inferences most necessary and useful to mankind.' On the first competition in 1815, 50 essays were given in; and the judges awarded the first prize, £1200, to Dr W. L. Brown, Principal of Aberdeen University; the second, £400, to the Rev. J. B. Sumner, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. In 1855, 208 essays were given in; and the first prize, £1800, fell to the Rev. R. A. Thompson, for an essay entitled *Christian Theism*; the second prize, £600, to Dr Talloch, afterwards Principal of St Mary's College, St Andrews, for an essay on *Theism*. The four essays were published. The fund has since been applied to found a lectureship on some branch of science, history, or archaeology, illustrative of natural theology. The first lectures under the new scheme, *On the Nature of Light*, were delivered at Aberdeen, in November 1883, by Professor Stokes of Cambridge, and published in 1884.

Burnett's Disinfecting Liquid is a liquid introduced by Sir William Burnett (1779-1861) for the purpose of deodorising the bilge-water of ships, sewage-water, &c. It is a strong solution (sp. gr. 2)



1, Common Burnet (*Poterium Sanguisorba*);
2, Great Burnet (*Sanguisorba officinale*):
a, a flower; b, flower-head.

allied and often united genera of Rosaceæ—*Poterium* and *Sanguisorba*.—Great Burnet (*Poterium*

of chloride of zinc, accompanied by a small amount of chloride of iron; and when intended to be used, it is mixed with water in the proportion of one pint to five gallons of water. The liquid acts only as a *deodoriser* and *antiseptic* (see ANTISEPTICS), and does not yield any vapour which can exhibit the properties of a Disinfectant (q.v.). It is of service in preserving dead animal tissues, as in the dissecting-room, and in jars containing anatomical specimens. It is said to have little action on dissecting knives, but this is doubtful. When added to bilge or sewage water, the chloride of zinc, $ZnCl_2$, mainly acts by decomposing the offensive sulphide of ammonium, NH_4HS , which it does by forming the sulphide of zinc, ZnS , and chloride of ammonium, NH_4Cl , both of which are odorless. The strong solution of chloride of zinc has also been applied to the preservation of timber from the ravages of dry-rot, and the process of so treating wood is called, after its inventor, *Burnettising*. *Crewe's* disinfectant liquid is chemically the same as the above.

Burney, DR CHARLES, musician and author, was born in 1726 at Shrewsbury, and having studied music there, at Chester, and under Dr Arne in London, he commenced giving lessons in music himself. After composing three pieces—*Alfred*, *Robin Hood*, and *Queen Mab*—for Drury Lane (1745–50), he settled as organist at Lynn, in Norfolk (1751–60), where he planned his work on the *History of Music*. In 1770–72 he travelled in France, Italy, Germany, and Austria, collecting materials for that work, which appeared in 4 vols. (1776–89). Beside minor works, and accounts of his two tours, Burney wrote a *Life of Metastasio*, and nearly all the musical articles in *Rees's Cyclopædia*. In 1783 he became organist to Chelsea Hospital, where he died 12th April 1814. He knew intimately many of the most eminent men of the day, including Edmund Burke, Dr Johnson, Reynolds, and Garrick. See the *Life* (1832) by his famous daughter Fanny, Madame D'Arblay (q.v.).—His son, CHARLES BURNEY, D.D. (1757–1817), was a schoolmaster and classical critic. His fine library was purchased for the British Museum for £13,500.

Burnham Beeches, the remains of an ancient forest in Buckinghamshire, 25 miles N.E. of London. The London Corporation purchased the surrounding 374 acres in 1879, and set them apart for public use, 3d October 1883. The poet Gray, early in the 18th century, first called attention in his letters to the wild woodland. Many of these beeches have been, and still are, of immense size. Mr F. G. Heath, who was the first to urge their acquirement for public use, has described them in *Burnham Beeches* (1880).

Burning, CHEMISTRY OF. See COMBUSTION. For BURNING-GLASSES, see HEAT, LENS, and MIRROR.

Burning Bush (*Euonymus atro-purpureus*) is a small ornamental shrub of North America, with oblong leaves, deep purple flowers, and scarlet smooth capsules; its congener, *E. americanus*, has scarlet prickly capsules. The French *Buisson ardent* is a red hawthorn (*Crataegus Pyracantha*).

Burnley, a thriving town of Lancashire, in a narrow vale on the banks of the Brun, near its influx to the Calder, 21 miles E. of Preston, and 27 N. of Manchester. A great seat of the woollen and then of the cotton manufacture, it is a modern, well-built place, with a literary institute and exchange (1855), a market-hall (1868), the Victoria Hospital (1886), a grammar-school (temp. Edward VI.), and an ancient parish church, restored in 1856. Besides cotton and worsted mills, it has calico-printing works, iron and brass foundries, machine-shops, breweries, tanneries, and rope-works. There are collieries in the vicinity. Burn-

ley was created a municipal borough in 1861, and a parliamentary in 1867, returning one member to parliament. Pop. (1871) 44,320; (1881) 63,638. A Roman way passed through the town, and Roman remains have been found in the neighbourhood. Burnley suffered much in the cotton famine.

Burnouf, JEAN LOUIS, French philologist, born at Urville, 14th September 1775, became professor of Rhetoric at the Collège de France in 1817, and subsequently in succession inspector of the university, general director of studies, and librarian. Elected a member in 1836 of the Académie des Inscriptions, he died at Paris, 8th May 1844. He was the author of grammars of Greek and Latin, which have gone through numerous editions, as well as an excellent translation of Tacitus.—EUGÈNE, a great orientalist, son of the preceding, born at Paris, 1st April 1801. He first studied law, but soon devoted himself, under Abel Rémusat and Chézy, to the oriental languages, especially those of India and Persia. In 1832 he became a member of the Académie des Inscriptions, and in the same year succeeded to Chézy's chair of Sanskrit at the Collège de France, which he filled until his death, at Paris, 28th May 1852. His first works were his *Essai sur le Pali* (1826), written in conjunction with Lassen of Bonn, and *Observations Grammaticales sur quelques Passages de l'Essai sur le Pali* (1827). His next task was the deciphering of the Zend manuscripts brought to France by Anquetil Duperron. He commenced by publishing a splendid lithographed edition of the *Vendidad-Sadé*, the most important part of the *Zendavesta* (1829–43), and published from time to time in the *Journal Asiatique* the brilliant results of his laborious studies, to the admiration of the learned world. His *Commentaire sur le Yaçna* (1833), a masterpiece of lucidity and erudition, first revealed the language and doctrine of Zoroaster to the western world. He next made an attempt to decipher the cuneiform inscriptions of Persepolis, in his *Mémoire sur deux Inscriptions Cuneiformes* (1836). Here, however, the later discoveries of Lassen, Holtzmann, Oppert, and others, have shown that his Zend studies hindered him to some extent in deciphering, for relying on Zend analogies he assumed too many signs for vowels, and did not leave enough for consonants. In 1840 he published the text, along with a translation, of the *Bhagavata Purāna*, a system of Indian mythology and tradition. As the fruit of six years' study of the Sanskrit books of the Buddhists, sent by Hodgson to Europe from Nepal, appeared in 1844 his *Introduction à l'Histoire du Bouddhisme*, an epoch-making work in the history of that great Asian religion. His last work was a translation of *Le Lotus de bonne Loi*, which was passing through the press at the time of his death. Among Burnouf's pupils were Max Müller, Goldstücker, Gorresio, and Nève.—ÉMILE LOUIS, also an eminent orientalist, nephew of Jean Louis Burnouf, born at Valognes, 25th August 1821, lectured on ancient literature at Nancy, and was for a time director of the French school at Athens. His works include *Méthode pour étudier la Langue Sanscrit* (1859, 3d ed. 1885), *Essai sur le Vêda* (1863), *Dictionnaire Classique Sanscrit-Français* (1863–65), *Histoire de la Littérature Grecque* (1869), *La Science des Religions* (1872), *La Ville et l'Acropole d'Athènes aux diverses Époques* (1877), *La Mythologie des Japonais* (1878), *Mémoires sur l'Antiquité* (1879), and *Le Catholicisme Contemporain* (1879).

Burns, REV. JABEZ, D.D., a Baptist minister, and one of the most prolific religious writers of the 19th century, was born at Oldham, near Manchester, 18th December 1805, and was educated at

Chester, and afterwards at Oldham grammar-school. He joined the Methodist New Connection, and removed at the age of twenty-one to London. In 1828 and 1829 he published his first two works, *The Christian Sketch-book* and *The Spiritual Cabinet*, which gained him much popularity. After having exercised the functions of the ministry at Perth (1830-35), he returned to London to become minister of a General Baptist congregation in Marylebone. He lectured in all parts of the United Kingdom on temperance, peace, abolition of capital punishment, &c. He received the degrees of D.D. (1846) and LL.D. (1872) from American colleges. He visited America in 1847 and 1872, and Egypt and Palestine in 1869. Meantime his pen had not been idle, the number of his separate works being upwards of thirty. One of them, *Sketches and Skeletons of Sermons* (15 vols.), reached a 14th edition; another was the *Pulpit Cyclopaedia* (4 vols. 1846-60). Dr Burns died at his residence in Paddington, 31st January 1876.

BURNS, ROBERT, the national poet of Scotland, and in all literature one of the most singular geniuses, was born at Alloway, in the neighbourhood of Ayr, January 25, 1759. The history of most of his life is so well known, and what is not well known requires so much conjecture and research to elucidate it, while so much space were needed for the elucidation, that a meagre sketch must here suffice. About Burns, as about Shelley, our knowledge is almost too abundant. We might prefer that poets should live only in the light of their works, and that their personal existences were as obscure as those of Shakespeare and of Homer. But, in the case of Burns, this penumbra is impossible. Even if we had not his letters and the records left by people who met him, his poems would tell all the tale. In his poems his story lives unconcealed and imperishable; his loves and hates, his vices, his mirth, his shame, his mockery, his bitterness, his repentance; there is not a mood but has its verse. There is no possibility here of keeping the poetry and blinking the poet.

Burns's family was of the humbler and less prosperous yeomanry. His father built the 'clay bigging' where he was born. When the boy was seven, the father, an intelligent man with a great belief in education, moved to Mount Oliphant, four miles south-east of Ayr. When the boy was thirteen, there was another move to Lochlea. But the elder Burns did not prosper, and died when the poet was twenty-five. His education began at a school at Alloway Mill, and was continued by Mr John Murdoch, as a kind of private tutor. This education was thoroughly literary; the boy was exercised in turning verse into prose, selecting synonyms, and so forth. A metrical *Life of William Wallace* was a favourite book; and his letters to Clarinda, and many other correspondents, owe something to a selection of correspondence of Queen Anne's reign. There is to be noticed in Burns not merely a natural fire and gift of expression, but a steady conscientious culture of the gift. He had scarce any Latin, and no Greek, but it is not easy to see how his poetical style could have been improved by a knowledge of these languages. With French he was acquainted, and however much one may believe in the educational influence of Greek, it is perfectly plain that true literary genius can dispense with it. Unlike Hogg, Burns had always more or less consciously studied the *technique* of his art. He only fails when he imitates the artificial English manners of his age. Among the early influences which gave the ply to his genius, ought, no doubt, to be reckoned the popular tales and ballads and songs of Betty Davidson, an old woman

who lived with the poet's family. One of the first books that Sir Walter Scott ever possessed was a set of ballads, collected by himself when a boy, bound in three volumes, and often rescued with difficulty from the servants. Burns grew up with the same old lays in his ears, not read on fly-sheets, but recited. Popular Scotch poetry and traditions are thus the soil, as it were, in which the genius of our two Scottish poets grew. But Scott saw life in the magic of romance. Burns beheld it in the light of every day.

Even in boyhood the education and native genius of Burns soon made him friends among people born to a better place at the table of life than his own. He went to a dancing-school, and began to make a great deal of love for himself and for less confident swains. He read Allan Ramsay, and began to write a little. Acquaintance with sailors and smugglers very considerably widened his moral ideas. He became a kind of rural Don Juan, though he had too much heart for the rôle. It is useless to deny that the tone of Scotch rustic morality about the relations of the sexes is, and was, very like the morality of Sicilian swains in the time of Theocritus. If Burns had to appear among the penitents, there were seven other sinners with him. The institution of wooing a bonny lassie 'when the kye comes hame,' the *Oaristys*, as Theocritus and Homer call it, has never been peculiar to Sicily. Burns was a man of more attractions and stronger passions than his neighbours, and when that has been said, there is really no more to say. A worse man, or a man with a worse heart, would easily have escaped from the entanglement with Jean Armour. A luckier man might have married Highland Mary, and been happy with his one true love, but such luck is given to few.

The death of Burns's father in 1784 left him to try to farm for himself. Farming without capital was, even then, like gambling without capital. One reverse meant ruin. Burns's husbandry went ill, he met Jean Armour, the entanglement began (he was then twenty-five), and out of his poverty, his passion, his despair, and his desperate mirth, came the extraordinary poetic harvest of 1785. To this year belong the *Epistle to Davie*, *Death and Dr Hornbook* (where the poet is very frank about his convivialities), *The Two Herds*, *The Jolly Beggars*, *Hallow E'en*, *The Cottar's Saturday Night*, *Holy Willie's Prayer*, *The Holy Fair*, and *The Address to a Mouse*. If we had only the verses of this year, Burns would remain the greatest of known popular poets. His topics were topics at which, probably, dozens of other rural rhymers were hammering—the quarrels, lay and clerical, of the neighbourhood; banter of local notorieties; and sketches of rural manners. But then Burns touched them with the hand of an artist; he was a master already in this craft, and no poet, perhaps, of any language, has ever attained such a wild perfection as he reaches in the reckless merriment of *The Jolly Beggars*:

Life is all a variorum,
We regard not how it goes;
Let them cant about decorum
Who have characters to lose.

That is the essence of *Les Gueux*; M. Richepin gives us a volume of the poetry of beggary, but a little is enough. The next year found Burns still busy; it was another *annus mirabilis*, though much of the verse is satirical, and necessarily less interesting. *The Two Dogs* is a masterpiece of humour; *The Lament and Despondency* remind one of Regnier, who sinned in earnest and repented in verse. In this year there was abundant trouble with Jean Armour; there was the betrothal to Highland Mary, and her death. Looking about him for money, that he might

emigrate to Jamaica, Burns published the famous and much-sought-after Kilmarnock edition of his poems (600 copies, 1786). Their fame spread, Burns got a few pounds, and was just setting sail, when the praises and promises of admirers induced him to stay in Scotland. In winter he went to Edinburgh, met the wits and the great, was a lion, and tasted all the sweets of that estate, with much more than a necessary proportion of the bitter. He was as proud as he was poor, and no doubt fancied many slights and affronts that were in the mind of no one else. Here, too, Scott saw him, Scott being then a boy, and remembered the fire and beauty of his dark brown eyes. The poems were reprinted in 1787, and some money came in (about £500 ultimately). Burns erected a tomb over Fergusson, his ill-fated predecessor and master. On returning to the country, he was much made of, and, like Sir Lancelot in the romance, 'fell to his old love again,' Jean Armour. After a Highland tour with a blackguard dominie called Nicol, Burns went back to Edinburgh, and began the epistolary flirtations with Mrs M'Lehose (Clarinda). Neither the friendship with Nicol nor the affair with Clarinda was very creditable to Burns's taste. In the 'Letters to Clarinda,' as Mr R. L. Stevenson remarks, 'the design may be that of an Old Hawk, but the style is more suggestive of a Bird of Paradise;' indeed, Burns elsewhere speaks of himself as 'an old hawk at the sport' of bringing his bird to his feet. Like Keats's love-letters, the letters to Clarinda should have been burned at once. But men will write, and women will print, while the world stands. By this date Mr Johnson had set about publishing his *Scots Musical Museum*, to which we owe all that is briefest and brightest of Burns. He contributed an astonishing number of the most beautiful, tender, passionate, and vivacious songs in any language, chiefly adapted to old Scotch airs, and moulded now and then on old Scotch words. An edition of Scotch songs, with the old words and the words of Burns, would be a valuable book, though not precisely a book for drawing-rooms. Many of the ancient ditties were of a singular license, though that does not make them less useful to the student of popular manners and of literary history. But very often, as in the deplorable case of Allan Ramsay's verses, the new songs have devoured and destroyed the old. Indeed, as Hogg's mother told Scott, printing popular songs generally kills their natural life, much more than the printing of substituted words.

In 1788 Burns was writing to Mrs M'Lehose of Jean Armour as 'the expiring glimmer of a farthing taper beside the glory of the meridian sun.' Such are the loves of the poets: here is their gratitude — 'in less than two months they were married,' Burns proving better than his word. 'I am the fool,' he wrote once, 'of my feelings and attachments.' He took a lease of Ellisland farm, on the Nith, near Dumfries, and next year received an appointment in the Excise. The following year again (1790) saw the birth of *Tam o' Shanter*, written in one day. By 1790 Ellisland, like all Burns's worldly enterprises, proved a failure. In November 1791 came his farewell to Clarinda (Mrs M'Lehose) — 'Had we never loved so kindly;' and other nymphs had been loving rather blindly in the meantime. Burns left his farm, withdrew to Dumfries and to gauging, flirted with the French Revolution, drank, wrote songs, expressed opinions then thought Radical, and made himself unpopular with the local lairds. If he wrote lampoons on ladies at this date (1794), Horace, Martial, and Lander at different times behaved no better. In 1795 he became, one may be glad to note, a patriot again, and wrote songs against the French. He

died—the deplorable causes of his death need not be lingered over—on July 21, 1796.

His country has been much scorned for her treatment of Burns. How was she to treat him? He deserved, what Socrates said *he* merited, 'to be kept at the public expense in the town-hall.' But he would not have accepted the offer had Scotland possessed a Prytaneum, and had Scotland made the offer. He did not try to live (as others in his position, and not without a share of his genius, have lived) by literature. He came too early. Such a poet now might actually exist on the proceeds of his poetry. What can the world do for such geniuses as Burns and Byron? They do not 'plough a straight furrow,' as the Greek proverb ran; their passions are part of their glory, their sorrow, and their shame. Their reward is immortality.

Burns is so much the greatest of Scotch poets that no other comes into the reckoning. Scott is a genius more universal, more genial, and a character infinitely more amiable and delightful. But for the mere essence of poetry and spirit of song, there is not the equal of Burns, not only in Scotch verse, but in the literature of the world. Sappho and Catullus are his peers; perhaps, indeed, no other lyric poet can be named with Sappho. The Tenth Muse does not compete with mortals, as the Nine sang against Thamyris the Thracian. She has a legendary magic, and dwells aloof. But Catullus, with much of the fire, affection, and humour of Burns, has nothing like his range. Burns is not only a lyric poet of unsurpassed energy, and of an art usually unerring, but he is a satirist, and a descriptive poet second to few. He takes our hearts by storm; he rushes in with the flutes and pipes playing gloriously; he wins us at once by a natural intrepid gallantry of art. It is for this gay courage, or again for his brief natural sadness, that he is so esteemed, and for an art neither fairy-like, like Keats's; nor magical, like Virgil's; nor full of winning grace, like that of Horace; but simple, unaffected, completely appropriate, and classically clear. For loyal despair what can equal

Now a' is done that men can do,
And a' is done in vain;

for loyal gallantry,

Oh, Kenneth's on and awa, Willie!

for fresh beauty of nature,

When o'er the hill the eastern star;

for proud content,

I hae a wife o' my ain!

for jollity (the rhyme Scott parodied in his last year),

Blythe, blythe, and merry was she;

for pathos,

John Anderson, my jo, John!

and so on. Who can number all these watchwords of the Scotch people, to which a ready response is made by how many myriads of hearts all the world round! If he carried the famed theory of Aucassin rather far when he wrote

The kirk and state may gae to hell,
And I'll gae to my Anna,

his example was not so attractive as to tempt many readers after him. It is not the faults of Burns, on the whole, nor his shamefaced glorying in them that remain in the memory and the imagination. We cannot believe that he has really encouraged the faults of his countrymen, as some say. There is no encouragement in that shamefaced glorying of 'The Daddy o't,' nor in his pitiful repentances. It is the good element in him, the tender heart, and proud courage and sound humour that survive,

that inspire his verse, and communicate themselves to his hearers. On the rest the righteousness of Oblivion scatters his poppy, and leaves us only the memory of a great poet.

Bibliography.—Poems (Kilmarnock, 1786; Edinburgh, 1787; London, 1787; Edinburgh and London, 1793).—Editions, with Life, by Currie (4 vols. London, 1800); Allan Cunningham (8 vols. London, 1834); Chambers (4 vols. Edin. 1851); and W. Scott Douglas and Professor Nichol (7 vols. Edin. 1877-82). See also the Life by Lockhart; by Principal Shairp, in 'English Men of Letters,' by Alexander Smith, in the 'Globe' series; Letters to Clarinda (1802; 1843); the Essay by Carlyle, and that by R. Louis Stevenson (*Men and Books*). The best portrait is Nasmyth's (1787).

Burns and Scalds are injuries to the body caused by excessive heat or by chemical agents. Scald is used when the injury has been inflicted by hot water, oil, or other fluid in itself harmless; burn, when flame, hot solids, molten metal, or chemicals have been the cause. But however produced, the injury presents much the same features, and requires the same treatment. In minor degrees these accidents are extremely common; moreover they are in their severer forms far the most painful of injuries, and the most commonly fatal in civil life. Dupuytren's classification in six degrees, according to the depth of the injury, is now generally accepted: (1) Skin reddened; (2) skin blistered—i.e. cuticle destroyed; (3) true skin partly destroyed; (4) skin wholly destroyed; (5) soft parts below skin (muscles, tendons, &c.) more or less destroyed; (6) all parts, including bone, destroyed. In almost every burn beyond the first degree, two or more of the degrees are combined in different parts of the affected surface. The last two are rarely met with. But the danger to life from these injuries depends even more on their extent than on their depth; if a very large surface of skin be involved, even in the first or second degree, the case is a serious one; and the more so the younger the sufferer. Persons 'burned to death' in a conflagration, however, perish much oftener by suffocation, resulting from the noxious gases evolved, than from the effects of a burn properly so called.

In a severe burn or scald the pain is intense, and the Shock (q.v.) and prostration extreme and often fatal. At this stage opiates, warmth, and stimulating remedies are necessary. In two days or less, if the patient survive the shock of the injury, reaction sets in, and serious internal inflammations frequently occur. The organs situated beneath the injured surface are often affected, if this be on the trunk; but whatever part of the skin has suffered there is a tendency to inflammation and ulceration of the mucous membrane of the digestive tract, particularly the duodenum. These inflammations are not readily amenable to treatment, which must in the great majority of cases be directed chiefly to the support of the patient's strength and the alleviation of his sufferings. They occur for the most part within two weeks of the injury; after this period, however, there is the further risk that he may sink from exhaustion in consequence of the prolonged suppuration which follows the separation of the dead portions of tissue in burns deeper than the first degree.

For the local treatment of burns, innumerable measures have been recommended. Here only a few of the simpler applications, suitable to the slight degrees and early stages, can be described. The clothes must be removed with the greatest care, cut and not dragged off the injured part, lest the cuticle be adherent and be torn off with them, exposing the tender skin beneath. If the burn be of the first degree and not extensive, cold applications are generally most useful and pleasant to the patient; lint or rags dipped in plain water, or

better, Goulard water (dilute solution of subacetate of lead), or a solution of carbonate of soda, and frequently moistened, do well. If the injured surface be extensive, cold applications are apt to increase the shock and the tendency to internal inflammations; and fine flour should be thickly dusted over the surface and covered with cotton-wool. If the burn be of the second degree, the blisters should be snipped with scissors and the contained fluid let out; but the raised skin must be carefully preserved as a protection to the tender surface below. In the second and higher degrees flour may be used as described above; or carron oil may be applied on lint or rags. (Carron oil consists of linseed oil and lime-water mixed in equal parts. Any irritating vegetable oil, such as olive oil, may be substituted if linseed oil be not procurable. It takes its name from the Carron ironworks, where it has long been used, and is an excellent application). Carbolic lotion, carbolic oil, iodoform in powder or ointment, and many other antiseptics, are useful from their power of preventing putrefaction of the discharges and consequent irritation. A solution of cocaine is often valuable at the early stage from its effect in deadening pain; but such remedies should not be used except to a small surface without medical advice, lest they become absorbed and cause symptoms of poisoning. It is most important that the dressings be not changed oftener than absolutely necessary, whatever application is adopted; they should be left till the discharge loosens them, or till they become uncomfortable, or offensive on account of putrefaction of the dead tissues and discharges.

The local effects of burns, particularly those of the fourth degree, are of great importance; for during and after the healing of the resulting sores there is an excessive tendency to contraction of the cicatrix, and very serious deformity often results, especially when the injury is on the neck or near the joints of the limbs. Severe injuries of this kind should therefore be under skilled observation not only during the healing process, but for some time after its completion, in order that, if any such tendency appears, measures may at once be taken to counteract it.

When the clothes catch fire, the person should lie down on the floor, and roll herself, or be rolled, in the rug, table-cover, or anything sufficiently voluminous to stifle the flames; and afterwards the clothes, especially stockings, should be removed with great care, lest the cuticle should separate with them, which would materially increase the sufferings of the patient.

Extensive scalds or burns are very fatal to young children; and it must be remembered that their skin is more susceptible to external impressions, and will suffer from a degree of heat innocuous to an adult. Infants have frequently been scalded to death in too hot baths, or by too hot fomentations. The principles of treatment for burns produced by the contact of chemical agents to the skin, are the same as those for burns by fire.

Burnside, AMBROSE EVERETT, American general, born at Liberty, Indiana, 23d May 1824, served an apprenticeship to a tailor, but received a nomination to West Point, where he graduated in 1847. He left the army as first-lieutenant in 1852, but returned as colonel of volunteers in 1861, commanded a brigade at Bull Run, and in February 1862 captured Roanoke Island. Having rendered important services at South Mountain and Antietam, he in November reluctantly superseded McClellan. On December 13, he crossed the Rappahannock, and attacked Lee near Fredericksburg, but was repulsed with a loss of over 10,000 men, and was soon after transferred to the department of Ohio. In November 1863 he successfully held Knoxville

against a superior force, and in 1864 he led a corps under Grant through the battles of the Wilderness and Cold Harbour. Resigning in April 1865, he was elected governor of Rhode Island (1866-68), and United States senator in 1875 and 1881. He died 3d September 1881.

Burntisland, a seaport of Fife, on the Firth of Forth, 5 miles N. of Granton by steam-ferry (1848). Backed by the Bin, 632 feet high, it has a quaint parish church (1594), and the old castle of Rosend, where Chastelard (q.v.) incurred his doom. The harbour has been much improved under acts of 1870, 1875, and 1881; and coal is shipped in large quantities. Oilworks and a distillery furnish employment; and in summer Burntisland is resorted to as a watering-place. It is one of the four Kirkealdy burghs. Pop. (1841) 1959; (1881) 4271.

Burnt Offering. See SACRIFICE.

Burnt Sienna, a fine orange-red pigment, obtained by burning the ferruginous ochreous earth known as Terra di Siena. See SIENA. For BURNT UMBER, see UMBER.

Burnt Stones, antique carnelians found in ruins, and seeming to have been acted upon by fire, having a dull appearance externally, but exhibiting a beautiful red colour when held up to the light.

Burr, AARON, an American statesman, born at Newark, New Jersey, 6th February 1756, graduated at Princeton, where his father and grandfather (Jonathan Edwards) had been president of the college, and in 1775 joined the patriot army, in which he gained a high reputation, and in 1777 the rank of lieutenant-colonel. Retiring in 1779, he was in 1782 called to the bar, where he soon became a leader. He was attorney-general in 1788-90, United States senator in 1791-96, and vice-president of the United States in 1800-4. His defeat in a contest for the governorship of New York led him to force a duel (7th July 1804) on the most active of his opponents, Alexander Hamilton, who had been his personal rival for many years, and who now fell mortally wounded at the first fire. Burr fled to South Carolina, and though indicted for murder, returned after the excitement had subsided, and completed his term as vice-president. He now prepared to raise a force to conquer Texas, and establish there a republic, which might detach the western states from the Union. This enterprise was proclaimed by the president, and Burr tried for treason (1807). Acquitted, but bankrupt in reputation, he spent some wretched years in Europe, and in 1812 returned to his law practice in New York. Here, shunned by society, the unhappy man, who had long survived all the members of his own family, died on Staten Island, 14th September 1836, in a home for which he was indebted to the charity of an old friend. Burr was a man of the world, of polished manners and fascinating address. He early adopted pronouncedly infidel views.

Burra Burra is the name of a famous copper mine in South Australia, 101 miles N. by E. of Adelaide. From 1844, when it was discovered, to 1875, 215,000 tons of ore, valued at £4,000,000, were raised.

Burrard Inlet, a narrow inlet at the south-west corner of British Columbia, a little north of the mouth of the Fraser River. Nine miles long, it forms one of the finest harbours on the Pacific coast, deep, safe, and easy of access for the largest ships. It has become of much more importance to the world by the opening of the Canada Pacific Railway, whose terminus is at Vancouver on the north shore of this inlet.

Bur-reed (*Sparganium*), a genus of Typhaceæ closely allied to the Bulrush (q.v.), and of similar

habitat and distribution, but readily distinguished by its globose flower-heads.

Burriana, a town of Spain, 34 miles N. of Valencia, and 1 mile from the Mediterranean. Pop. 10,058.

Burritt, ELIHU, a distinguished advocate of the doctrines of the Peace Society, and widely known as 'the learned blacksmith,' was born at New Britain in Connecticut, United States, December 8, 1810. He was brought up to the trade of a blacksmith, which he pursued in his native place and at Worcester, Massachusetts, whither he removed; but devoted all his leisure to study, especially to mathematics and languages. In the latter field of study his range was very wide, embracing more or less Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, and other oriental tongues, and almost all modern European languages. He was, however, much better known to the world as an earnest apostle of peace than as a scholar. At Worcester he edited the *Christian Citizen*, advocating the peaceful settlement of international difficulties and the doctrine of 'universal brotherhood,' for which purpose he also travelled through Europe and the United States. His chief works are *Sparks from the Anvil* (1848), *Olive Leaves* (1853), *Peace Papers* (1869), *Lectures and Speeches*, and *A Walk from John o' Groat's to Land's End* (1865). He took a prominent part in several Peace Congresses, and in advocating an ocean penny-postage. For many years he resided in England, from 1865 to 1870 as United States consul at Birmingham. He died at New Britain, 6th March 1879. See the memorial volume containing his Life, by Charles Northend (1879).

Burroughs, JOHN, a popular author on both sides of the Atlantic, born in Roxbury, New York, April 3, 1837. He was brought up on a farm, and after some years of teaching, journalism, and clerking in the treasury department at Washington, he settled down in 1874 on a farm in New York, to divide his time between literature, fruit-culture, and periodic duties as a bank-examiner. His books mostly deal with country life, and show great sympathetic insight into the life of nature. The chief are *Wake Robin* (1871), *Winter Sunshine* (1875), *Birds and Poets* (1877), *Locusts and Wild Honey* (1879), *Pepacton* (1881), *Fresh Fields* (1884), and *Signs and Seasons* (1886).

Bursary (Late Lat. *bursarius*, 'a treasurer,' from Gr. *bursa*, 'a skin'), the annual proceeds of a sum permanently invested for the maintenance of a student at a Scotch secondary school or university. Elsewhere a bursar is merely the treasurer of a college or monastery. A number of small bursaries were long the only equivalents at the Scotch universities for the scholarships of the English; but by the University Commissioners of 1863 many of these were consolidated into others of greater value for the encouragement of the higher learning, for which there had hitherto been the most meagre provision. Many restrictions that had become antiquated were removed, but a number of presentation bursaries were allowed to remain, some with a preference for a particular name, or natives of a particular district. Since 1863 a considerable number of scholarships for graduates, corresponding to English fellowships, have been founded by private individuals, particularly in Edinburgh and Glasgow; as well as many additional bursaries for undergraduates, among them ten founded at Edinburgh in 1881 by Thomas Carlyle to commemorate the name of his wife's father. At Edinburgh there are now over 200 bursaries of values varying from £2, 15s. 6d. to £100. At Glasgow there are about 200 bursaries, many of them small, the largest about £100. Its Snell exhibitions to Balliol College, Oxford, and its four Clark scholarships,

the last amounting to as much as £200, are the chief provision for higher learning. At St Andrews there are over 100 bursaries, varying in amount from £5 to £50; and at Aberdeen there are more than 250 bursaries, varying from £5 to £50.

Burscheid, a manufacturing town of Prussia, on the Wupper, 20 miles SE. of Düsseldorf. Pop. (1885) 6828.

Burschenschaft is the name of a famous association of German students, at one time prominent in the politics of the Fatherland. The name is derived from *Bursch*, a word ordinarily meaning 'student' or 'young fellow,' but more properly a student as member of an association. *Bursch* is itself from the Lat. *bursa*, 'purse,' the common fund of a company of students living at a common table in the universities of the middle ages. The *burschenschaft* was a club of students who had fought in the great war of liberation, and was founded at Jena in 1813. The motto was 'Honour, Freedom, Fatherland,' and the aim was in contrast to the mainly convivial character of other student clubs, to cherish the higher ideals of patriotism, and especially of German national unity. At a great festival at the Wartburg in 1817, almost all the other German universities sent representatives; and the *burschenschaft* soon comprised students of fourteen universities. It was inevitable that in the time of reactionary policy the club should be suspected of revolutionary tendencies; Sand, the murderer of the unpopular Kotzebue, was an old member; and in 1819 the *burschenschaft* was dissolved by the Prussian and other governments. The result was the formation of numerous secret and really revolutionary associations, in consequence of which hundreds of students were prosecuted and imprisoned (some for years), and several condemned to death (though not executed). It was not till 1840 that Prussia gave an amnesty to those implicated in the associations; and after 1848 all kinds of student clubs were freed from the severe restrictions that had so long created mischief, and allowed to conduct themselves very much in their own way.

Burslem, a town of Staffordshire, within the parliamentary borough of Hanley, 20 miles N. by W. of Stafford. It is known as the 'mother of the potteries,' the pottery manufacture having been here established about 1644. Porcelain and pottery of all kinds—Parian, iron and stone ware, &c.—are produced on a large scale, as well as encaustic tiles. There is also a glass manufactory. A fine town-hall, Renaissance in style, with a lofty clock-tower, was erected in 1865. Burslem was the birthplace of Josiah Wedgwood (1730–95); and a Wedgwood Memorial Institute was opened in 1870 to serve as a school of art, a free library, and a museum. Pop. (1851) 16,954; (1881) 26,522.

Burton, SIR FREDERIC WILLIAM, water-colour painter, was born in County Clare in 1816, and educated at Dublin. In 1856 he became a member of the Society of Painters in Water Colours; in 1874, director of the National Gallery; and in 1884 he was knighted.

Burton, JOHN HILL, historian, was born at Aberdeen on the 22d of August 1809. Having graduated at Marischal College, Aberdeen, he was articled to a lawyer, but soon came to the Edinburgh bar, where, however, he mainly devoted himself to study and letters. He was in 1854 appointed Secretary to the Prison Board of Scotland, and became one of the Prison Commissioners for Scotland. He held the old office of Historiographer Royal for Scotland, was LL.D. of Edinburgh University, and D.C.L. of Oxford. He died near Edinburgh, 10th August 1881. For a long series of years, from 1833 downwards, he was a

contributor to the *Westminster Review* of articles on law, history, and political economy; to *Blackwood's Magazine*, the *Scotsman*, &c., he furnished many literary sketches; and he was a contributor to the first edition of this *Encyclopædia*. Among his original works may be mentioned *Life of Hume* (1846), *Lives of Simon Lord Lovat and Duncan Forbes of Culloden* (1847), *Political and Social Economy* (1849), *Narratives from Criminal Trials in Scotland*, *A Manual of Scottish Law*, *A Treatise on the Law (Scottish) of Bankruptcy*, *History of Scotland from the Revolution to the Extinction of the Last Jacobite Insurrection* (1853), *The History of Scotland from Agricola's Invasion to the Revolution of 1688* (7 vols. 1867–70; new edition, enlarged and partly rewritten, 8 vols. 1873), *The Book-Hunter* (1862), *The Scot Abroad* (2 vols. 1864), *The Cairngorm Mountains* (1864). He edited vols. i. and ii. of the *Register of Privy Council (Scotland)* for 1545–78; and issued *A History of the Reign of Queen Anne* in 1880. He further edited the works of Bentham (in conjunction with Sir John Bowring), with an able introduction; and published a volume of *Benthamiana*. See *The Book-Hunter*, new edition (1882), with Memoir by his wife.

Burton, SIR RICHARD FRANCIS, one of the most daring and successful of modern travellers, was born in 1821 at Barham House, Hertfordshire, the son of Colonel J. N. Burton, and was educated in France and England. In 1842 he entered the Indian service, and served in Sind under Sir Charles Napier. In 1851 he published his first important work on *Sindh*. Burton acquired a very familiar acquaintance with Hindustani and Persian, and learned to speak Arabic like a native. He resolved to explore Arabia in the disguise of an Afghan pilgrim; and after a visit to England, in 1851 he set out on his journey. His *Personal Narrative of a Pilgrimage to El Medinah and Mecca* (1855; new ed. 1879–80) records one of the most daring feats on record. His next journey was into the country of the Somalis, in Eastern Africa. He was chief of the staff to General Beaton in the Crimea. In 1856 he set out in company with Speke (q.v.) on the journey which led to the discovery and exploration of the great lake of Tanganyika (q.v.), and afterwards travelled in North America. In 1861 he married, and was appointed consul at Fernando Po; and while holding this appointment, he visited the Cameroon Mountains, and went on a mission to the king of Dahomey. He was subsequently consul at Santos in Brazil, and at Damascus; and in 1872 he succeeded Charles Lever in the post of British consul at Trieste. In 1876–78 he paid two visits to Midian. In 1882 he visited the gold-producing country of the Guinea coast, along with Captain Cameron. He has received the gold medal of both the English and French geographical societies. He is master of thirty-five languages and dialects. He received the honour of knighthood in 1886. Lady Burton, who is of a Catholic family, has been the companion of his wanderings since 1861, and has written a narrative of travel, *Arabia, Egypt, India* (1879), and *Inner Life of Syria, Palestine, &c.* (1875).

Among Burton's many works are: *First Footsteps in East Africa* (1856), *The Lake Regions of Central Africa* (1860), *The City of the Saints* (1861), *Wanderings in West Africa* (1863), *The Nile Basin, Vikram and the Vampire* (1869). He has also written two other books on Sind, and works on Goa, Abbeokuta, Paraguay, Brazil, Syria, Zanzibar, Iceland (*Ultima Thule*, 1875), Bologna, and Midian; on Falconry, Sword Exercise, and Bayonet Exercise; has given us a translation of *Os Lusíadas* of Camoens (1880), his lyrics, and a *Life and Commentary* (1881); and a history of *The Sword* (1883).

In 1885-88 he published a new and literal translation of the *Arabian Nights* (q.v.) under the title of *The Thousand Nights and a Night*, in 16 vols. (10 vols. and 6 vols. of supplement), of which his wife issued an expurgated edition for popular perusal. There is a Life of him by Hitchman (1887); and he is engaged on a regular autobiography.

BURTON, ROBERT, author of the *Anatomy of Melancholy*, was born at Lindley in Leicestershire, in 1577, and educated at Nuneaton and Sutton Coldfield. He entered Brasenose College, Oxford, in 1593, and in 1599 was elected scholar of Christ Church. In 1614 he took his B.D., and two years later was presented by the dean and chapter of Christ Church to the vicarage of St Thomas at Oxford, and about 1630 by Lord Berkeley to the rectory of Segrave in his native county. Both livings he kept 'with much ado to his dying day,' and appears to have continued all his life at Christ Church, where he died 25th January 1639, leaving behind him a fine collection of books, many of which were bequeathed to the Bodleian. He was buried in the north aisle of Christ Church Cathedral, where a monument was erected to his memory, on which his bust was placed, with the calculation of his nativity inscribed above it, and beneath the epitaph he had composed for himself: *Pauca notus, paucioribus ignotus, hic jacet Democritus Junior, cui vitam dedit et mortem Melancholia*. His death took place at or very near the time he had foretold some years before by the calculation of his own nativity. This gave rise, Wood tells us, to a report that he had 'sent up his soul to heaven thro' a slip about his neck.' Burton is thus described by Anthony à Wood: 'He was an exact mathematician, a curious calculator of nativities, a general read scholar, a thro' paced philologist, and one that understood the surveying of lands well. As he was by many accounted a severe student, a devourer of authors, a melancholy and humorous person; so by others, who knew him well, a person of great honesty, plain dealing, and charity. I have heard some of the antients of Christ Church often say that his company was very merry, facetious and juvenile, and no man in his time did surpass him for his ready and dextrous interlarding his common discourses among them with verses from the poets or sentences from classical authors, which being then all the fashion in the university, made his company more acceptable.' Little is known of his life, but there is one story in Bishop Kennet's *Register and Chronicle* (1728) that must not be omitted, from the light it throws on a passage about Democritus in Burton's preface: 'In an interval of Vapours he would be extremely pleasant, and raise laughter in any Company. Yet I have heard that nothing at last could make him laugh, but going down to the Bridge-foot in Oxford, and hearing the Barge-men scold and storm and swear at one another, at which he would set his Hands to his Sides, and laugh most profusely.'

The first edition of the *Anatomy of Melancholy* was in quarto form, and appeared in 1621. Four more editions in folio were published within the author's lifetime, each with successive alterations and additions, spite of the author's announcement in the preface to the third (1628) that he would make no more changes. In this edition also first appeared the famous emblematic frontispiece. The final form of the book was the sixth edition (1651-52), printed from an annotated copy given just before Burton's death to the publisher, Henry Cripps, who gained, Wood tells us, great profit out of the book. This great work is divided into three divisions, each subdivided into *sections*, *members*, and *subsections*, and each preceded by an elaborate synopsis of its contents. Part I. treats of the causes and symptoms of melancholy, Part II. of

the cure of melancholy, and Part III. of love melancholy and religious melancholy. One of the most interesting parts of the book is the long preface, 'Democritus to the Reader,' in which Burton gives indirectly an account of himself and his studies, and apologises for not having bestowed his time on the composition of books of divinity, for which he saw, 'no such great need,' there being 'so many books in that kind, so many commentators, treatises, pamphlets, expositions, sermons, that whole tecmes of oxen cannot draw them.' Burton has had no better critic than himself in this same preface. He says: 'I have laboriously collected this Cento out of divers Writers, and that *sine injuria*, I have wronged no authors, but given every man his own.' And further, of his style he says: 'I neglect phrases, and labor wholly to inform my reader's understanding, and not to please his ear; 'tis not my study or intent to compose neatly, which an Orator requires, but to express myself readily and plainly as it happens. So that as a River runs sometimes precipitate and swift, then dul and slow; now direct, then *per ambages*; now deep, then shallow; now muddy, then clear; now broad, then narrow; doth my stile flow: now serious, then light; now comical, then satyirical; now more elaborate, then remisse, as the present subject required, or as at that time I was affected.' In the same preface he tells us 'I writ of melancholy, by being busie to avoid melancholy . . . to comfort one sorrow with another, idleness with idleness, *ut ex viperis theriacum*, make an Antidote out of that which was the prime cause of my disease.'

This strange book is unique in its interest, and is far more systematic in its construction than the superficial or merely occasional reader is apt to imagine. It is indeed a farrago from all, even the most out-of-the-way classical and mediæval writers, yet not one quotation out of all his ponderous learning but lends strength or illustration to his argument. Every page is marked by keen irony, profound and often gloomy humour, and by strong and excellent sense; while throughout the book there runs a deep undertone of earnestness that fits well with its concluding sentences, and at times rises into a grave eloquence of quite singular charm. The 'fantastic old great man' is as certain of immortality as the greatest masters in English literature, and his readers will ever love him with no common love. Boswell tells us that Dr Johnson said Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy* was the only book that ever took him out of bed two hours sooner than he wished to rise; and Charles Lamb shows the influence of the book not less in many a turn of his own quaint style than in that marvellous direct imitation, the 'Curious Fragments extracted from a Common-Place Book which belonged to Robert Burton, the famous author of the *Anatomy of Melancholy*,' first published in 1801 in the small volume containing the tragedy of *John Woodvil*. Milton's *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso* owed much to 'The Author's Abstract of Melancholy' prefixed to his book, and Ferriar in 1798 pointed out to the world the indebtedness of Sterne. Byron speaks of its great value as materials 'for literary conversation,' but Wood had long before pointed out this merit: 'Tis a book so full of variety of reading, that gentlemen who have lost their time and are put to a push for invention, may furnish themselves with matter for common or scholastical discourse and writing.'

Burton-on-Trent, a municipal borough of East Staffordshire and South Derbyshire, 25 miles from Stafford, on the river Trent, with stations on the Midland, London and North-Western, Great Northern, and North Stafford railways. The Grand Trunk Canal also passes the town, and enters

the Trent below. The ancient bridge of thirty-four arches was replaced in 1864 by a new one of twenty-nine arches. Burton-on-Trent owes its rapid extension to the brewing of ale, which is the staple product of the place. The opening of the Midland Railway in 1839 paved the way for future progress. Cotton-spinning was at first the chief industry, but this has been discontinued since 1849. Its rise and progress as a brewing centre has been largely due to the suitability of the water for this purpose. There was some small local trade in beer in the 16th century here; Burton ale had a repute in London in 1630; and a considerable export trade had been established with the Baltic ports by the middle of the 18th century. Burton-on-Trent had nine breweries in 1791, sixteen in 1851, and now there are thirty, some of them, such as those of Bass (q.v.) and Allsopp (q.v.), being on a scale of unparalleled magnitude. These thirty breweries employ about 8000 men and boys. There are, of course, extensive cooperages, and also iron-foundries. The town was incorporated by royal charter, dated 3d September 1878. It has an endowed school, a grammar-school, and various board schools. There is a recreation-ground, with walks and gardens, reading-rooms, and literary institutions. A church or monastery was erected by the Trent in the 9th century; Burton Abbey was founded and endowed by Wulfrie, Earl of Mercia, in 1002. It was made over by Henry VIII. with its lands to his secretary, Sir William Paget, ancestor of the present lord of the manor, the Marquis of Anglesey. In a fray which took place in 1321 on the old bridge, the forces of Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, were defeated by those of Edward II. The town suffered in the civil wars of the 17th century, and has suffered repeatedly by floods, the water standing to a depth of 4 or 5 feet on some streets in 1875. Pop. (1861) 18,745; (1881) 39,285.

Burtscheid, a town of Rhenish Prussia, about half a mile distant from Aix-la-Chapelle, has a good trade, with manufactures of woollen cloths and cassimeres, and celebrated sulphur springs and baths, with a temperature of 106° to 155° F. Pop. (1885) 12,139.

Buru, or **BOEROE**, an island of the Malay Archipelago, in the residency of Amboyna, from which it lies about 40 miles to the W. Area, with the small island of Ambian, 3360 sq. m.; population variously estimated at from 10,000 to 50,000. The marshy coast-lands are notoriously unhealthy, but lofty mountains rise in the interior, one peak (Tomahoe) attaining an altitude of 10,320 feet. A dense natural forest covers most of the country, and only a very small portion has been brought under cultivation. The soil is rich, and vegetation everywhere luxuriant; but the only important article of export is Cajeput-oil (q.v.).

Bury, a flourishing manufacturing town of South-east Lancashire, on a rising ground backed by hills on the north and east, between the Irwell and the Roche, 10 miles NNW. of Manchester. The woollen manufacture introduced by Flemings in the 14th century attained its zenith under Elizabeth, but had greatly declined by 1738, when Bury was merely 'a little market-town,' and it has long been all but eclipsed by the cotton industry. Besides spinning and weaving factories, there are important paper, print, bleach, and dye works, and some large foundries and engine manufactories. In the vicinity are excellent freestone quarries, and abundant coal-mines. The town has been much improved in drainage, and an ample supply of water introduced. Some improvements in the cotton manufacture arose here—notably, the invention by John Kay of the fly-shuttle. Sir Robert Peel (1788-1850) was born at Bury in a cottage

near Chamber Hall, his father being a great calico manufacturer. In 1832 a bronze statue of him was erected in the market-square. Bury was made a parliamentary borough, returning one member, in 1832; and was incorporated as a municipal borough in 1876. Pop. (1851) 31,262; (1881) 49,746.

Bury, **RICHARD DE**. See **AUNGERVILLE**.

Burying Beetle (*Necrophorus*), a genus of Coleopterous (q.v.) insects, of the family Silphidae, with short club-shaped antennae, remarkable for their habit of burying the bodies of mice, moles, and other small animals, in order to deposit their eggs



Burying Beetle.

in them, and to provide a supply of food for their larvae. They all produce a chirping noise caused by rubbing the fifth abdominal ring against the wing-covers. When touched they give off a fluid with an extremely fetid and persistent smell. They are often covered with little red mites. Some of the species are natives of Britain, among which is *N. vespillo*, in which the habits were first observed. This form is still commoner in some parts of continental Europe. It is a black beetle, about an inch long, with two bright orange bands on its wing-covers. Its sense of smell would seem to be extremely acute, and a dead animal soon attracts it, a pair generally arriving together to feed upon the body. The male proceeds to enter the corpse if sufficiently small, previous to which, however, they have sometimes to drag it to some distance to a place suitable for their purpose. The head of the insect is the only tool employed in the operation, and is held sloping outwards, and employed in a manner which exhibits great muscular power. A furrow is first made around the body, then another within the first, and so on till the earth is so excavated from beneath, that the body begins to sink, when the insects, by great efforts, drag it down into the hole, and when it is fairly in, the excavated earth is thrown back over it. The female then lays her eggs in it; and when this is accomplished, and the cravings of appetite are satisfied, it is left for the larvae, which are of a lengthened form, with six feet, whitish colour, and a brown head.—The known species are mostly natives of Europe and of North America. Silpha and other genera of the same family are common forms on dead and putrefying bodies.

Bury St Edmunds, or **ST EDMUNDSBURY**, a clean, well-built town of West Suffolk, pleasantly situated on the little river Lark, 26 miles NW. of Ipswich, and 76 NNE. of London. The *Villa Faustini* perhaps of the Romans, it received its name from Edmund the Martyr, who on Christmas-day 856 was crowned here king of the East Angles, and who in 870 was shot to death at Hoxne by the Danes. His relics were translated hither in 903, and in 1020 Canute reared a Benedictine abbey in his honour, which in time became the richest and most important in England, Glastonbury only excepted. At the dissolution its annual

income was equivalent to £200,000 of our money. Of this magnificent establishment little now remains but the noble Abbey Gate (1327-77), Decorated in style, and 62 feet high; and the Norman Tower or Church Gate (*circa* 1090), a quadrangular tower of massive simplicity, 86 feet high. The cruciform church itself, which measured 512 by 212 feet, is represented only by the west front and the piers of the central tower, one of which bears the inscription: 'Near this spot, on 20th November 1214, Cardinal Langton and the Barons swore at St Edmund's altar that they would obtain from King John the ratification of Magna Charta.' Among the many religious and charitable institutions connected with the abbey, of which portions still exist, is St Saviour's Hospital, founded by that notable abbot, Samson, whose life and actions, as recorded by Jocelin (q.v.) de Brake-londe, Carlyle has so vividly recalled in his *Past and Present*. The poet Lydgate was a monk of Bury St Edmunds; and Bishops Gardiner and Blomfield and Sir Nicholas Bacon were natives. Parliaments were held here in 1272, 1296, and 1446, the last of which ordered the arrest of Humphrey, the good Duke of Gloucester, who was found dead in his bed the morning after his arrest; and sovereigns as late as Elizabeth's time were often nobly entertained at Bury St Edmunds. St Mary's and St James's churches are both fine Gothic edifices of the 15th century; in the former is the tomb of Mary Tudor, the widow of Louis XII. of France. The grammar-school, founded in 1550 by Edward VI., was rebuilt on a new site in 1883 in Queen Anne style at a cost of £12,000. Donaldson was one of its head-masters, and amongst its scholars have been Saneroff, Cumberland, Blomfield, Fitzgerald, and Spedding. Defoe, Wollaston, and 'Mr Pickwick' were residents. Bury St Edmunds, indeed, is richer in memories than, perhaps, any town of its size. The very police-office is an old Norman house, a synagogue once, and known still as Moyse's Hall; whilst the guildhall has interesting remains of antiquity. Among modern buildings may be noticed the corn exchange (1862), the Suffolk General Hospital (1826; rebuilt 1864), the new barracks (1878), and the Mechanics' Institute (1853-78). Three miles south-west of Bury St Edmunds is Ickworth House (1792), the splendid seat of the Marquis of Bristol. Since 1883 Bury St Edmunds has returned only one member to parliament. Pop. (1801) 7655; (1841) 12,538; (1881) 16,111. See Gillingwater's *History of St Edmundsbury* (1804).

Busachino. See BISACQUINO.

Busa'co, a ridge (1826 feet) on the north side of the river Mondego, in the Portuguese province of Beira, 16 miles NNE. of Coimbra. Here Wellington, with 40,000 British and Portuguese troops, repulsed the attack of Massena with 65,000 French, 27th September 1810.

Busbecq, OGIER GHISELINDE, a Flemish diplomatist, was born at Commines in 1522, and educated at Louvain, Paris, and Padua. He held various offices at the court of the emperor; but is best known as ambassador of Ferdinand (1556-62) at Constantinople. He wrote two works on Turkey. He brought many MSS., coins, and plants to Europe, and died 1592. See his *Life and Letters* by Forster and Daniell (Lond. 1880).

Busby, a town with cotton-mills and print-works, in a mining district, 7 miles S. of Glasgow by rail. Pop. (1881) 2155.

Busby, RICHARD, a great English schoolmaster, was born at Lutton, otherwise Sutton St Nicholas, Lincolnshire, in 1606. Educated at Westminster School, and Christ Church, Oxford, he was in 1640 appointed head-master of Westminster School, the

duties of which office he continued to discharge until his death in 1695. He is the type of pedagogues alike for learning, assiduity, and unsparing application of the birch; none the less for his own loyalty and piety, and the grateful affection of his pupils. He was a most successful teacher, and at one time could point to no less than sixteen occupants of the bench of bishops who had been educated in his school. Among his pupils were Dryden, Locke, South, Atterbury, Philip Henry, and Bishop Hooper. He published several works, but they were chiefly for school use, and left money to found lectureships and to educate poor boys in his native place.

Busby, a military head-dress worn by hussars, and, in the British army, by horse artillerymen also. It consists of a fur hat with a short bag hanging down from the top on its right side, of the same colour as the facings of the regiment, and an upright plume in front. The origin of the name is obscure, but seems to be Hungarian, and it is said that the bag is a remnant of an ancient Hungarian long padded bag hanging down over the right shoulder to ward off sword-cuts.

Busch, WILHELM, comic artist, was born near Hanover, in 1832, and began in 1859 to draw humorous sketches for the *Fliegende Blätter*, the series called *Max und Moritz* appearing in 1860. He subsequently published in book-form *Der Heilige Antonius*, and a numerous series of witty and satirical sketches with rhyming texts.

Büsching, ANTON FRIEDRICH, geographer, was born in 1724 in Schaumburg-Lippe, and died, the director of a gymnasium in Berlin, 28th May 1793. Until the appearance of his unfinished *Erdbeschreibung* (1754-92), neither Germany nor any other nation possessed a geographical work which made any pretension to scientific treatment or completeness of execution.—His son, Johann (1783-1829), published many works on old German literature, art, and antiquities.

Busenbaum, HERMANN, was born in 1600 in Westphalia, and died rector of the Jesuit College at Münster, 31st January 1678. His *Medulla Theologicæ Moralitæ* (1645) became a standard authority in Jesuit seminaries, though several of its propositions were condemned by the popes, and it has gone through more than fifty editions (one in 2 vols. Louvain, 1848). On the occasion of Damien's attempt on the life of Louis XV. in 1757, it was publicly burned as containing a justification of regicide. 'When the end is lawful, the means also are lawful,' is perhaps its most famous maxim.

Bush Antelope, also called BUSH BUCK, and BUSH GOAT, names common to a number of species of Antelope (q.v.), natives chiefly of the southern and western parts of Africa. According to some naturalists, they form a distinct genus (*Cephalolophus*). They are animals of more compact form, shorter limbs, and greater strength, but much less agility, than the true or typical antelopes. They are remarkable for the arched form of the back. They have short, straight, or slightly curved horns, situated far back, and often peculiar to the male sex, with usually a long tuft of hair between them. They have no tear-pits, but instead of them, a naked glandular furrow, formed of two series of pores, on each cheek. They frequent jungles, thick forests, and beds of reeds, and when pursued, seek to escape by diving into a thicket. The commonest species is the Duyker (*C. mergens*), living in pairs in the bushy districts of South Africa. It stands about 20 inches high at the shoulder; the horns of the female are small and hidden by the hair-tuft. Among the numerous species of bush buck, the pigmy form or Kleenebok (*C. pygmaea*) deserves mention. It is abundant in many parts

of Cape Colony, is hardly larger than a hare, about 1 foot in height, and with proportionately small horns. It is a timid, gentle animal, easily domesticated, and differs from the typical bush antelopes in the great activity which it displays.

Bushel (Old Fr. *boissel*, through Low Lat. forms from Gr. *pyxis*, 'a box'), a dry measure used in Britain for grain, fruit, &c. The quarter contains 8 bushels, and the bushel 8 gallons, the gallon measuring 277.274 cubic inches, and holding 10 lb. avoirdupois of distilled water. Hence the imperial bushel, introduced in 1826, contains 80 lb. of water, at the temperature of 62° F., with the barometer at 30 inches, and has a capacity of 2218.2 cubic inches.

Bushey, a small village in the south of Hertfordshire, 1½ mile S. of Walford. Here, in 1882, Mr Herkomer established an art school on an unusually complete scale.—The royal park of Bushey, close to Hampton Court, is in Middlesex, 14 miles SW. of London.

Bushire, or ABUSHEHR ('father of cities,' also variously written Bushahr; in Persian, Bender-shahr), a principal port of Persia, on a sandy peninsula on the east shore of the Persian Gulf, in the province of Fars. The climate is most unwholesome, and the streets are narrow, ill paved, and dirty. The district is liable to be devastated by earthquakes and the simoom, and is deficient in water; but the situation is highly favourable for commerce. The exports in 1886 were valued at £494,936, and in 1885 at £586,162, half going to China, and more than a third to Great Britain and her colonies; the exports in 1886 were £571,429 (£525,751 British); in 1885, £790,995 (£728,208 British). It is the land terminus of the Indo-European telegraph line, and a chief station of the British Indian Steam-navigation Company. The chief exports are opium, tobacco, raw cotton, woollen goods, fruits, perfumery, silk, and horses; the imports, cotton and woollen goods, sugar, metals, indigo, tea, spices, chinaware, and glass. Bricks stamped with cuneiform characters have been found in the vicinity, at Rishire, which is believed to have been an Elamite settlement. Pop. 27,000, chiefly Persians, Arabs, and Armenians.

Bushmen, or BOSJESMANS, are a nomadic race found in South Central Africa, especially in the Kalahari Desert, where they subsist on game and the desert roots. In appearance the Bushmen are thin and wiry, but not dwarfish; poor and debased when found near the Cape, but of improved appearance and intelligence farther northwards. They do not cultivate the soil, build no huts, have no cattle or goats, wear only a few rough skins for clothing, and do not gather round a king or chief; at one time a numerous race, they are now rapidly becoming extinct. In some of the mountain caves which they have inhabited, rude paintings and sculpture are to be seen displaying real artistic talent. Although they resemble the Hottentots (q.v.) in colour and features, the relationship is by no means clear. The languages of both abound in curious and unpleasant clicking sounds, but have little or nothing else in common.

Bushnell, HORACE, an eminent American divine, born at New Preston, Connecticut, in 1802. He graduated at Yale College in 1827, and in 1833 became pastor of a Congregational church at Hartford, where the eloquence and power of his sermons, no less than the spiritual insight and profundity of his theological writings, soon made him famous. In 1849 a charge of heresy was brought against him for certain views about the Trinity alleged to be in his volume entitled *God in Christ*, but the charge was dropped, and Bushnell replied in the most dignified manner in 1851 in his

Christ in Theology, in which, after reviewing the beliefs that have prevailed in the church, he concludes that exactness in theology cannot be attained, from the defects of human language as a medium for expressing spiritual conceptions. Bushnell died February 17, 1876. His chief books are *Nature and the Supernatural as together constituting the One System of God* (1858), *The Vicarious Sacrifice* (1865), and *Forgiveness and Grace*. His *Women's Suffrage, the Reform against Nature* (1869), was widely read. See his *Life* by his daughter (New York, 1880).

Bushrangers, in Australia, originally runaway convicts, who had taken to the 'bush' and become robbers. In the early years of the century they established a reign of terror in what was then the sparsely settled Van Diemen's Land. In 1814 two officials of Port Dalrymple 'unlawfully absconded into the woods,' and 'put themselves at the head of divers profligate and disorderly persons,' of whom the proclamation names 27, including one Michael Howe, who afterwards assumed the title of 'King of the Ranges,' and escaped killing until 1818. Though most of these men surrendered or were pardoned, many would appear to have immediately resumed their course of plunder, until in 1815 martial law was proclaimed in the district by the lieutenant-governor. Stern measures were taken to repress the crime: under Governor Arthur (1824-36) 103 criminals were executed within two years. In 1830 a drastic Bushranging Act was passed in New South Wales, where at one time a band of fifty desperadoes in the Bathurst district fought regular engagements with the settlers and police, and only surrendered when a detachment of the 39th Foot was brought up from Sydney. Ten of these men were executed, and the Act, which was renewed in 1834, put a stop to bushranging on this scale. Outbreaks still occurred at intervals, as in 1840; but generally only three or four ruffians would band themselves together, and after a more or less brief and desperate course, their career would come to an untimely end, through the untiring and gallant service of the small body of mounted police. In later years bushranging has been unhappily facilitated by the colonial land laws, which, with their system of 'free selection before survey,' allow people to settle in isolated spots among the mountains, beyond the range of educational or religious influences, and outside the scope of police supervision; and thus any scoundrel is permitted to choose the most remote haunt for the headquarters of his villainy, to which he can retire after his raids. The pathless, thickly-wooded mountainous districts of eastern Victoria and New South Wales, with a cattle-dealing population who included many 'sympathisers,' have offered shelter to others besides the Kelly brothers. Among noted bushrangers may be mentioned Geary, a deserter, who in 1817 became leader of a band of a dozen desperadoes, was hunted down by a small detachment of regulars, and killed, the coroner's jury returning a verdict of 'homicide in furtherance of public justice;' Morgan, who after many murders and robberies was surrounded and shot in April 1865; and the Kelly gang of four men, who, formerly cattle-stealers, in 1878 murdered in the Wombat Ranges three constables sent to arrest them, and after a series of bold outrages, seized and pillaged Jerilderie, in New South Wales, February 8-10, 1879. This is a little town of 200 inhabitants, whom the bushrangers 'stuck up' in their own houses or in the principal hotel, three of them, after having cut the telegraph wires, mounting guard with loaded revolvers, while the leader, Ned Kelly, ransacked the bank and stole £2000. A special act was at the time in force, authorising the

detention of persons supposed to be in communication with them; but nothing more was heard of them till June 1880, when they were brought to bay in Glenrowan, a small town of northern Victoria, which also they had 'stuck up.' After ineffectually attempting to precipitate a special train, with constables and black trackers, into a deep gully, the outlaws took refuge in a hotel where they held the inhabitants prisoners. The police surrounded this place, and through the night of June 27-8 a heavy fire was exchanged by besiegers and besieged, the struggle ending only in the following afternoon, when three of the gang were found dead in the house, and the leader had been captured outside. All four bushrangers appear to have worn a heavy armour, in four pieces, made from ploughshares, and weighing about 97 lb.; the head-piece resembled an iron pot with a narrow slit for the eyes. Ned Kelly, who, thus defended, had boldly attacked the police, was finally brought to ground shot in the legs, and was hanged at Melbourne, 11th November, in spite of numerous petitions and deputations to the governor for a commutation of the death-sentence—which ill-considered applications for mercy were for many years an almost invariable rule in such cases.

Bush-shrike is the name of a sub-family of Formicariide, all American. They resemble the Butcher-bird (q.v.) or Shrike in their habits; and haunt the interior of bushes, where they seek for insects, larvae, and ants. Their song is specially vociferous. See ANT-THRUSH.

Busk, HANS, one of the chief originators of the volunteer movement, was born 11th May 1815, and educated at King's College, London, and Trinity College, Cambridge. He was called to the bar in 1841, and was chosen high-sheriff of Radnorshire in 1847. Even in his undergraduate days, Busk attempted to influence the government in favour of the establishment of rifle clubs in different districts of the country as a defence against invasion. Lord Melbourne gave him a discouraging reply. In spite of this he founded a rifle club at the university; helped in 1858 to revive the only existing volunteer corps, the Victoria Rifles; and lectured and issued pamphlets and treatises on the cause he had at heart. Besides this, he had a familiarity with naval construction, was one of the first to advocate the establishment of life-ship stations, fitting out a model at his own expense; and assisted in founding the School of Cookery at South Kensington. He died 11th March 1882.—RACHEL H. BUSK, sister of the above, a well-known folklorist and traveller, has published *Potrâșas* (1870), a collection of Spanish folk-tales; and *Folklore of Rome* (1874), as well as collections from the Tyrol and the East.

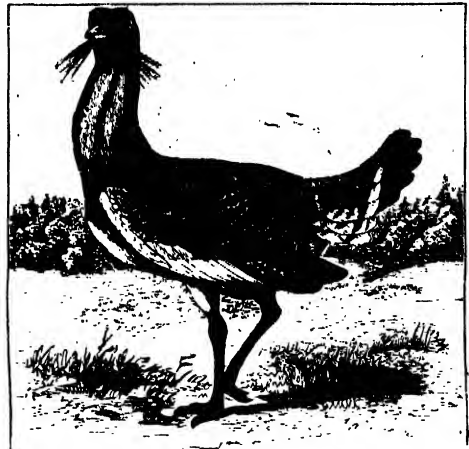
Buskin, a kind of half-boot lacing tight to the leg. The ancient tragedians wore buskins (*cothurni*), often with thick soles in order to add to the actor's height. Hence the 'buskin' is often used for tragedy as 'the sock' (*soccus*, 'a flat-soled shoe') is for comedy.

Bussu Palm (*Manicaria saccifera*), a palm growing in the tidal swamps of the Amazon. The stem is only 10 to 15 feet high; but the immense undivided coarsely serrate leaves are often 30 feet in length by 4 or 5 in width. The leaves make excellent and durable thatch, being split down the midrib, and laid obliquely on the rafters, so that the furrows serve as so many little gutters to carry off the water. The spathe, taken off entire, is used by the Indians for bags or caps, and also for the preparation of a coarse cloth.

Bust (Fr. *buste*, Ital. *busto*, Low Lat. *bustum*) is the sculptural representation, in the round, of the head and shoulders of a person, usually set upon a

base or pedestal; and may be made of marble, stucco, clay, metal, wood, or wax. Busts may be portrait busts or be purely ideal. Portrait busts of great excellence were made by the later Greek sculptors; and the Roman artists, especially in the imperial period, produced excellent work. The *imagines* or portraits of ancestors preserved by the early Romans were mere masks of wax. The Greek *herma* (see HERMES) were not strictly busts. See SCULPTURE.

Bustard (*Otis*), a genus of birds, sometimes made the type of a family, Otidide, usually ranked in the order of marsh birds like the cranes (*Grallæ*, q.v.). Bustards are birds of bulky form, with long neck and lank naked legs; the toes, three in number, all directed forward, short, united at the base, and edged with membrane; the wings rather rounded; the bill of moderate length, straight, or



Great Bustard (*Otis tarda*).

nearly so, with a wide gape; and in form not unlike that of a hen. They are mostly inhabitants of dry open plains, to which all their habits are adapted. They are shy but cunning, not well adapted for flight, live in companies, and feed on green parts of plants, seeds, insects, worms, &c. The nests are simple excavations in the ground.—The Great Bustard (*Otis tarda*) was at one time plentiful in some parts of England, and was also an inhabitant of the south-east of Scotland; but extending cultivation, and the persecution to which it has been subjected, have unfortunately banished it. It is common in the south and east of Europe, and yet commoner in the steppes of Tartary. It is the largest of European birds, the male sometimes weighing nearly 30 lb. A full-grown male is over a yard in length, and measures 8 feet from tip to tip of extended wings. The female is much smaller than the male. The bustards occur in small flocks, and are polygamous. The males fight freely. The maternal instincts are strong, though the nest is simple. Many of the young fall victims to birds of prey. The plumage is of a pale chestnut colour on the upper parts, beautifully varied with black; there is much white and black on the wings. The under side is whitish. The white-tipped tail is short, spreading, and rounded. A white whisker-like tuft of split-up feathers is present on each side of the throat in the summer dress of the male, and partly conceals a long stripe of bare skin on each side of the neck. The anatomy of the male exhibits a remarkable peculiarity in a large air-filled pouch, the entrance to which is between the under side of the tongue and the lower mandible.

The use of this bag is unknown. It has been poetically conjectured to be for conveying water to the females and young, in the arid plains. It is also said to add impressiveness to the voice of the male in his courtship. The Great Bustard feeds indiscriminately on animal and vegetable food, swallows frogs, mice, worms, &c., and is very fond of the green tops of some plants. This partiality is apt to be disastrous to turnip-fields and the like. Its flesh is highly esteemed for its flavour. The bird is said to afford good sport. The sharp sight, quick movements, habit of appointing sentinels, &c., make them difficult game. No difficulty is found in taming it, but all attempts to reduce it to a state of true domestication have hitherto failed, from its not breeding in the poultry-yard.—The Little Bustard (*O. tetrax*), frequent in the south of Europe and north of Africa, is only an accidental visitant in Britain. It is not half the size of the Great Bustard.—The Collared Bustard or Hubara, a separate genus (*Eupodotis undulata*), occurs in North Africa and Arabia, and occasionally strays northwards.—The Black-headed Bustard (*O. nigriceps*) is found in large flocks in the open plains of the Mahratta country. Its flesh is esteemed one of the greatest delicacies which India produces.—The Kori Bustard (*O. kori*) of South Africa, a magnificent bird, standing upwards of 5 feet in height, has a similar reputation as one of the best kinds of game.—Australia possesses a bustard (*O. australasianus*) somewhat exceeding the Great Bustard of Europe in stature. It is called Wild Turkey by the colonists of New South Wales. Its plumage is finely freckled or spotted; the prevailing colour is brown. It has become comparatively rare in the more settled districts, its flesh being particularly delicate and well flavoured, but may be seen stalking majestically in the grassy plains where human footsteps are still rare.

Busto-Arsizio, a town of Northern Italy, 20 miles NW. of Milan. It has an interesting church, and some manufacture of cotton-thread. Pop. 9291.

Butcher-bird, a name for various members of the Shrike family (Laniidae) of perching birds. The name refers to the habit the birds have of impaling on the thorns of hedge or bush the insects, mice, and small birds which they catch. They thus form a sort of larder which often presents a curious medley. The family is represented throughout the world, with the exception of South America. The Great Gray Shrike (*Lanius excubitor*) is one of the commonest of these butcher-birds, and has been sometimes seen as a winter migrant in Britain. See SHRIKE.

Butcher's Broom (*Ruscus*), a genus of ever-



Butcher's Broom (*Ruscus aculeatus*):
a, fruit.

green, usually dioecious, shrubs of the Asparagus

group of Liliaceae, remarkable for their reduced leaves, which are mere scales, bearing in their axils flattened leaf-like branches (cladodes) which bear the flowers upon their surface (*R. aculeatus*) or round their edge (*R. androgynus*), and are often twisted at the base, so as to reverse their upper and under surfaces. *R. aculeatus* is the common Butcher's Broom, so called because used by butchers to sweep their blocks. It grows more commonly and luxuriantly in the south of Europe. The fruit is a red one-seeded sweetish berry. It grows well under trees or shrubs, and can often be advantageously introduced for ornamental purposes. The root was formerly used as an aperient and diuretic.

Bute, an island in the Firth of Clyde, Scotland, separated from the coast of Argyll by a narrow winding strait called the Kyles of Bute, mostly under a mile wide, about 6 miles distant from the west coast of Ayrshire, and 8 miles NE. of Arran. It is 15½ miles long, 1¼ to 6¼ miles broad, and 49 sq. m. in area. The surface to the north is high, rugged, and barren, attaining 875 feet in Kames Hill; in the centre and south it is low and undulating, and comparatively fertile. The coast is rocky, and has some bays. Of six small lakes, the largest is Loch Fad (2½ by ¼ mile), in a cottage on whose west shore lived Kean and Sheridan Knowles. The climate is milder than in any other part of Scotland, and though moist, less so than on the west coast generally; hence, Bute is much resorted to by invalids. In the south the soil is sandy; towards the north clay predominates. Most of the arable land is under tillage, and agriculture is in a good state. The chief crops are oats, turnips, and potatoes. The principal town is Rothesay (q.v.). Most of the island belongs to the Marquis of Bute, whose beautiful seat, Mount-Stuart, 5 miles south-south-east of Rothesay, has been rebuilt since the fire of 1877 at a cost of nearly £20,000. Among the antiquities of Bute are Rothesay Castle, Kames Castle (John Sterling's birthplace), Kilmorie Castle, St Blane's Chapel; Dungyle, a remarkable vitrified fort on a high crag on the south-west coast; and the Devil's Caldron, a circular erection, the original purpose of which is not well known. From an early period till 1266 Bute was more or less subject to the Norwegians. The people of Bute are sometimes called *Brandanes*, presumably after the Saint Brendan (q.v.) whose name appears in Kilbrandon Sound, which separates Bute from Kintyre. Pop. (1801) 6106; (1841) 9499; (1881) 10,998.

BUTESHIRE, a county comprising the isles of Bute, Arran, the Cumbraces, Holy Isle, Pladda, Inchmarnock, and other smaller islands. The area of the whole is 225 sq. m., or 143,977 statute acres. Pop. (1871) 16,977; (1881) 17,057. Buteshire returns one member to parliament. The county town is Rothesay, in Bute. See J. Reid's *History of the County of Bute* (Glasgow, 1864).

Bute, JOHN STUART, third EARL OF, born in 1713, succeeded his father in 1723, and about 1737 attracted the favourable notice of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who made him one of his Lords of the Bedchamber. On the prince's death (1751), Bute became Groom of the Stole to his son, afterwards George III., over whose mind he obtained a strong influence. In March 1761 he was appointed one of the principal secretaries of state; and from 29th May 1762 to 8th April 1763 he was prime-minister. His government is memorable only as one of the most unpopular that ever held office in Britain, its fundamental principle being the supremacy of the royal prerogative, of which the executive government were merely the humble servants. Bute was incapable; but, worse than that, he was deuced by

the popular verdict, as set forth by a contemporary, 'unfit to be prime-minister of England, as (1) a Scotchman, (2) the king's friend, and (3) an honest man.' For some time he retained his influence over the king, but the last twenty-four years of his life were chiefly spent in complete retirement in the country, where he engaged in botany and other scientific pursuits. He died 10th March 1792. —His fourth descendant, John-Patrick Crichton-Stuart, born at Mount-Stuart, in Bute, 12th September 1847, in 1848 succeeded his father as third Marquis of Bute. Educated at Harrow and Christ Church, Oxford, in 1868 he was admitted into the Catholic Church by Monsignor Capel. He is author of several works, including a translation of the Roman Breviary (2 vols. 1879).

Butea, an Indian genus of Leguminosae, sub-order Papilionaceae, with long standard and compressed one-seeded pod. The best known species are *B. frondosa* (Dhak-tree) and *B. superba*. These trees present a gorgeous sight when covered with racemes of large orange-scarlet flowers. They yield a resinous exudation, which occurs in the form of lurid red tears, often covering the twigs, and is sometimes also called Bengal Kino (see KINO). The lac insect frequents the Dhak-tree, and yields a form of stick-lac (see LAC). The bark and roots are very fibrous, and the fibre is used for caulking boats. The flowers, called *Teesoo* or *Keesoo*, yield a beautiful yellow or orange dye.

Butler, a flourishing town and capital of Butler county, Pennsylvania, on the Conequenessing Creek, about 30 miles N. of Pittsburgh (45 by rail). It has woollen, flour, and planing mills, and plate-glass and carriage factories. The surrounding region is rich in natural gas, petroleum, and coal and iron fields. Pop. (1880) 3163; estimated (1888) 7000.

Butler, ALBAN, Catholic hagiographer, was born at Appletree, Northampton, in 1710. He was educated at Douai, and became professor there; was for some time chaplain to the Duke of Norfolk; and at his death (15th May 1773) was head of the English College at St Omer. His great work is the *Lives of the Saints* (4 vols. Lond. 1756-59). — His nephew, Charles Butler (1750-1832), was known as a lawyer and author on legal and theological subjects.

Butler, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, lawyer, general, congressman, and governor of Massachusetts, was born at Deerfield, New Hampshire, Copyright 1888 in U.S. 5th November 1818. His father, by J. B. Lippincott who had been captain under Company General Jackson, died soon after, and in 1828 his mother removed to Lowell, Massachusetts, which has ever since been his residence. Graduating at Waterville College, Maine, in 1838, and admitted to the bar in 1840, he became noted as a criminal lawyer, a champion of the working-classes, and an ardent Democrat. He served in the legislature in 1853, and in the state senate in 1859. At the Democratic National Conventions in 1860 at Charleston and Baltimore he strove to conciliate the southern leaders; but after secession he prepared for war, and as brigadier-general of militia responded to President Lincoln's call for troops with five regiments. On 16th May 1861 he was appointed major-general of volunteers, with the command of the department of Virginia. He refused to return the slaves who came to his headquarters at Fortress Monroe as being 'contraband of war.' Early in 1862 he commanded a military expedition against New Orleans, and after Farragut's fleets had passed the forts, took possession of the city on 1st May. The citizens were passionately devoted to the Confederate cause, but General Butler's prompt, vigorous, and severe

measures crushed all opposition, maintained order, and preserved public safety. In December he was superseded, but in November 1863 received a command in Virginia. His operations on the south side of the James in May 1864 were frustrated by the arrival of General Beauregard from Charleston. The canal which he had almost completed at Dutch Gap was disapproved by naval officers. In December, in his expedition against Fort Fisher, near Wilmington, North Carolina, a futile attempt was made to breach the walls by the explosion of a powder-boat. Returning to civil life, General Butler was elected to congress in 1866, and was prominent in the Republican efforts for the reconstruction of the southern states and the impeachment of President Johnson. During his twelve years' service he warmly advocated the issue of greenbacks as national currency. In 1878 and 1879 he was nominated for governor of Massachusetts by the National party, and endorsed by Democrats, but defeated. In 1882 he was elected to that office after a fierce campaign, but in 1883, though polling a still larger vote, was defeated. His nomination for president in 1884 was not taken seriously by the people, and though he spoke in several states he received but 133,825 votes. Small and sickly in youth, he afterwards grew robust; and he has ever been distinguished by intellectual force and dauntless courage.

Butler, GEORGE, D.D., born in London in 1774, from a school kept by his father in Chayne Walk, Chelsea, proceeded to Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, of which he was elected a fellow. He was head-master of Harrow from 1805 till 1829, when he retired to the Northamptonshire rectory of Gayton, and Dean of Peterborough from 1842 till his death on 30th April 1853. — GEORGE BUTLER, D.D., his eldest son, born in 1819, was educated at Harrow, at Trinity College, Cambridge, and at Exeter College, Oxford, where in 1841 he gained the Hertford, and in 1843 took a first-class in classics. He became vice-principal of Cheltenham College, and was principal of Liverpool College from 1867 to 1882, when Mr Gladstone gave him a canonry of Winchester. He is author of various religious, educational, and other works. — His youngest brother, HENRY MONTAGU BUTLER, D.D., born in 1833, was educated at Harrow and Trinity College, Cambridge, where he was senior classic in 1855. He was head-master of Harrow from 1859 till 1885, when he accepted the deanery of Gloucester, to exchange it, however, next year for the mastership of Trinity.

Butler, JAMES. See ORMONDE.

Butler, JOSEPH, one of the most eminent of English divines, was born 18th May 1692 at Wantage, in Berkshire, the youngest of the eight children of a retired draper. With a view to the ministry of the Presbyterian Church, he attended a dissenting academy at Gloucester, afterwards at Tewkesbury, where the future Archbishop Secker was his schoolfellow. At the age of twenty-two, he gave proof of high metaphysical ability in a letter to Dr Samuel Clarke, usually appended to that celebrated writer's *a priori* demonstration, to which it offers some objections. About this time he made up his mind to join the Church of England, and in March 1714 entered Oriel College, Oxford. He graduated in 1718, and took orders; in the same year he was appointed preacher at the Rolls Chapel, where he preached those remarkable sermons which he published in 1726. The first three, *On Human Nature*, constitute one of the most important contributions ever made to moral science. The scope of the reasoning is, briefly, that virtue is consonant with, and vice a violation of, man's nature. He

became prebendary of Salisbury (1721), and rector of Houghton-le-Skerne near Darlington (1722); in 1725 he was presented to the 'golden rectory' of Stanhope, also in the county of Durham, to which he removed in the following year. Here he resided in great retirement till 1733, and is believed to have been busy on his *Analogy*. His friend Secker, the archbishop, desired to see him promoted to some more important position, and mentioned his name once to Queen Caroline. The queen thought he had been dead, and asked Archbishop Blackburne if it were not so. 'No, madam,' said the archbishop, 'he is not dead, but he is buried.' In 1733 Butler became chaplain to his friend Lord Chancellor Talbot, a D.C.L. of Oxford, and in 1736 a prebendary of Rochester, and clerk of the closet to Queen Caroline. In 1736 he published the great work of which the germs were contained in his three sermons, and which has entitled him, in the words of his eloquent disciple Chalmers, to be called the 'Bacon of theology.' The leading aim of the *Analogy* is to show that all the objections to revealed religion are equally applicable to the whole constitution of nature, and that the general analogy between the principles of divine government, as revealed in the Scriptures, and those manifested in the course of nature, warrants the conclusion that they have one Author. The argument is valid against the deists, but it lacks completeness as a defence of Christianity. Butler's greatness is mainly on the moral side. The dedication of conscience is the beginning, middle, and end of his teaching. Duty is his last word. He puts the deists into a state of probation by plying them with arguments sufficient in reason to influence their practice, whether they may actually do so or not; whereas the true method of Christianity is to put something that tends to transform a man and his practice in such a way that he feels disposed and eager to lay hold of it. In 1738 he was made Bishop of Bristol; in 1740 Dean of St Paul's; in 1747 he is said to have been offered the primacy; and in 1750 he was translated to the see of Durham. In his charge in 1751 he pointed out, with characteristic depth of insight, the importance of a due maintenance of the externals of religion, as a means of keeping alive the thought of it in the minds of the people; but this subjected him to much censure as betraying a tendency to Roman Catholicism—an allegation unworthy now of serious notice. Butler's private character was such as became a Christian prelate; grave and judicious, he was at the same time meek and generous. He was kind and considerate to his clergy and people; his princely episcopal revenues he distributed munificently, as not his own. He died at Bath, June 16, 1752, and was buried in Bristol Cathedral. His works, notwithstanding a dry and uninteresting style, have gone through numerous editions. These with Life by Kippis and notes by Halifax, were first collected and published at Edinburgh (1804); reprinted at Oxford (1807), and subsequently; there are good separate editions of the *Analogy*, and of the *Three Sermons*; and a Life by Bartlett (1839). See also W. L. Collins's *Butler* (1881).

Butler, SAMUEL, author of *Hudibras*, the son of a small farmer, was baptised at Strensham, Worcestershire, in February 1612. He was educated at Worcester grammar-school, and 'thence went,' says Antony à Wood, 'as his brother, now living, affirms, to the university of Cambridge; yet others of the neighbourhood say to Oxon, but whether true I cannot tell.' In early life he served as secretary to a Mr Jeffreys, a justice of the peace, of Earls-Croome in Worcestershire, where he is said to have occupied his leisure in the study of music and painting. He was afterwards for several years in the service of the Duchess of Kent, and became

intimate with Selden, who was steward to the duchess. At a later date he was clerk to a Puritan gentleman, Sir Samuel Luke, of Cople Hoo, near Bedford, who is supposed to have sat for the portrait of Hudibras. After the Restoration he became secretary to the Earl of Carbery, Lord President of the Principality of Wales, by whom he was appointed steward of Ludlow Castle. About this time he took a wife, who brought him a competent fortune, which 'by being put out in ill securities . . . was little advantage to him.' The first part of *Hudibras* appeared in 1663; the second part in 1664 (a pirated second part having been published in the previous year); and the third part in 1678. In this witty and pungent satire on the Puritans Butler showed himself to be an inimitable master of burlesque. His command of rhyme was inexhaustible; his learning curious and copious; and his epigrammatic sayings are so happily phrased that some of them have been quoted from age to age, until they have passed into the language of daily life. The poem secured immediate popularity, and is said to have been a special favourite of Charles II. But Butler's loyalty and wit procured him no substantial preferment. All that he received from the king was a solitary grant of three hundred pounds, which he distributed among his creditors. Probably the accounts of his poverty have been exaggerated; and Aubrey hints that he had only himself to blame, for 'he might have had preferments, but he would not accept any but very good.' He is said to have been patronised in later life by the Duke of Buckingham; but there appears to be no foundation for the statement. Among Butler's posthumous *Characters* (of which the authenticity has not been assailed) is a very severe article on 'A Duke of Bucks.' From the Earl of Dorset, who introduced *Hudibras* to the king, he received some kindness; but his best friend was William Longueville of the Temple. He died in Rose Street, Covent Garden, of a consumption, on 25th September 1680, and was buried, at Longueville's expense, in the churchyard of St Paul's, Covent Garden. Oldham in his satire against poetry has some vigorous lines on Butler:

Of all his gains by verse, he could not save
Enough to purchase flannel and a grave;
Reduced to want he in due time fell sick,
Was fain to die and be interred on tick.

In 1721 a monument was erected to Butler in Westminster Abbey at the expense of John Barber, a citizen of London. Aubrey, who knew him well, describes Butler as a man of middle stature, 'strong-set, high-coloured, a head of sorrel hair, a severe and sound judgment: a good fellow.' The collection of *Posthumous Works*, published in 1716, consists (with three exceptions) of anonymous waifs and strays, unwarrantably fathered on Butler. But *The Genuine Remains in Verse and Prose of Mr Samuel Butler* (2 vols. 1759), edited by R. Thyer, stand on a different footing. The manuscripts (now preserved in the British Museum) from which they were drawn belonged originally to Butler's friend, William Longueville, whose son, Charles Longueville, bequeathed them to John Clarke, who intrusted them to Thyer. A valuable and elaborate edition of *Hudibras*, edited by Dr Zachary Grey, appeared in 1744, and was twice re-issued in 1819.

Butler, WILLIAM ARCHER, a religious and philosophical writer, was born in 1814 at Annerville, near Clonmel, Ireland. The child of a mixed marriage, he turned Protestant while still a school-boy at Clonmel, and two years later entered Trinity College, Dublin, where he was appointed professor of Moral Philosophy in 1837. In addition to his professional duties, he acted as a clergyman of the Church of Ireland at Clondahorky and Raymoghly, and during the Irish famine of 1846-47 he was

unwearied in his exertions as a relieving-officer. He died 5th July 1848. The work on which his reputation is based is the *Lectures on the History of Ancient Philosophy* (2 vols. 1856; 2d ed. 1875). Other posthumous works were his *Sermons* (2 vols. 1849), with a memoir by Woodward; *Letters on the Development of Christian Doctrine* (1850), a reply to Newman's theory of development; and *Letters on Romanism* (1854).

Butler, MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM FRANCIS, C.B., born in County Tipperary in 1838, was educated at Dublin, and joining the army, was ensign of the 69th regiment in 1858, became captain in 1872, and lieutenant-colonel in 1880. He served on the Red River Expedition, was sent on a special mission to the Saskatchewan (1870-71), served on the Ashanti Expedition (1873), as staff officer in Natal (1879), and took a prominent part under Lord Wolseley in the Soudan Campaign (1884-85). He has published *The Great Lone Land* (1872), *Wild North Land* (1873), *Akinfoo* (1875), *Far Out* (1880). In 1877 he married Miss ELIZABETH SOUTHERDEN THOMPSON, a distinguished painter of battle-scenes, born at Lausanne about 1843. From her earliest years she loved to draw horses running, soldiers, and anything instinct with life; she studied drawing at home, in Florence, in the School of Art, Kensington, from five to sixteen, when she began to paint in oil. After several rejections, her first Academy picture, 'Missing,' was exhibited in 1873, and in the following year the 'Roll Call' established her reputation as a spirited and faithful painter of military subjects. It attracted great attention, was publicly exhibited, engraved, and finally became the property of the Queen. Her 'Quatre Bras' (1875) drew praise from Ruskin, and her chief pictures since are 'Balaklava' (1876); 'Inkermann' (1877), which was purchased by the Fine Art Society for £3000; 'Listed' (1878); 'Floreat Etona'; and 'Charge of the Scots Greys at Waterloo' (1882). She has also illustrated a volume of poems by her sister, Mrs Meynell.

Butlerage, otherwise called the *prisée* of wines, was a right exercised by the crown in England to take two tuns of wine from every ship (English or foreign) importing into England twenty tuns or more, which, by charter of Edward I., was

exchanged into a duty of two shillings for every tun imported by merchant strangers, and called *butlerage*, because paid to the king's butler.

Butomus, a genus of Helobia, an order of aquatic monocotyledons sometimes called Marsh-lilies, of which one species, *B. umbellatus*, is frequent in ditches and ponds in England, Ireland, and many parts of Europe, but very rare in Scotland. It is



Butomus.

popularly called Flowering Rush (*Juncus floridus* of Ovid), and is one of the plants to which the praise has been assigned of being the most beautiful in the British flora. The leaves are all radical,

2 to 3 feet long, linear, triangular, their sharp edges sometimes cutting the mouths of cattle, whence the generic name (Gr., 'ox-cutting'). The flowering stem bears a large umbel of rose-coloured flowers, readily distinguished by their nine stamens, six in pairs opposite the outer perianth, and three opposite the inner.

Butt, ISAAC, a great Irish patriot, the first to make political use of the phrase 'Home Rule,' was the son of a Protestant rector, and was born in County Donegal in 1813. Educated at Raphoe and at Trinity College, Dublin, he gained a brilliant reputation for his accomplished scholarship, edited the *Dublin University Magazine* from 1834 to 1838, and filled the chair of Political Economy in his university from 1836 to 1841. He was called to the Irish bar in 1838, and ere long became a foremost champion of the Conservative cause, actively opposing O'Connell's Repeal Association in 1843. His political conversion occurred early, for in 1852 he was returned as a 'Liberal Conservative' for Youghal, for which constituency he sat until 1865. He defended Smith O'Brien and others in the state trials of 1848, and with equal fearlessness and self-devotion all the Fenian prisoners between the years 1865 and 1869. In 1871 Butt was returned for the city of Limerick to take the lead of the Home Rule party in the House of Commons, but soon found, to his mortification, that he could not control the forces he had formed. He died near Dundrum, in County Dublin, 5th May 1879.

Butter (Lat. *butyrum*) is, as represented in this country, the fat of cow's milk, which after separation in the form of Cream (q.v.) from the watery portion, has by means of agitation been made into a solid greasy mass; through the concussion induced by the operation of Churning (q.v.) breaking the outer skin of the butter globules, and thereby enabling them to adhere closely together, in place of their floating about independently in the liquid milk, or forming the oily substance known as cream, which has little cohesive power.

By the ancients butter was used as an ointment for the skin, and in Southern Europe, even now, it is rarely taken with food. Olive-oil is there a more natural and more common product for supplying the fat necessary for food purposes.

The separation of Cream (q.v.) having been accomplished, butter may be churned immediately, though the operation would probably be prolonged. The usual method is to set the cream to 'ripen,' to induce a condition of incipient acidity through the production of Lactic Acid (q.v.), by keeping it at a temperature of 60° F. for twelve hours, stirring being frequently resorted to, to prevent clotting, and to preserve uniformity of character in the cream, with the object of securing uniformity in the butter. It is important that a thermometer should be used to determine temperatures. The average temperature at which cream is churned is 60° F. In summer during hot weather this may be with advantage reduced to 55° or 56°, while during frost it may be raised to 65°, or in ordinary winter weather 62° to 63°. If these figures are adopted, the temperature during the operation will rise a few degrees in hot weather, and fall slightly when the temperature of the atmosphere is low. Heating should be done by placing the vessel containing the cream in a hot-water bath. This, and constant stirring of the cream while heating is proceeding, secure uniform heating, and prevent the injury to texture resulting from scalding a part of the cream in contact with the side of the vessel. When everything is in proper condition, in about thirty minutes the cream ought to 'break' in the churn, and the butter collect in a granular form; the small pieces

being about as large as wheat grains. The Butter-milk (q.v.) is then *strained* off, and a small quantity of pure cool water put into the churn in place of it, sufficient to wash off the most of the buttermilk remaining. The second washing is done to cool, and thereby consolidate the butter, which is at first soft, more especially in warm weather. A plentiful supply of water is required, and to it may be added a little salt. The third time water is added it is in small quantity sufficient to float the butter, so that it may be easily removed from the churn. After this butter should be worked as little as possible to prevent injury to its granular texture, which for marketing purposes is one of its most important qualities. On account of the injury done to the texture of butter by the various mechanical 'butter-workers' used to press the water out of it, these workers have in recent years found less favour.

In any case butter should be as little as possible touched by the hand, and that only when it is cold and quite clean. If milk is left in the butter, it soon becomes rancid and offensive both to taste and smell. Butter may be made to keep good for a longer or shorter period by adding salt, which must be pure dairy salt. Ordinary salt retailed by small grocers often contains impurities, such as salts of magnesia, which give a bitter taste and had smell to butter, if mixed with it. Salt may be incorporated with butter by washing it with a thick brine. 'Powdered' butter is made by working finely divided dry salt, $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. to 1 lb. of butter, into it. The name 'salt' butter is used when 1 oz. per lb. has been added. So as to insure the proper mixing of the salt, the butter should be allowed to lie for a few hours before the working is completed.

'Fresh' butter, to which salt has not been added, has a peculiarly rich flavour immediately after coming from the churn. This flavour varies considerably with the condition of the cream as regards ripeness or acidity before churning. Sweet-cream butter from sweet cream does not give a full flavour, and it does not keep so long. Rancid cream produces a bad flavour in the butter, due largely to the presence of Butyric Acid (q.v.). It is also inferior in keeping qualities. Butter from moderately ripe cream has a fine flavour, and, when well made, it ought to remain good and sweet for a week. But the butter which has the fullest and finest flavour of all is that made from cream churned when at an advanced stage of ripeness. Such butter should be eaten within a day, or two days, of its churning, as its keeping qualities are defective.

Butter made from the milk of cows feeding on grass or sweet silage is of a yellow colour, which deepens with the richness of the pasture. Cows kept in the house on hay or dry food, give white and inferior butter. Cows that have been many months calved yield pale butter; and, besides, such butter is more difficult to churn, on account of the butter globules being small. Annatto (q.v.) is frequently used, being put into the churn, to give a colour corresponding to that of good grass butter. The juice expressed from a carrot which has been rasped down serves the purpose in the country, if the butter is to be consumed within a few days; but after a time it injures the keeping qualities by decaying.

The butter made from the milk of the Indian Buffalo (*Bos bubalus*) is extremely pale and insipid. In India, on account of the extreme heat, butter does not keep, and for Anglo-Indians it is usually made each morning by the native servants shaking the cream in a bottle. It has been suggested that butter-making is an oriental invention, and may have been first obtained by Arabs who carried milk in skin-bottles on the backs of camels, which in walking gave the necessary churning motion.

Tinned salt butter of excellent quality is also sent from Europe to India. Butter of native Indian manufacture, if intended to be kept, is boiled or clarified, and then it assumes the name of *Ghee* (q.v.), which is largely used in native cookery and the manufacture of sweetmeats. Though butter has been locally used from the very earliest periods of which records exist, yet it is only within recent years that it has become to a great extent an article of international commerce. Ireland makes much excellent butter. Britain imports it largely from America, and also from the Continent—Holland, France, and Denmark. By the returns in 1887, the total imports into the United Kingdom of butter amounted to 1,543,566 cwt., and the exports to 165,070 cwt.

Butter-making in America is carried out mostly in butter-factories or creameries. These were instituted on account of the difficulty of attaining good results in small establishments under the influence of a climate which is less favourable than that of Great Britain for the manufacture of milk into butter or cheese. By adopting the co-operative principle farmers can afford to employ the best trained operators, and purchase the best machinery and appliances for securing a uniformly good sample, representing a large bulk, which ultimately becomes known in the market, and thereby secures more than an average price. Margarine-factories are very generally associated with butter-factories, and another part of the work of many of the latter is the manufacture of skim-milk into cheese, after adding some pure oil to it to make up for the loss of butter fat.

Butter-factories have become more numerous in this country and in Ireland within recent times. Centrifugal separators are used to remove the cream from the milk as soon as possible after it comes from the cow. The skim-milk is thus got sweet and fresh, and is sent without delay to the large town centres, and there sold to the working-classes cheaper than new milk. The cream is churned when sufficiently ripe, and before it becomes sour, which it is extremely liable to do during sultry weather under the old method of raising it by setting the milk in flat vessels. The parcel post is now taken advantage of by certain factories to send daily supplies of fresh sweet butter to all parts of the country. The establishment of butter-factories throughout the country will tend greatly to improve the quality of butter produced. See the articles CHURN and DAIRY; also L. B. Arnold's *American Dairying* (New York, 1877), Professor Long's *British Dairy Farm* (1885), and Sheldon's *Dairy Farming* (1870-81).

BUTTERINE is a substance which, when well made, cannot be distinguished from good butter except by chemical analysis. The substitution of it for pure butter had grown to such an enormous extent in Great Britain, that it was found necessary to prohibit its sale under this name, by act of parliament in 1887. It is now sold as *Margarine*, or *Olep-Margarine*, and may be regarded as a valuable adjunct to the food of the labouring-classes. It is made with great care and skill from the finest ox-fat, which is passed through an elaborate and highly scientific process of purification. It is then mixed with a varying proportion of real butter, and flavoured by washing with milk, and finally marketed in large quantities in a beautiful uniform condition. It is largely manufactured in America, as also on the Continent, and to a limited extent in Great Britain, which in 1886 imported no less than 887,974 cwt. of it. In 1888 the Danish minister of the interior was empowered to prohibit the exportation of artificial butter from Denmark.

BUTTERMILK is the residue of cream after the

butter has been removed by churning. It forms a wholesome and agreeable as well as a nourishing drink in hot weather. It possesses the slightly acid taste from the acidity developed in ripening the cream. In composition it retains the ash ingredients, casein, and sugar of ordinary milk, while, on account of small particles of butter being left in it, it is not devoid of fatty matter. When the whole milk is churned, the resulting buttermilk is inferior both in taste and quality. It would be very valuable if sold at a low price to the poor people in the slums of our large cities. In the country districts of both Ireland and Scotland it is commonly taken with porridge or potatoes. Buttermilk is light and digestible, and is used as a beverage in the treatment of certain diseases.

Butter, in Chemistry, is often applied generically to any substance of the consistence of butter, and is therefore used to designate palm, coconut, shea, and nutmeg oils. It is also applied to certain metallic substances which have an oily aspect and consistence resembling melted butter; thus we have butter of antimony, bismuth, zinc, and tin.—Butter of antimony is a thick, dense, oily compound, produced by acting upon the native sulphide of antimony, Sb_2S_3 , by concentrated hydrochloric acid, HCl , and heat, when the oily chloride of antimony, $SbCl_3$, is formed. See **ANTIMONY**.

Butter (Rock), or HALOTRICHITE, a mineral which may be regarded as a variety of Alum (q.v.)—an iron alum, appearing as a pasty exudation from rocks that contain alum or its constituents, particularly alum-slate and other schistose rocks. Rock butter occurs at Hurlet alum-works, near Paisley, Scotland, and in a number of places on the continent of Europe. It is not unlike butter in colour, varying from yellowish-white to sulphur-yellow, is silky-fibrous, and has an inky astringent taste. It is rather greasy to the touch, and is easily broken in pieces.

Butter-bur (*Petasites vulgaris*) is a perennial Composite, common in wet meadows and beside streams, of which the huge simple and somewhat rhubarb-like leaves form a very characteristic foreground in such landscapes. The small sub-diurnal whitish-purple flower-heads are borne in exuberant racemose masses, which come up like those of its ally Coltsfoot (*Tussilago*, q.v.), in early spring, before the leaves.

Buttercup is a name given to one or more species of *Ranunculus* (q.v.).

Butterfield, WILLIAM, architect, born 7th September 1814. Most of his buildings are Gothic, and his speciality is colour by means of brick, stone, marble, and mosaic. The best-known works by him are Keble College, Oxford; St Augustine's College, Canterbury; the Chapel and Quadrangle of Rugby; All Saints', Margaret Street, London; and St Albans, Holborn.

Butterfish. See GUNNEL.

Butterfly, a general name for any of the daylight Lepidoptera, in contrast to the twilight and nocturnal forms similarly slumped together under the popular name Moths (q.v.). Butterflies may be fairly called the favourite insects; the ravages committed in their caterpillar stage seem absolved by the grace and beauty of their adult life; the contrasts of their life-history have formed the subject of oft-repeated parables; the richness and variety of their colouring make them at once the cruel delights of boyhood and the living jewels of the artist; their thousand variations have for long afforded scope for the unwearied labours of the entomologist; while their ethereal winged beauty has appeared to many a poet fitly symbolic of the human soul.

Zoological Position.—The Lepidoptera form one of the highest orders of insects, with these general characters—the mouth parts are most conspicuously represented by a rolled-up proboscis; the first ring of the thorax is not free; the body is cylindrical and compact; both pairs of wings are alike, membranous, and covered with fine, dusty, coloured scales; the 'tibia' joints of the thin legs are spurred; the metamorphosis in the life-history is complete; they almost all live on vegetable juices. Some naturalists find relationship between the Lepidoptera and such Neuroptera as the caddisflies (Trichoptera), among which they would look for representatives of the ancestral butterflies. The Lepidoptera, as a whole, form an immense order, with probably more than 20,000 species. The classification of these is a problem of much difficulty, as is always the case when numerous modifications occur within a narrow range. It has been the custom to distinguish Macrolepidoptera, including eight families, from Microlepidoptera, with four. But the main differences between these two divisions refer to size and habit, though certain distinctions in regard to the veining of the wings can also in most cases be drawn. With more justice the butterflies proper (Rhopalocera) have been distinguished from the mob of moths (Heterocera). In the former, the antennæ have club-shaped ends; there are no eye-spots; the wings are held upright when at rest; the posterior pair is not hooked to the anterior. In the latter, the antennæ are spindle-shaped, thread-like, or often with comb-like processes; the wings when at rest are flat, or at anyrate not upright; the posterior pair is very generally linked to the anterior. But while the former division includes only one family of butterflies proper, or Papilionidæ, the latter includes a dozen or so, and the distinction of these into twilight moths (Crepuscula), nocturnal forms (Nocturna), and Microlepidoptera does not greatly simplify matters. For our present purpose, however, the classification is sufficient so far as it distinguishes the butterflies proper (Rhopalocera or Papilionidæ) from the other families of Lepidoptera.

Structure.—Without describing those characters in which the butterflies agree with other insects, a few of the more striking features must be noted. Butterflies vary in size from less than an inch to almost a foot across the expanded wings.

(a) *External characters*. Every one is familiar with the slender body of the butterfly, with the club-tipped (in one family also hooked) feelers, large eyes, long rolled-up sucking tube, hairy or scaly skin, and broad outspread wings. The three joints of the middle portion or thorax are fused together; the abdomen especially is slender. (b) *The mouth organs*, which are so important in insects, consist of the usual parts, but only one pair of these, the maxillæ, attain conspicuous development. The upper lip (*labrum*) or portion of the head just above the mouth is very small; the first pair of appendages or *mandibles* are degenerate; the second pair or *maxillæ* are prolonged to form between them the long suctorial tube or *proboscis*,



Fig. 1.—Mouth Parts of Cabbage Butterfly (after Leunis):

a, suctorial tube formed from first pair of maxillæ; b, the labial palps belonging to the second pair of maxillæ. At the base of the former, hints of upper lip, mandibles, and second maxillæ can be seen.

but their side pieces or *palps* are usually extremely rudimentary; the second pair of maxillæ (forming the *labium*) are in themselves small, but their lateral pieces (*labial palps*) are relatively large three-jointed organs. The two half-tubes forming the proboscis are well known to be rolled up in a spiral when not in use. The presence of scent-producing organs in some butterflies, apparently a sexual character in some cases, though doubtless protective in others, implies the existence of some sense of smell, though the nature of this is unknown. The structure of their eyes, and their behaviour in regard to flowers, point to considerable powers of vision. (c) The *legs* are hairy, and are very little used in locomotion. The most anterior pair are often shortened, without claws, markedly different from the other two pairs, and are sometimes degenerate in the males, or in both sexes. (d) The *wings* are broad, not hooked together, and are almost always held upright during rest. They are covered with scales or flattened sac-like modifications of hairs, which inclose the familiar colouring matter, and often by their fine striate markings produce a metallic sheen. There are few transverse veins or nervures. The anterior wings have only one 'dorsal vein,' the posterior may have two, and then exhibit a groove suited to the abdomen or posterior portion of the body, or they have but one, and then have their inner margin cut away to fit the abdomen. The posterior wings are sometimes prolonged into beautiful tail-like appendages. At the root of each anterior wing, on the dorsal surface of the large middle ring of the thorax, is a shield, half-hidden with hair, which more or less conceals the third ring. The motion of the wings during flight is very complex. Many of the stronger forms can fly straight and swiftly, very many have a peculiar hesitating zigzag flight, while others can soar steadily in the air.

Internal Structure.—The anatomy of the internal organs does not differ in any conspicuous way from that of typical insects (see BEE); the front part of the food-canal usually bears a short crop into which the nectar passes from the flowers; the more numerous ganglia of the caterpillar are concentrated in the adult into those of the head, two in the thorax, and five or so in the abdomen; heart, air-tubes, excretory tubules, and reproductive organs are much as usual.

Nutrition.—Butterflies feed on the nectar of flowers, but in their adult state they eat very little. Their long tongues are thrust into the honey-secreting organs; the fine points on the surface of the organ doubtless aid in ransacking these treasures of sweetness; the action of the muscular sucking stomach or crop, helped by capillary attraction, causes the fluid to ascend into the mouth. While they thus rob the flowers, they act like other insects of similar habit in carrying the fertilising pollen from one flower to another. Many orchids, for instance, are thus fertilised by Lepidoptera. No parasitic butterflies are known, but *Papilio turnus* has been observed to be attracted by decaying fish. Butterflies are never exactly social, though the caterpillars of a brood are sometimes curiously associated (see ARMY-WORM, CATERPILLAR). The life of butterflies does not afford scope for much exhibition of intelligent habit. The larvæ sometimes show some acuteness in their search for suitable places for their pupa sleep.

Colour.—Some butterflies are dingy, others uniform, but in contrast to moths the majority are beautifully coloured. This is especially the case with tropical forms. How the colours are varie-

gated and contrasted in spots and bands, how the hues are embellished by metallic shimmer, every one knows; what exactly the colour means is, however, still obscure. The pigment is especially laid down in the scales of the skin, but what the physiological conditions of its production are we do not know. A few general facts may be first noticed: (1) The colour is in many cases subject to variation—it cannot be said to be absolutely constant for a species; (2) in some instances, at any rate, it is influenced by external conditions, for 'seasonal dimorphism,' or different forms at different periods of the year, is known in many forms; (3) sometimes the colour and markings, especially of the under surface of the wings, are obviously of use for the protection of the resting butterfly; (4) in some cases this protective adaptation is so pronounced as to deserve to be called mimicry; (5) in many cases the colouring is in direct connection with the physical constitution of the species, and is usually most marked in the males.

Seasonal Dimorphism.—Many cases are known where a butterfly species produces in the year more than one brood, of which the winter forms are so different from the summer generation that they have often been described as different species. A variation of this nature is known as seasonal dimorphism. It is a reminiscence of past climatic changes, as the result of which a species became split up into two varieties. *Araschnia levana* and *Araschnia prorsa* are respectively the winter and summer broods of one species. In the glacial epoch there was probably only *A. levana*, the winter form; the change of climate since then has evolved

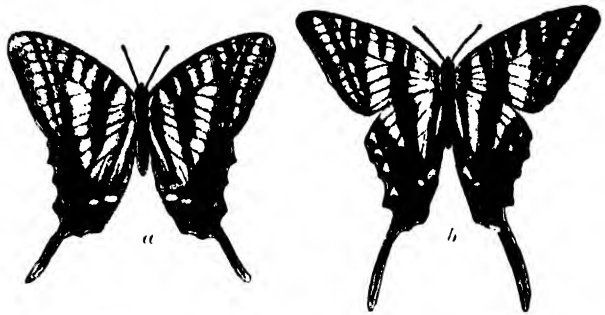


Fig. 2. — Seasonal Dimorphism.—Two forms of the same species (*Papilio ajax*):

a, winter form (var. *Telamonides*); b, summer form (var. *Marcellus*).

a second summer variety, *A. prorsa*. Both Weismann and Edwards have succeeded, by artificial cold, in making the pupæ which should normally become the summer *A. prorsa*, develop into the winter *A. levana*. According to Weismann, 'seasonal dimorphism must arise in butterflies whenever the pupæ of the alternating annual generations are exposed throughout long periods of time to widely different regularly recurring changes of temperature.'

Protective Colouring and Mimicry.—The great majority of butterflies raise their wings vertically when at rest, so that the brightly coloured upper surfaces are hidden. The exposed under sides often resemble the objects on which the insects rest. The closed wings of some *Vanessæ* and other forms look like bark; 'in *Thecla rubi* the wings when closed are of an emerald green, and resemble the young leaves of the bramble, on which, in spring, this butterfly may often be seen seated;' one of the *Lycenæ*, which rests with its brown wings expanded, is almost invisible on the bare ground; in the English orange-tip the under surface resembles

the flower-head of the wild parsley, on which it often rests at night. Wallace has recorded the case of an Indian and Sumatran butterfly (*Kallima*) which in form, colour, and veining is so like a



Fig. 3.—*Kallima Inachis* (from Carus Sterne):
a, flying; b, at rest.

withered leaf, that it becomes practically invisible when it lights on a bush. Bates and Belt have shown how the conspicuous but distasteful South American *Heliconiidae* are closely mimicked by butterflies of distinct families, which find a common protection in being like a form whose safety is more insured. See CATERPILLAR, and MIMICRY.

Sexes.—In many cases the male and female butterfly resemble one another in their external characters, but differences in size, form, and especially in colour, very frequently occur. The male is usually the more gorgeous, though in exceptional cases the reverse is true. Even within a single genus, the different species may illustrate a gradual transition from perfect resemblance of the sexes to most marked differences. The Purple Emperor (*Apatura iris*) and Orange-tip (*Anthocharis cardamines*), among British butterflies, well illustrate the predominant decorativeness of the males, but such examples are greatly surpassed by tropical forms. In our cabbage-butterflies, &c., the rarer contrast is seen of females more decorated than the males. In some cases bisexual or hermaphrodite forms have been recorded, in which the colouring of the wings was on one side of the body that of the females, on the other side that of the males. The physiology of the colour is not yet known. Since the external conditions and the habits of the two sexes are generally the same, while the colouring is often very different, it is necessary to conclude that the male is more brightly coloured simply because he is a male. It is part of his constitution, of his maleness; but when the colouring or increased colouring has once been started, it is not difficult to understand how a more brilliant male might find favour in the eyes of the females, and succeeding well in his courtships, become the progenitor of a more brightly coloured race. Colour variations occur abundantly, the butterflies are a colour-loving race, the courtship is deliberate and protracted, there is reason to believe that there are more males than females, there is certainly rivalry and combat between the abundant suitors, and these are the conditions which, according to Darwin, afford scope for Sexual Selection (q.v.). Where the females are more brightly coloured, it is probable that this has been corroborated and augmented by choice on the part of the males. Whether sexual choice has been an important factor in evolving colour or not, the facts remain that bright colouring is usually the attribute of

maleness, that even the ethereal butterflies fight ferociously for mates, and that they preserve a certain dignity of deliberation in their courtships. In a few cases sounds are produced during the sexual period. Another remarkable fact about the sexes is the occurrence within one species of two or three different female forms. In his studies on Malayan butterflies, Wallace has shown that in *Papilio memnon* there are two forms of female, one liker the male than the other, while in *P. pannon* three different female forms actually occur. These sexual variations are technically designated di- and tri-morphism.

Life-history.—Butterflies pass through a complete metamorphosis. The egg develops into a caterpillar, naked or hairy, white or coloured, which will be discussed by itself (see CATERPILLAR). The caterpillar after its voracious active life rarely forms a cocoon, but hangs itself by a fine silken thread to a twig or the like, and there dreams away the momentous pupa stage from which the winged insect, as the result of the marvellous metamorphosis, eventually awakens. The frequent golden colour of the pupa has given origin to the term *chrysalis* (Gr. *chrysos*, 'gold'). In some cases the suspending thread is fixed to the tail of the young insect; in others, a thread goes also round the body. The leaves of the plant on which the eggs are generally laid usually form the peculiar food of the resulting caterpillar. The adult insect is comparatively short-lived. Its literal honeymoon is soon over, partly perhaps because the life is high-pitched, partly because the delicate organism is readily injured by weather changes, partly because the birds are unkind. In rare cases the adults survive the winter in sheltered nooks, but this unpropitious season (where it exists) is usually slept away in the pupa stage.

Distribution.—Butterflies are distributed all over the world, but are especially abundant in the warmer regions. Gerstaecker notes that at a single point in Brazil, three times as many butterflies occur as in the whole of Germany. During the recent British North Pole Expedition, several butterflies were captured, and these belonging to genera (*Colias*, *Argynnis*, *Lycena*, &c.) common in the temperate zones. Even in the short summer of Greenland and Spitzbergen butterflies occur. Heilprin notes that M. Bonpland observed butterflies on the slopes of Chimborazo, at an elevation of 16,626 feet. Some species, like *Cynthia cardui*, whose caterpillar feeds on thistle-leaves, occur over a wide area; others again are more local. The distribution of the favourite plants must obviously determine the range of the butterflies. Some gorgeous forms found in tropical America and elsewhere are remarkable not only as 'the most splendid insects in creation,' but on account of their migrations. In his work on Ceylon, Sir James Tennent describes 'the extraordinary sight of flights of these delicate creatures, generally of a white or pale yellow hue, apparently miles in breadth, and of such prodigious extension as to occupy' hours and even days uninterruptedly in their passage, whence coming no one knows, whither going no one can tell.'

Bates found 550 distinct species of butterflies at Ega in the Upper Amazon country. Eighteen species of the swallow-tail genus (*Papilio*) were found within ten minutes' walk of his house. 'The number and variety of gaily tinted butterflies, sporting about in the grove on sunny days, were so great that the bright moving flakes of colour gave quite a character to the physiognomy of the place. It was impossible to walk far without disturbing flocks of them from the damp sand at the edge of the water, where they congregated to imbibe the

moisture.' The gay individuals were almost all males, and 'every afternoon as the sun was getting low, the gaudy sunshine-loving swains might be seen trooping off to the forests, in the shades of which their more soberly dressed and immensely less numerous sweethearts and wives were confined.'

Hooker, describing the scenery on the banks of the Great Runjeet in the Sikkim Himalaya, says that 'by far the most striking feature consisted in the amazing quantity of superb butterflies, large tropical swallow-tails, black, with scarlet or yellow eyes on their wings. They were seen everywhere, sailing majestically through the still, hot air, or fluttering from one scorching rock to another, and especially loving to settle on the damp sand of the river edge, where they sat by thousands, with erect wings, balancing themselves with a rocking motion, as their heavy sails inclined them to one side or the other, resembling a crowded fleet of yachts on a calm day.'

Butterflies possess no small power of wing; some of them, indeed, in which the wings are comparatively thin and delicate, are inferior in this respect, and have a sort of zigzag flight; but others soar in the air with a steady and continuous motion. The earliest Lepidoptera occur in the oolitic strata, but fossil forms are always rare even in Tertiary beds. Like other insects they are sometimes found preserved in amber.

Classification.—The 5000 or more species of butterflies are grouped in a number of families, but as to the number and limits of these there is much diversity of opinion. Some of the facts taken into consideration in grouping butterflies may be briefly noticed. The pupa is sometimes hung by the tail (*Suspensi*), sometimes by a thread round the body also (*Succincti*). The front pair of legs is degenerate in both sexes in the Nymphalidae, in the males in Erycinidae and Lycaenidae. In Hesperidae, the club of the feelers bears a hook, the wings when at rest are not usually upright, the pupa has a rudimentary cocoon and may be buried in the ground. Many have only a single pair of spurs on the tibia or fourth joint of the legs; the others have two pairs of spurs, one pair at each end of the joint. Among the families the chief are the following eight: (1) Hesperidae (e.g. Hesperia), with peculiarities noted above; (2) Lycaenidae (e.g. *Polymonatus*, *Lycaena*, *Thecla*), usually blue or red; (3) Satyridae (e.g. *Satyrus*, *Erebia*), with degenerate anterior legs; (4) Nymphalidae (e.g. *Apatura iris*, or Purple Emperor, the common *Vanessa*, *Libythea*, *Argynnis*); (5) Pieridae (e.g. *Pieris brassicae*, or Cabbage-butterfly, *Colias*); (6) Danaidae (e.g. *Danaus*); (7) Heliconidae (*Heliconius*), mostly Brazilian, females with a repulsive smell, often mimicked; (8) Equitidae (e.g. the common *Papilio*), in some cases with di- or trimorphic females.

Among common British forms may be noted: The Swallow-tail (*Papilio machaon*), Marbled White (*Hyperargia galathea*), Scotch Argus (*H. blanda*), White Admiral (*Limnitis camilla*), Red Admiral (*Vanessa atalanta*), Peacock (*V. io*), Large Tortoise-shell (*V. polyphorus*), Camberwell Beauty (*V. antiopa*), Painted Lady (*C. cardui*), Purple Emperor (*Apatura iris*), Brown Hairstreak (*Thecla betulae*), Fritillaries (*Melitara* and *Argynnis*), Large Copper (*Lycaena dispar*), Cabbage-butterfly (*Pieris brassicae*), &c.

Practical Importance.—Butterflies are of most importance to man in their work of fertilising flowers, in the ravages of their caterpillars, and in the use which all beautiful objects have. There is one small species (*Euphaea humata*) which affords a supply of food to some of the wretched aborigines of Australia. Butterflies of this species congregated

in such vast numbers on the masses of granite in the mountains, that they are collected by simply making smothered fires under the rocks, in the smoke of which they are suffocated. Bushels of them are thus procured, and they are baked by placing them on the heated ground, the down and wings removed, and the bodies made into cakes which resemble lumps of fat. The months of November, December, and January are quite a season of festivity from the abundance of this food.

Biological Importance.—The old butterfly-collecting was more a matter of aesthetic than of scientific enthusiasm. It was in part due to the 'mania for owning things.' Very different is the collecting of a modern naturalist such as Bates. To him the species of butterflies are more than beautiful curiosities to be named and pinned—they are emblazoned pages in the history of nature's processes. 'This tribe,' he says, 'is better adapted than almost any other group of animals or plants to furnish facts in illustration of the modifications which all species undergo in nature, under changed local conditions.' The simplicity and obtrusiveness of the specific characters, the large number of species, the facility with which series of specimens can be collected and compared, account for this superiority. 'It may be said that on the expanded membranes of the wings, nature writes, as on a tablet, the story of the modifications of species, so truly do all changes of the organisation register themselves thereon. Moreover, the same colour-patterns of the wings generally show, with great regularity, the degrees of blood relationship of the species. As the laws of nature must be the same for all beings, the conclusions furnished by this group of insects must be applicable to the whole organic world; therefore the study of butterflies—creatures selected as the types of airiness and frivolity—instead of being despised, will some day be valued as one of the most important branches of biological science.'

Brief notices of a few of the principal kinds of butterflies will be found in other parts of this work. See CABBAGE-BUTTERFLY, CAMBERWELL BEAUTY, MIMICRY, PURPLE EMPEROR, &c.

Literature.—Bates, *Naturalist on the Amazon* (as to mimicry); Boisduval, *Histoire Générale des Lépidoptères*, and other works; Darwin, *Descent of Man*, chap. xl. (sexual selection); Doubleday and Westwood, *Genera of Diurnal Lepidoptera*; Guenée, *Species Générale des Lépidoptères*; Morris, *British Butterflies*; Packard, *Guide to Study of Insects*; Herrich-Schäffer, *Systematische Beschreibung der Schmetterlinge von Europa*, 5 vols.; Walker, *British Museum Catalogue of Lepidoptera*; Wallace, *Butterflies of Malayan Region* (Transactions of Linnæan Society, xxv., 1865); Weismann, *Studies on Theory of Descent* (seasonal dimorphism); Glaser, *Catalogus* (Berlin, 1887); Edwards, *Butterflies of America*; Scudder, *Butterflies* (New York, 1881); and works by Stainton (1857-73), Hewitson (1866), Kirby (1884), Kane (1885), Lang (1885), Buckler (Ray Society, 1886).

Butterfly Fish. See BLENNY.

Butterfly Orchis (*Oncidium Papilio*), an orchid of Trinidad and Venezuela, of which the flowers have an extraordinarily close resemblance to a brown-spotted yellow butterfly. It is a frequent inmate of our hothouses. *Phalenopsis anabilis* is also sometimes called Indian Butterfly Orchis.

Butterfly Weed, or PLEURISY ROOT (*Asclepias tuberosa*, see ASCLEPIAS), a plant common in the United States, of which the root has medicinal repute, the infusion being used as a diaphoretic and expectorant.

Buttermilk. See BUTTER, p. 585.

Butternut (*Juglans cinerea*), a North American species of Walnut (q.v.).

Butter-tree (*Bassia*) is a genus of tropical or subtropical trees of the natural order Sapotaceæ

(q.v.), remarkable for the abundance of oil or butyaceous fat which the seeds contain, and which is used for many purposes by the inhabitants of the countries where they are indigenous. The butter-tree described by Mungo Park as growing in the interior of Africa, in the country of Bambarra, belongs to this or a nearly allied genus. It produces the Galam Butter, also called Shea Butter (i.e. Tree Butter), which is highly valued, and forms an important article of internal commerce in the interior of Africa. The seeds of the fruit, which resembles an olive, are dried in the sun, or in a peculiar kind of oven, and the kernels are then boiled in water in order to obtain the butter from them, which not only keeps for a whole year without salt, but is also said to be whiter, more solid, and more pleasant to the taste than true butter. This butter is used both as an article of food and of medicine, and it would seem that the tree would reward cultivation in other tropical countries.—The Mahwa-tree of India (*B. latifolia*) attains a height of 40 to 60 feet, like a good oak in size, and is a valuable timber-tree. Its flowers last two or three weeks, and then fall; they are eaten raw, and have a luscious taste when fresh; when dry, they resemble figs in flavour. They are a valuable source of food, especially in the Central Provinces, and a kind of arrack or spirit is distilled from them. They may also be employed as a very abundant source of sugar. One tree may produce 800 lb. of flowers. The seeds of the apple-like fruit yield by expression a considerable quantity of a concrete greenish-yellow oil, which is used for soap-making and in lamps, and occasionally by the poorer classes for frying articles of food.—The Indian Butter-tree, or Phulwara or Fulwa Tree (*B. butyracea*), a native of Nepal, attains a height of 50 feet. Its timber is light and of no value. The fruit is of the size of a pigeon's egg, and although eaten, is not much esteemed; but from the seed a concrete oil or butter is obtained by expression of a delicate white colour, much valued for medicinal uses, and as an unguent, and employed also to adulterate ghee.—The seeds of *B. longifolia*, a native of Coromandel, yield a large quantity of oil, which is used for lamps, for soap-making, and in cookery. The flowers are much esteemed for

eating, and the wood is almost as hard and durable as teak.—The name Butter-tree is also given to other tropical trees, belonging to quite different orders, the fruits of which yield fixed oils, having the appearance and used for the purposes of butter. Thus the butter-trees of Guiana and Brazil belong to the genus *Caryocar* (q.v.), of Ternstroemiaceae. The Oil-palm (q.v.) and the *Cocos butyracea* (see COCOA-NUT) may also be regarded as butter-trees, although not generally receiving that name.

Butterwort (*Pinguicula*), a genus of Lentibulariaceae (q.v.), small plants with a characteristic rosette of large spreading entire radical leaves, common in bogs and marshes. The Com-

mon Butterwort (*P. vulgaris*) is abundant in the northern parts of Britain and of Europe, and grows in Canada. Its leaves are covered with a multitude of stalked glands, which yield a viscous insect-catching secretion (hence *pinguicula*, 'greasy'), which also contains acid and pepsin, and has active digestive properties (see INSECTIVOROUS PLANTS). Hence it has also the power of coagulating milk, and is used for this purpose by the Laplanders. Some species possess flowers of much beauty, especially *P. grandiflora*. North and South America have several species of butterwort.

Buttmann, PHILIPP, was born at Frankfort in 1764, and studied at Göttingen under Heyne. He became in 1789 assistant in the Royal Library at Berlin, and rose successively to be secretary and librarian (1811). He held at the same time (1800-8) a professorship in the Joachimsthal Gymnasium in Berlin. He died 21st June 1829. Buttmann is best known by his Greek grammar (1792; 22d ed. 1869) and *Lexilogus* (2 vols. 1818-25; 2d ed. 1860), both of which have been translated into English.

Button. The history of button-making is in many ways a curious one. Dating no further back as a trade of any importance than the reign of Elizabeth, it has undergone several extraordinary changes. Bright, showy, and costly steel buttons with numerous facets were worn last century on court dresses. Similar buttons have been recently made in Paris. In Great Britain, Birmingham has always been the principal seat of the button-manufacture. What has been called the 'Augustan age' of button-making in that city included the latter portion of the 18th and the early part of the 19th century, when even tradesmen wore coats 'loaded with innumerable gilt buttons,' and when employers on a moderate scale in this manufacture were making incomes of from £2000 to £3000 a year, and their workmen from £2 to £4 per week. Early in the present century, Mr B. Sanders introduced the cloth-covered button, which initiated the change from those made of metal. His son in 1825 effected the improvement of making it with a canvas tuft instead of a metal shank, which does less injury to the garment. This kind of button has had an enormous sale.

The shell, consisting of two discs of thin metal, the cloth covering in front, the canvas on back to form the tuft, and the millboard stuffing, together make up a covered button. All these parts are circular and separately punched out of sheets. In the punching of the front metal disc its periphery is at the same time turned up. The back disc or collet is made in a similar manner, but a hole is made in the centre of this to let the tuft or flexible shank protrude. All the component parts being ready, a workman using a press with a punch and die unites them firmly together. He first covers the front part of the shell with the silk, and subsequently, by the introduction of a round steel tool into the press, he unites this with the collet and its accessories.

Mr W. Elliott patented in 1837 a mode of covering the button with silk, having a pattern in the centre, the demand for which kept sixty looms constantly employed. In 1841 the old Dorsetshire wire and thread button was replaced by the 'three-fold linen button,' still considered indispensable for underclothing, since neither washing nor mangle quickly destroys it. The linen covering of this button is held fast by the pressed down edges of a groove in its internal brass ring.

Soon after coloured tweed coats began to be worn, fully forty years ago, brass buttons of an ornamental kind were used for them. Heads or entire figures of animals, for example, were stamped upon the buttons, and they were bronzed (see BRONZING) in various tints to match approxi-



Common Butterwort
(*Pinguicula vulgaris*):
a, a flower.

mon Butterwort (*P. vulgaris*) is abundant in the northern parts of Britain and of Europe, and grows

mately the colour of the cloth. Except for livery servants and other special purposes, it is chiefly trouser-buttons that are now made of metal. These are largely produced from rolled sheet-brass. The blanks are punched out either by a hand or steam press and are afterwards stamped, which operation depresses the centre and thickens the margin. The holes are also punched out. Ornamental sleeve-links and solitaires are sometimes produced by electro-deposit in gutta-percha moulds made from chased patterns.

Buttons of Vegetable Ivory (q.v.) are now all but universally used for tweed coats and vests. The palm fruit which yields it is called 'corozo nut.' It is not unlike true ivory but softer, and is easily turned and dyed. These buttons are often mottled with some stain to suit the common patterns of tweed stuffs. In a handbook of Birmingham published in 1886, it is stated that thousands of tons of corozo nuts are consumed every year in the manufacture of buttons. Various kinds of wood, such as beech, box, rosewood, lignum-vita, zebra-wood, and walnut are manufactured into buttons. Wood moulds or cores for ladies' buttons, which are covered with cloth of the same pattern as a dress, are made in enormous numbers in the south of France.

Mother-of-pearl buttons are formed of the beautiful substance of which the large flat shell of the pearl-oyster consists, and this has long been a favourite material for buttons. Small cylinders are first cut out of the shells with a tubular saw. These are then split into discs, which are shaped by a steel tool, drilled with holes, and finally polished with rotten-stone and soft soap, or by a more recent method with ground charcoal and turpentine. Shirt-studs as well as flat and globular buttons with metal shanks are also made of this substance. See MOTHER-OF-PEARL.

Among other animal substances used for buttons are ivory, bone, horn, and hoof. From this last so-called 'horn buttons' were some years ago made in enormous numbers by pressing them in heated dies in which the design was cut. There are many kinds of composition buttons.

Glass buttons are made in great variety. For 'pinched' buttons small rods of coloured glass are heated at the ends, and pressed into shape by means of a pair of rather long hand-pliers, on the ends of which are a die and its counterpart, likewise kept hot. Other kinds are cut out of coloured sheet-glass, which is coated on the back with tin-amalgam like a mirror. Along with other varieties, some beautiful glass buttons are made in Bohemia, either partly or wholly of aventurine glass; and of this 'gold'-spangled material artistically inwrought with other colours, studs and solitaires still more remarkable for their beauty and minute patterns are made at Venice.

Porcelain buttons were a few years ago nearly all of French manufacture, but they are now made principally at Prague. The plastic clay is pressed into moulds of plaster of Paris in the same way as small objects are usually produced in earthenware. Some are plain and others are painted or printed with patterns.

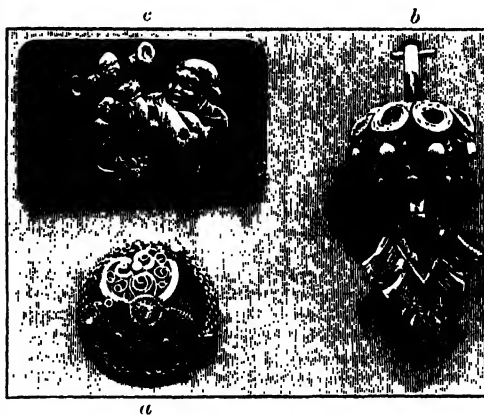
More or less expensive buttons are made of ornamental stone, such as agate, jasper, and marble. Occasionally they are formed of amber, jade, or of still more costly materials, as pearls and gems. As to other materials, a Birmingham manufacturer says it were easy to write out a long list from which buttons have been made, but very difficult to name one from which they have *not* been made.

In recent years, improved methods and machines have been introduced for the shaping as well as for the polishing and finishing of bone, corozo, and wood buttons. Machinery is used in Germany

for the manufacture of composition buttons, and there is an American machine for performing automatically all the operations in manufacturing covered buttons.

In England, Birmingham is the seat of the button trade, which, however, is much more largely developed in France. But both countries are now suffering in the competition in the markets of the world with Germany, where labour is cheap and very skilfully applied. In the United States, buttons are principally made at New York and Philadelphia.

It is only rarely that a button is a thing of beauty apart from the material of which it is made. The annexed illustrations, however, show

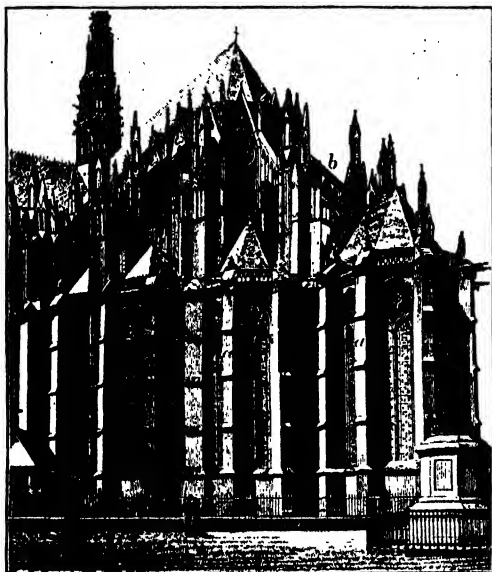


two of silver filigree as worn on dresses in Norway (a) and Iceland (b), which have some claim to artistic merit, and the third (c) represents one of many Japanese buttons or *netsukes*, in which the skill and fancy of a true artist is still more apparent. It is but right to add that at Birmingham some first-class artists were engaged in die-sinking for metal buttons in the early years of Queen Victoria's reign.

Buttonwood. See PLANE.

Buttress, a projection for the purpose of giving additional support or strength to a wall. In the classical style there were no visible buttresses, their structure being, to a certain extent, supplied or concealed by pilasters, antae, &c. The different stages of Gothic architecture are marked by the form of buttresses employed, almost as distinctly as by the form of the arch. In early Romanesque the buttresses frequently presented the form of a pillar, after the tradition of classic art. The Norman buttress was generally broad, with slight projection, and finished on top with a splay against the wall; but it was also occasionally semicircular, like a half column applied to the wall. Early English buttresses project much more boldly, and are considerably narrower than the Norman. They are frequently broken into stages, which diminish in size as they ascend. In the Decorated style, this division into stages is almost invariable, the buttress being often supplied with niches terminating in pinnacles, and very highly ornamented with carving, statues, &c. In the Perpendicular style they frequently assume more fantastic forms, sometimes presenting a sharp external angle and being adorned with applied pinnacles, &c. Flying buttresses are half arches thrown from detached piers or buttresses against the upper parts of vaulted structures in order to abut and carry off the outward pressure of the arches. This expedient for supporting lofty vaults was first invented in France in the 12th century.

It became one of the chief factors in the growth of the Gothic school, and, crowned with lofty pinnacles, the French buttresses formed one of



Buttresses, Amiens Cathedral:
a, buttresses; b, flying buttress.

the principal decorations of the exterior of French cathedrals. They were introduced into England at the period of the Early English.

Butua Root. See CISSAMPELOS.

Butyl. See ALCOHOL.

Butyric Acid, $C_4H_7O_2$, is a volatile fatty acid, first prepared by Chevreul, by treating butter with an Alkali (q.v.). It possesses the disagreeable odour of rancid butter, and it is to it, in part at least, that the perspiration of animals owes its unpleasant smell. It is a mobile liquid, specific gravity .974, the vapour of which is inflammable, burning with a blue flame. It is readily soluble in water and alcohol, possesses a sour burning taste and corrodes the skin. Butyric acid forms a whole series of salts, of which butyrate of sodium, $NaC_4H_7O_2$, and butyrate of ethyl or Butyric Ether, $C_2H_5C_4H_7O_2$, (q.v.), may be taken as typical examples.

While butyric acid itself and its inorganic salts (butyrates of sodium, calcium, &c.) have a disagreeable smell, it is interesting to note that the organic salts (butyrates of methyl, ethyl, &c.) have a pleasant odour, and are used in the manufacture of artificial fruit essences.

Butyric acid may be prepared by causing milk to undergo butyric fermentation. Chalk being then added, a butyrate of calcium is obtained, which, on treatment with hydrochloric acid and subsequent distillation, yields the pure acid.

Butyric Ether, or PINE-APPLE OIL, is an exceedingly fragrant oil obtained by distilling butyric acid (or the butyrate of lime), alcohol, and sulphuric acid. The material which passes over is the butyric ether, and it is generally mixed with alcohol, and sold in commerce as *Artificial Pine-apple Oil*. It possesses the same very pleasant flavour which belongs to pine-apples, and there is little doubt that pine-apples owe their flavour to the presence of natural butyric ether. The artificial variety is now extensively used for flavouring confections, as pine-apple drops, for sophisticating

bad rum, and for flavouring custards, ices, and creams, as also an acidulated drink or lemonade named Pine-apple Ale. Butyric ether alone cannot be used in perfumery for handkerchief use, as, when inhaled in even small quantity, it tends to cause irritation of the air-tubes of the lungs and intense headache, but it is employed as one material in the manufacture of compound perfumes. Butyric ether is the butyrate of ethyl, $C_2H_5C_4H_7O_2$, and is similar to butyrate of sodium, $NaC_4H_7O_2$, in composition, the sodium, Na, being in this case replaced by the organic radical ethyl, C_2H_5 . It is remarkable that a substance possessing such a disagreeable odour as butyric acid (that of rancid butter) should be capable of forming, in part at least, a substance with such a pleasant flavour as artificial pine-apple oil.

Buxar, or BAXAR, a town of Shahabad district, Bengal, on the south bank of the Ganges, 41½ miles NW. of Calcutta by rail. The chief trade is in sugar, cotton, piece-goods, and salt. Here in 1764 Sir Hector Munro defeated Mir Kasim. Pop. (1881) 16,498.

Buxbaumia, a small genus of mosses. *B. aphylla*, very rare in Britain, is remarkable for its exceedingly reduced scaly leaves.

Buxton, a town in Derbyshire, 37 miles NW. of Derby, and 25 SSE. of Manchester. It lies 1025 feet above sea-level, in a deep valley surrounded by hills and moors, which have been tastefully planted; and the only approach is a narrow ravine, by which the Wye flows into the Derwent. Chee Tor, 5 miles to the east, is a perpendicular limestone rock rising to a height of 300 feet from the Wye, while 3 miles to the south-west is Axe Edge (1810 feet). Buxton has long been famous for its calcareous springs, tepid (82° F.) and cold (discharging 120 gallons of water per minute), and its chalybeate springs. They were probably known to the Romans, and in 1572 were celebrated by one Dr John Jones as 'the ancient baths of Buckstones.' The town is visited annually, from June to October, by 8000 to 12,000 persons, the waters being taken for indigestion, gout, rheumatism, and nervous and cutaneous diseases. The Devonshire Hospital, containing 100 beds and receiving nearly 1000 patients per annum, is supported by subscription. The baths and public walks are numerous. Much of the splendour of Buxton is due to the dukes of Devonshire, one of whom in 1780, at the cost of £120,000, erected an immense three-storied pile of buildings called the Crescent, a curve of 200 feet, with wings each of 58 feet. It includes several hotels, a library, assembly rooms, &c. Near Buxton is the Diamond Hill, famous for its crystals; and Poole's Hole, a gas-lit stalactite cavern 770 yards long. Mary, Queen of Scots, resided for some time at Buxton when in the custody of the Earl of Shrewsbury. Pop. (1871) 3717; (1881) 6021.

Buxton, SIR THOMAS FOWELL, philanthropist, was born in 1786 at Earls Colne, Essex. Educated at Kingston, and under Dr Burney at Greenwich, from 1803 to 1807 he studied with brilliant success at Trinity College, Dublin, whilst his youth was distinguished by a strong development of animal energy, natural enough to a young Englishman whose full stature exceeded 6 feet 4. In 1807 he married a sister of the celebrated Mrs Fry, and in 1808 entered business as a brewer, with an energy which in due time was crowned with splendid prosperity. His warm religious and moral impulses soon brought him prominently forward as an advocate of philanthropic interests. The relief of the Spitalfield weavers and the reform of prison discipline formed early subjects of his efforts. In 1818 he entered parliament as member for Wey-

mouth, which he continued to represent till 1837, taking a prominent part in every debate on such questions as the amelioration of criminal law and prison discipline, suttee abolition, and slave emancipation. The last in particular engrossed a large share of his activity for many years. In 1824, at Wilberforce's request, he succeeded him as head of the anti-slavery party; and no man on that side displayed more indomitable zeal and firmness. He lost his seat through his opposition to bribery, and refused ever after to stand for a constituency. His philanthropic labours, however, ended only with his life. In 1840 he received the well-merited distinction of a baronetcy. He died 19th February 1845, and a statue has been erected to him in Westminster Abbey. See *Memoirs of Sir T. Fowell Buxton* (1848), edited by his third son, Charles (1823-71), who sat in parliament as an independent Liberal from 1857, and who, like his father, was a partner in the brewery of Truman, Hanbury, Buxton & Co.

Buxtorf, JOHANN, Hebraist, was born in 1564 at Kamen, in Westphalia; in 1591 became professor of Hebrew at Basel, and died there of the plague in 1629. In a knowledge of rabbinical literature, he surpassed all his contemporaries. The most important of his numerous works, the *Lexicon Chaldaicum Talmudicum et Rabbinicum*, was completed by his son (Basel, 1640), and has been recast by Fischer and Gelbe (2 vols. Leip. 1866-74). See *Life* by Kautzsch (1879).—His son, JOHANN, was born at Basel in 1599, and at five years of age—according to his rather credulous biographers—could read German, Latin, and Hebrew. To perfect his knowledge of these tongues he visited Holland, France, and Germany; and in 1630 he succeeded his father in the chair of Hebrew at Basel, where he died in 1664. He published a number of treatises, commentaries, and translations. His son, Jakob (1645-1704), and his nephew, Johann (1663-1732), both succeeded to the Hebrew professorship.

Buxus. See BOX.

Buying of Pleas by lawyers, explained under the English term CHAMPERTY, to which it is analogous, is prohibited by an old Scots act passed in 1594. See also PACTUM.

Byss-Ballot, CHRISTOPH., meteorologist, born at Kloetingen in Zeeland, 10th October 1817, studied at Utrecht, where he became professor of Mathematics (1847) and of Experimental Physics (1870), and in 1854 director of the Royal Meteorological Institute. He was one of the initiators of the new system, under which, by daily synoptical weather reports, and by simultaneous observations by land and by sea, materials are collected for forecasting changes; his own observations have resulted in the determination of a general law of storms, known as the Byss-Ballot law (see STORMS). The inventor of the Aeroklinoscope (q.v.), and of a system of weather signals, he has been largely instrumental in bringing about an international uniformity in meteorological observations. His works include *Changements périodiques de la Température* (Utrecht, 1847), and, in English, *Suggestions on a Uniform System of Meteorological Observations* (1872-73).

Buyuk'dereh, a village beautifully situated on the Bosphorus, 10 miles NNE. of Constantinople. It forms the summer residence of many of the ambassadors of the Christian powers, some of whom have splendid mansions here.

Buzzard (*Buteo*), a genus of birds of prey, in the family Falconidae, having a rather small and weak bill, which bends from the root, and is not notched, as in falcons. The 'cere' is bristly, except

between the nostrils. The portion of the leg just above the foot is not feathered. Buzzards may be regarded as an inferior kind of eagles, which they do not equal in courage or strength. They are large

birds, the Common Buzzard (*B. vulgaris* or *fuscus*) measuring almost 4 feet from tip to tip of its outstretched wings. It is a bird still frequent in Britain, though much less so than it formerly was. It is subject to great variations of plumage; the prevailing colour is brown, with a considerable mixture of black on the upper parts, and of white or grayish



Common Buzzard (*Buteo vulgaris*).

white on the under. It is sluggish and inactive in comparison with many other birds of the same family, and is usually slow in its flight. It often sits long on a tree, watching for prey. When occasion presents it glides silently into the air, and sweeping rapidly down, seizes its victim in its claws. Sometimes, however, it ascends to a great height in the air. This buzzard is plentiful in all the wooded parts of Europe; it is found also in the north of Africa, and is known to exist in the western parts of Asia; but it is doubtful how far it extends over that continent, a distinct although very similar species occurring in the Himalaya Mountains. It is a most useful bird of prey, feeding to a large extent on mice, also on adders and the like. Thirty field mice have been taken from the crop of a single bird. It is of use too in killing off sickly birds. The nest is built on a tree or rock, or a crow's nest may be utilised. The nest is rough, and composed of sticks and grass. The eggs are three or four in number, and usually bluish white with reddish blotches. Tame female buzzards have been known in several instances to exhibit so strong a propensity for incubation and the rearing of young at the proper season, that they have hatched hens' eggs and brought up the chickens, although if chickens not of their own hatching were brought within their reach, they devoured them. Meat given to the buzzard nurse was carefully divided among her nurslings, but they found out by their own instincts the use of grain and other vegetable food. In Sweden they are often caught for food.—The Rough-legged Buzzard (*Archibuteo lagopus*) is very similar to the former, but is at once distinguished by having the lower portion of the leg feathered to the toes. It is a rarer British bird, yet not of unfrequent occurrence; it is very widely diffused, being found in the Old World from Lapland to the Cape of Good Hope, and equally common in the northern parts of North America. It is very sluggish, and is most frequently to be seen in marshy districts, and often skimming over marshes, where it makes prey of frogs.—The Red-tailed Hawk of North America is a buzzard (*Buteo*—according to some *Falco borealis*), in very bad repute among American farmers and housewives for its frequent invasion of poultry-yards, from which it has acquired the name of *Hen-hawk*.

—Several other species appear to be limited to particular parts of the world, as the handsome *Buteo jacks*—so called from the resemblance of its voice to that of the jackal—to South Africa.—The Honey Buzzards (q.v.) belong to a different genus, although nearly allied to the true buzzards, as are also the Harriers (q.v.), of which the most common British species, the Marsh Harrier, is sometimes called the *Moor Buzzard*.—Bald Buzzard is a name of the Osprey (q.v.).

Byblos, an ancient city of Phœnicia, now a village of 600 inhabitants, called Jubeil, is situated on a shallow bay at the base of the lower range of the Libanus, about half-way between Tripoli and Beyrout. Byblos was famous as the birthplace of Adonis or Tammuz, of whose worship it became the centre; and many devotees were also attracted to the splendid temple of Astarte erected here. The name given to the town by the Jews was Gebal, and its inhabitants are noticed in the Scriptures as stone-squarers and calkers of ships. A ruined wall belonging apparently to the era of the Crusades surrounds the town, and Roman and earlier remains are still visible.

By-laws are the private regulations which are usually made by corporate bodies for the control and government of the corporation. In the United States they are generally called Municipal Ordinances. They are binding, unless contrary to the laws of the land, or to the charter or act of incorporation, or unless they are manifestly unreasonable. Under certain legal systems the power extends to the licensing, taxing, and regulation of amusements and occupations (including the sale of intoxicating liquors); it includes a power to enforce by-laws by fines and forfeitures; and under what is called the 'general welfare' clause in American charters, a large right of interference with trade has been claimed. Every corporation, too, can of course alter or repeal the by-laws which itself has made. By the English Municipal Corporation Act, 1835, borough councils have power to make by-laws for the government of the borough; such by-laws, however, not to be of force till the expiration of forty days after the same, or till a copy shall have been sent to one of the secretaries of state, during which period Her Majesty, with the advice of her Privy-council, may either disallow the by-laws, or a part, or enlarge the time within which they shall not come into force. In numerous cases, by laws have to be submitted for approval to some administrative department of government who publish model by-laws. Thus, the Board of Trade in this way regulate traffic on railways and tramways; the Education Department make by-laws for the attendance of children under the Elementary Education Acts; the Local Government Board make by-laws regulating the use of public baths and wash-houses, markets, hop-picking, new streets and buildings, common lodging-houses, slaughter-houses, &c. By-laws may also be made by joint-stock companies, guilds, unincorporated trading companies, religious and literary and scientific societies, &c., and to these the common law will give effect. By-laws under the Factory, and Mines, and Fishery Acts, generally require the sanction of a secretary of state. Unlike statutes, all by-laws must be distinctly published before they acquire binding effect; the mode of publication being generally specified by statute. In the United States, the law is much as in England. By-laws must not conflict with the law of the land, or state law. The right to make by-laws is not essential to a corporation; in charitable foundations they are usually made by the founder. In stock corporations the by-laws are made by the members, not by the directors or managers. The

by-laws of a corporation bind its members only, while its regulations affect third persons dealing with it. See *An Essay on By-laws*, by Lumley (1877).

Byng, GEORGE, VISCOUNT TORRINGTON, admiral, was born in 1663 at Wrotham, Kent, and entered the navy at the age of fifteen. In 1688 he recommended himself to William of Orange by his activity and zeal in attaching the officers of the fleet to the cause of the Revolution, and was advanced to the rank of captain. Made rear-admiral of the red in 1703, he next year captured Gibraltar, and for his gallant conduct at the sea-fight of Malaga was knighted by Queen Anne. In 1708 he became admiral of the blue, and commanded a squadron fitted out to oppose an intended invasion on the part of the Pretender. He pursued the French fleet to the Firth of Forth, took one ship, and forced the rest back to Dunkirk. For his services during the '15 he was created a baronet; and in 1718 he commanded the English fleet sent to Sicily for the protection of the neutrality of Italy, on 31st July utterly destroying the Spanish fleet off Messina. Soon after, he was appointed treasurer of the navy and rear-admiral of Great Britain. In January 1721 he was sworn one of the Privy-council, and in September following created Viscount Torrington. On the revival of the Order of the Bath, in 1725, he was installed one of the knights; and, on the accession of George II., was nominated First Lord of the Admiralty. He represented Plymouth in parliament from 1706 until 1721. He died January 17, 1733.

Byng, JOHN, an ill-fated British admiral, fourth son of the preceding, was born in 1704, entered the navy at fourteen, in 1727 was appointed to a frigate, and for the next eight years served mainly in the Mediterranean. Rear-admiral in 1745, he went as second in command to the Mediterranean in 1747, but the death of Vice-admiral Medley soon gave him the chief command, which he retained until the peace. In March 1756 he was promoted to be admiral of the blue, and sent in command of a poorly equipped squadron of ten ships of the line to the Mediterranean to relieve Minorca, at that time blockaded by a French fleet under La Galissonnière. Byng arrived off the Castle of St Philip on the 19th May, and next day gave the signal to engage the enemy's fleet, almost equal in number of ships and weight to his own. The van under Rear-admiral West at once bore down on the French ships, which stood entirely on the defensive, but the rear, under Byng, got into some disorder and hardly came within gunshot. The van suffered great loss, and Byng, feeling himself unable to renew the action, after a council of war, sailed away to Gibraltar and left Minorca to its fate. When the news reached England the public became furious, and the ministers, to avert the public odium from themselves, ordered the unfortunate Byng to be at once brought home under arrest. He reached the Spithead on the 26th July, and was confined at Greenwich until his trial by court-martial began five months later. He was acquitted of cowardice or disaffection, but was found guilty of neglect of duty in not having done everything in his power to save Minorca, and was condemned to death by the 12th article of war, but recommended to mercy. The king refused to pardon him, and Byng was shot on board the *Mourque* at Portsmouth, 14th March 1757, 'to encourage the others,' in Voltaire's phrase. He met his fate with great courage.

Bynkershoek, CORNELIS VAN (1673-1743), a Dutch jurist, who in 1724 became president of the Supreme Court of Holland. He wrote in Latin on Roman law, public law, and Dutch law; his

complete works were published at Geneva in 1761, and at London in 1767.

Byrd (sometimes spelt *BIRDE*), WILLIAM, an English composer, was born in 1533, studied under Tallis, became organist of Lincoln in 1563, was appointed a gentleman of Queen Elizabeth's Chapel-royal in 1569, and died 4th July 1623. The composer of the first English madrigals (1588), he wrote much sacred music (including the well-known canon *Non Nobis, Domine*), as well as largely for the virginal.

Byrgius, JUSTUS, or JOST BÜRGER, the inventor of various astronomical instruments, was born in 1552, at Lichtensteig, in the Swiss canton of St Gall. In 1579 he entered the service of the learned Landgrave of Hesse, Wilhelm IV., and in 1604 that of the Emperor Rudolf II. His first work was a celestial globe, in which the stars were placed according to his own observations. He died in 1633. Many of his reputed discoveries and inventions are questioned, such as those of logarithms and the proportional compasses. See his *Life* by Gieswald (Danzig, 1856).

Byrlaw (also *BIRLAW* or *BURLAW*), the name given to a sort of popular jurisprudence formerly in use in Scotland, in villages, and among husbandmen. Sir John Skene, writing in 1597, when the system was in full force, defines byrlaw as '*leges rusticorum, de re rustica lata*—laws made by husbandmen, concerning neighbourhood to be kept among themselves.'—*Reg. Majest.* lib. iv. As the byrlaw was enacted by the common consent of the villagers or neighbours, so it was administered by judges chosen by them from their own ranks. These judges were commonly called 'byrlaw men,' a name which is still applied in some parts of Scotland to an arbiter, oddsman, or umpire. The courts which they held were called 'byrlaw courts,' and took cognisance of disputes between neighbour and neighbour. Byrlaw seems to be an interesting survival of the system of the ancient Aryan village community, or, at least, an illustration of the principle of visnet, voisinage, or neighbourhood, on which many early institutions were founded. The word is derived from the A.S. *burh*, 'borough.'

Byrom, JOHN, poet and stenographer, was born at Broughton, near Manchester, February 29, 1692. From Merchant Taylors' School he passed to Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his B.A. in 1712, and two years later was elected to a fellowship. He next travelled, studied medicine at Montpellier, and returned to London to make his bread by teaching a new system of shorthand he had invented at Cambridge. In 1740 he succeeded to the family estates, and in 1742 obtained from parliament the sole privilege for twenty-one years of teaching his system. He maintained friendship and a correspondence with many great contemporaries, especially on religious questions, and his diary, published by the Chetham Society (2 vols. 1854-7), gives us interesting glimpses of Bentley, Bishop Butler, Samuel Clarke, Wesley, and William Law. Byrom died 26th September 1763. His system of shorthand was first published in 1767, at Manchester. It is clear, characterised by 'simple strokes and no arbitrary characters,' but cannot be written with sufficient rapidity, and consequently has long since been superseded by swifter systems. His poems were first collected in 1773. They show dexterity in rhyme and a fine vein of genial satire. Byrom was throughout life a sound Jacobite, and one of his epigrams which reveals this, in spite of its sly safety, has survived:

God bless the King, God bless our faith's defender,
God bless—no harm in blessing—the Pretender;
But who pretender is, and who is king,
God bless us all! that's quite another thing.

Byron, GEORGE GORDON, sixth LORD, was born in Holles Street, Cavendish Square, on the 22d of January 1788. His mother was Catherine Gordon, heiress of the Gordons of Gight; his father was John Byron, nephew of the fifth or 'wicked' Lord Byron, and son of Admiral John Byron (1723-86), who sailed round the world with Anson, or rather who did not sail round, being wrecked in the *Wager*, and subjected to various hardships, of which he wrote a classical account. The admiral was then only a midshipman, and though, in a day when officers were habitually tyrannical, he was mild-mannered as well as gallant, his continual bad luck with the elements made him shunned by sailors much later as 'Foul-weather Jack.' The poet's maternal ancestry hardly belongs directly to this article; it is sufficient to say that it is indissolubly connected with the whole of Scottish history from James I. downward. On the father's side, though there was a blot in the middle of the pedigree (John Byron in the middle of the 16th century being described as *filius naturalis*, and inheriting by deed of gift, not in the ordinary course), the family was hardly less distinguished, and, as far as certain history goes, older. The Burms, or Byrons, appear immediately after the Conquest as holding lands in most of the northern counties of England, especially Lancashire, Nottingham, and Derby. The chief family estates in the first-named county were acquired by marriage as early as the 12th century; the still more celebrated estate of Newstead was abbey land, and was given to Sir John Byron by Henry VIII. at the dissolution. Although the Byrons appear often in earlier history, it was not till the 17th century that they gained their principal distinction. They were strong royalists, and the Sir John Byron of the day was created Lord Byron of Rochdale, where the Lancashire estates lay, in October 1643, with special reference to services at Newbury. The next noteworthy holder of the title was the already mentioned wicked lord, who, like his brother, was in the navy, who escaped almost by accident the wreck of the ill-fated *Victory* on the Caskets, and who fought under very questionable circumstances, in a private room of a tavern in Pall Mall, a duel with his Nottinghamshire neighbour, Mr Chaworth. Chaworth was killed, and Lord Byron was tried (1765) for murder, but was found guilty only of manslaughter, and escaped with a nominal penalty. He was generally unpopular, and seems to have been decidedly mad; but his madness was very inconvenient for the Byron family, inasmuch as he sold, on a doubtful title, the Lancashire estates, which were much the most profitable part of the property. He did not die till ten years after the poet's birth, and the dilapidation of the property was partly excused by the fact that Captain John Byron, his heir, was at least as great a rascal as himself, without any apparent excuse of madness or ill-luck. This Captain Byron, the poet's father, seduced, borrowed money from, eloped with, married, and ill-treated the Marchioness of Carnarthen; the only offspring of this marriage who lived being Augusta, afterwards Mrs Leigh. Then John Byron, after his first wife's death, married Catherine Gordon, whose fortune he spent, and whom he would probably have ill-treated if she had not been at least as great a vixen as he was a rascal. The memorable picture of Mrs Cadurcis in Lord Beaconsfield's *Venetia* seems to be hardly too harsh for Mrs Byron, who on all occasions seems to have been absolutely incapable of what is commonly called ladylike demeanour. In very early youth the poet (who was born with a club-foot, the source of constant moral torture to him, though it is said that but for his own morbid consciousness it would have passed almost unnoticed) saw something of his father's and mother's quarrels.

His early life was mostly passed at Aberdeen. At Lord Byron's death in 1798 (John Byron had fortunately died seven years before), Mrs Byron and her son removed to England, and in 1801 Byron was sent to Harrow, whence in 1805 he proceeded to Trinity College, Cambridge. He had become at his great-uncle's death a ward of chancery, and Lord Carlisle, a second cousin and an amiable person of some literature, was appointed his guardian. But probably no guardian under heaven could have satisfied Byron's irritable vanity, and the two did not get on well together. The anecdotes of the Harrow and Cambridge career are sufficiently numerous, but there is no room for them here. They are more consonant than usual with the future character of the man, showing a strong individuality, great though as yet unformed and entirely undirected talent, combined with a curious pride of station most unusual in one of such descent on both sides, and rather suggesting the vanity of a parvenu. The most interesting by far of these early incidents is the poet's 'calf-love' (as cruel custom calls it) for Mary Chaworth, heiress of his great uncle's victim, and a very beautiful girl two years his senior. It is impossible to say how much merely romantic and fanciful sentiment entered into this affection, which as a poet he afterwards commemorated or created in immortal verse. But if it really was love, Miss Chaworth seems not to have returned it, and before Byron went to Cambridge she married John Musters, a mighty hunter of the neighbourhood. The marriage was not happy; but it is doubtful whether she envied Lady Byron. At Cambridge Byron spent the greater part of three years, and made many friends (the most important of whom was the late Lord Broughton), besides keeping a bear, and perpetrating other follies excusable enough. His vacations were spent partly in London, more largely at Southwell, where his mother had taken a house. It was from this time that Byron's habit of accusing himself of all sorts of wickedness in letters began, a habit which has prejudiced against him not merely those who take his letters as true, and are shocked, but also those who know them to be exaggerated, and are disgusted. His first work, *Hours of Idleness*, to which he had privately given circulation under the title of *Juvenilia*, appeared in March 1807. This is probably the worst first book ever written by a considerable poet, and it was savagely 'cut up' in the *Edinburgh Review* exactly a year later. There is no doubt that this attack did Byron good; but his rejoinder was by no means so rapid and careless as he would have liked it to be thought. He took nearly as long to concoct *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers* as his reviewer had taken before the attack appeared; and meanwhile (in the earliest spring of 1809) he came of age, resolved to keep up Newstead (a very difficult thing with his dilapidated fortune, even if he had been a more careful man), and took his seat in the House of Lords. He published *English Bards*, an imitative but, in its way, capital Popian satire, and soon afterwards (in June 1809) started for a grand tour, which, owing to the continental war, had to be of a somewhat different character from the regular grand tour of the preceding century.

He first sailed from Falmouth to Lisbon, and then after brief visits to Spain and Malta, made his way to Greece, where (in the large sense of the Greek countries round the Ægean) he spent the greater part of two years. There is no doubt that this visit 'made' Byron. His powerful and original faculties were associated with a strange bent towards the conventional and the commonplace, and it required something absolutely new, something of which the average Englishmen knew nothing, to awake his spirit. At this time the remoter parts of Europe

were much less familiar to Englishmen than the Niger or the Rio Negro are now, and the medicine exactly suited the patient. Almost immediately after his return, and before he had time to reach her deathbed, his mother died, and his most intimate friend Matthews was drowned at Cambridge within a week. It will always be one of the capital anecdotes illustrating the insensibility of authors to their own strength and weakness, that Byron, whose *English Bards* had been very successful, intended to bring out on his return certain *Hints from Horace*, which are only a little better than the *Hours of Idleness*; and when asked by his friend Dallas if he had nothing else, produced, as a 'lot of Spenserian stanzas' not worth troubling anybody with, the first two cantos of *Childe Harold*. Gifford and Murray, to whom Dallas showed these, at once saw their merit, but the poem was not issued rapidly; indeed, Byron was by no means the rapid writer or issuer that he would have seemed. He had much disagreeable business, for, as has been mentioned, his affairs were wretchedly involved, by no means owing to his own fault wholly. He renewed acquaintance and began affection with his sister Augusta, spoke sometimes in the House of Lords, and went much into society; but neither now nor at any time did he like England, where the life was too uniform to suit him, and where he was not nearly monarch enough of all he surveyed to please him. Even he, however, can hardly have been disappointed at the success of *Childe Harold*, which, appearing on the 20th of February 1812, had, before the end of March, run through seven whole editions. Byron's admirers had now no cause of complaint as to his slowness in publication. Besides smaller pieces, the *Giaour* and the *Bride of Abydos* appeared in the same year (1813), the *Corsair*, *Lara*, and the *Hebrew Melodies* in 1814, the *Bride of Corinth* and *Parisina* in 1815. He said he wrote the *Corsair* (of which the public bought 14,000 copies in a day) in ten days, and the *Bride of Abydos* in four; but remarks of Byron's of this kind are not to be taken too literally. During these years he was the darling of society, knew almost every one in London who was worth knowing, and was the object of the maddest devotion from many women, notably Lady Caroline Lamb. On 2d January 1815, to the surprise of all and the consternation of a few, he married Anne Isabella Milbanke, heiress in her own right of the barony of Wentworth and of a considerable fortune. His daughter Ada was born in December 1815, and in January 1816 Lady Byron left her husband's house for ever.

Hardly any recent event, not concerning politics or religion, has ever exercised pens and tongues like this. Neither party immediately concerned ever gave to the world an authoritative version of the circumstances which led to it, and though there are many contradictory assertions on the subject, it is doubtful whether there is even in unpublished documents any quite satisfactory evidence. Forty-five years after the poet's death, Mrs Beecher Stowe informed the world that Lady Byron (then dead) had informed her that the separation was due to her discovery of a more than sisterly affection between the poet and his sister Augusta. But proof on three points—that Lady Byron told Mrs Stowe this; that Lady Byron, if she told Mrs Stowe so, believed it; and most important of all, that Lady Byron, if she believed it, had any ground for believing—is wholly wanting; and the relations between Lady Byron and Mrs Leigh subsequent to the separation are hopelessly incompatible with the story. Much later, in a book entitled *The Real Lord Byron* (1883), Mr J. C. Jeaffreson undertook to solve the mystery, but without contributing any new information of real value. The judgment of

the wisest has reverted to what the judgment of the wisest was at the time: That nothing further need be sought than the natural incompatibility of a spoiled dandy and author of loose habits, violent temper, and pecuniary circumstances likely to produce perpetual irritation, and a spoiled heiress of exceptionally cold temperament, and of orthodox and even prim manners and notions. The blame was in all probability equally divided, but it was not equally apportioned; and Byron, after being a popular favourite for three years, was held up to such obloquy in newspapers and by society, that he left England and never returned.

He first went up the Rhine to Switzerland, where he met the Shelleys, with whom he connected himself by friendship with the poet, and more questionably by a liaison with Jane or Claire Clairmont, daughter of the second Mrs Shelley's stepmother by her first husband. He went on in a leisurely manner to Venice, which he reached at the end of the year, and which was his headquarters for some two years. His life at this time and place has been represented as one of wild debauchery, principally on the always untrustworthy evidence of his own assertions and hints. It is certain, however, that at the end of 1818 he entered upon a comparatively regular existence by becoming the accepted lover in Italian fashion of the Countess Teresa Guiccioli. During 1819 and 1820 he was living for the most part in her society at Ravenna. In the summer of the latter year he removed to Pisa; in 1822 he was present at Shelley's funeral, and engaged (an engagement which showed neither to advantage) with Leigh Hunt in the *Liberal*. From Pisa a further move was made in 1822 to Genoa. It was here, in 1823, that he received the proposals which enabled him to crown his life with a death not unheroic. He had always been a nominal, though a very unclassified, Liberal, and had latterly engaged in some Carbonari plots in Italy. He was now applied to through his friends Kinnaird and Hobhouse to join the movement for recovering the independence of Greece, and he set out for Greece itself on the 14th July 1823. But many weary months, spent chiefly in the Ionian Islands, passed before he could get into active work; nor was the delay in any way his fault. At last he landed at Missolonghi on the 5th January 1824; laboured with more difficult, if less showy, heroism than if he had been storming Turkish castles, against bad weather, disunion among the Greeks, lack of material, and all tiresome checks; caught rheumatic fever, and died on the 19th April. His body was brought to England, and buried in the church of Hucknall-Torkard, near Newstead. His literary activity since he left England had been very great. The stimulus of his wife's desertion produced almost immediately two short poems, *The Dream* and *Darkness*, which were, perhaps, his poetical high-water mark. In the course of the seven years he completed *Childe Harold*, wrote a series of dramas or dramatic poems (*Manfred*, *Cain*, *Marino Faliero*, *Sardanapalus*, and others), which contain much of his most characteristic work; and produced, besides the wonderful bravura of *Mazeppa*, the cleverness of *Beppo*, and other things, the vast satiric medley of *Don Juan*.

The character of Byron, his genius, and the history of his literary reputation, are all subjects of great interest. In his own day, and immediately afterwards, his 'morality,' in the limited sense in which that word is popularly used, was the principal subject of discussion, and was most harshly judged. Recently it has been admitted: (1) That his education and circumstances supply a large palliation for faults of this kind; (2) that his own habit of fanfaronade exaggerated his moral delinquencies; and (3) that all faults of such

a kind (for Byron, though a libertine, is never accused of treachery or cruelty in his libertinism) concern posterity but little. If, however, this side of his character has been more leniently judged, another side has been judged with increasing unfriendliness, and the poet's pride and vanity of birth (displayed in a manner to which the term 'snobbishness' is almost applicable), his alternations of ostentatious prodigality and sharp business practice, his childish vanity of all kinds, have received perhaps not undue, but certainly severe treatment.

In regard to his literary genius, English critical opinion has steadily sunk ever since his death, and though some effort has recently been made to set him on a higher position, the attempt has not as yet received either critical or popular approval. Every competent critic admits Byron's power. At his best he could utter what he himself had actually seen and felt with an energy not surpassed by any writer of any period in any language. For passion of a certain kind, and for picturesqueness of a certain kind, he is almost unequalled. But this merit of personal utterance involves almost of necessity two defects—complete failure when he endeavoured to portray anything besides his own personal emotions and experiences, and not infrequent insincerity and theatricality when, in default of actual emotion and experience, he endeavoured to simulate such experience and emotion. For he was not a man of many-sided mind or even feeling. The monotony of the Byronic hero—the man of dark imaginings, universal disillusion, and general contempt of man—but especially of woman-kind—is freely granted; yet the poet can write of little or nothing else, and as soon as the type ceases to be impressive it becomes ridiculous. A second great objection to Byron is his extraordinary weakness as regards all the formal merits of poetry. Hardly a long passage, certainly no long poem, of his can be cited which, after brilliant images, forcible expressions, and melodious verse, does not break down into the most commonplace thought and phrase, the most inharmonious rhythm, even into sheer bellman's rhyme and kitchenmaid's grammar. Accordingly his most uniform strength is to be found in his satirical work, which of its nature suffers less from these defects than serious or romantic verse. Byron had no humour; but he had a most keen, abounding, and versatile wit of a somewhat Voltairian character, but richer and more poetical than Voltaire's in quality, so that *Don Juan* ranks far above the *Puella*. He attempted no serious prose; but his letters, though somewhat artificial, are of singular excellence; indeed they are perhaps of their kind the best in English.

His poetical influence in his own country for a time swept all before it, but it gradually abated its force, and is now almost non-existent. Abroad, on the contrary, it has maintained itself at the full, if it has not actually increased, and the dictum attributed to Mazzini, that Byron 'made English literature European,' has received ever-increasing confirmation in a certain sense. This phenomenon, though curious at first sight, is susceptible of easy explanation. Few foreigners are in a position to seize the subtle formal defects, which, for all but the most uncritical English readers, mar every page of Byron's work. All are able to appreciate the strong points noted above, points in which, as has been said, Byron has few, if any, rivals in his strength. It must be added that some at least of his weaknesses as they strike his own countrymen, appeal to continental opinion nearly as much as his strength. His irreverence, his contempt for propriety, his open-mouthed egotism, his language about women, his theatricality, may not now shock all Englishmen as they once did; but the very

persons who find them least 'shocking,' despise them most as puerile and unreal. To Frenchmen and Italians, to some Germans even, though in a less degree, these things usually seem virtues. Political causes assisting, and a considerable literary movement breaking out in all European countries at the beginning of the second quarter of the century, Byron attained the surest of all positions of influence, that of influencing those who influence their own countrymen. The whole Romantic school in France, Heine to a certain extent in Germany, Pushkin and Lermontoff in Russia, Espronceda in Spain, Byronised *ad libitum*; while the poet was a main if not a sole inspiration to many Italian writers, and shared with the classics the credit of producing Leopardi. Perhaps also Byron's ostentatious affectation of being un-English (though at heart he was very much of a John Bull) has done not least to create and preserve his popularity with the world from which Englishmen are still so sharply divided.

The editions of Byron's works are innumerable, but all those which have any authority have proceeded from the publishing house of Murray, whose possession of the poet's manuscript has enabled it by fresh issues of a little new matter from time to time to preserve copyright of the works in their entirety. The Life by Moore (1830) is still the standard. Its original history was curious. Byron gave his own Memoirs to Moore, and that poet sold them to Mr Murray for £2000. Objections on the part of Lady Byron and others were raised to their publication, and the manuscript was burned, Moore refunding the purchase-money, but receiving a still larger sum for the Life, in which such of the matter of the Memoirs as was deemed prudent was worked up with letters and personal reminiscences. Writings on Byron are extremely numerous; a good and recent account of his life and work is that of Professor Nichol in the 'English Men of Letters' series; and among essays, an irregular three-handed discussion in various reviews between Mr Swinburne, Mr Matthew Arnold, and Mr A. Austin, may be mentioned. Only two children of Byron are known. Allegra, his illegitimate daughter by Claire Clairmont, died before him to his great grief. His daughter Ada married Lord Lovelace, and left two children, Lord Wentworth and Lady Anne Blunt.

Byron. HENRY JAMES, dramatist, born in Manchester, January 1834, entered the Middle Temple in 1858, and was for many years a prolific and popular writer of burlesques and extravaganzas. He wrote extensively for periodicals, was the first editor of *Fan*, and leased several theatres, where he produced more ambitious plays, in which he himself occasionally appeared. These were less comedies than domestic dramas, enlivened by the smart dialogue and brisk incidents of farce. The best was *Cyril's Success* (1868); the most successful, *Our Boys*, which had an unprecedented run in London from January 16, 1875, to April 18, 1879. Byron died in London, April 11, 1884. He excelled in depicting Cockney vulgarity, and his dialogue is clever and amusing, but overlaid with repartee and puns, for which he readily sacrificed probability and appropriateness. His plots are, however, original and ingenious, and are always healthy and full of human interest.

Byssus (Gr., 'a fine flaxen or silky substance'), a genus established by Linnaeus to include some of the lowest and most obscure forms of vegetation, and defined as having a substance like fine down or velvet, simple or feathered. Botanists have sometimes ranked it among Algae, sometimes among Fungi; it has been made the type of a group Byssaceae, and placed among Lichens. Some were

went to regard this group as entitled to the rank of a distinct order, 'comprehending the filamentous fungi found in cellars, and similar plants;' others again have rejected the genus as altogether spurious. It is still retained by some systematists, but as a mere provisional limbo to include a number of gossamer-like mycelial forms of moulds which occasionally appear in damp places, and disappear without showing any signs of fructification by which to determine their true nature and affinities. The progress of research has greatly reduced this vague alliance, some forms having been recognised as algal, others as fungal in nature; and its disappearance from our lists may thus be regarded as a mere question of time.

Byssus, an old name for silk-like threads secreted by the 'foot' or muscular ventral protrusion of many bivalve molluscs. The secretion is manufactured by a gland, opening in a median posterior furrow, is at first fluid, but soon hardens into silky threads. The process may be readily watched in an aquarium. Its occurrence in the common mussel is very familiar. There, as in most other cases, the tufts of spreading threads serve to anchor the mollusc temporarily or permanently to its base of attachment. In other cases, however, it may be employed in binding together a rude nest (*Crenella discors*, *Modiola vestita*, *Lima hians*). In young forms also, as in the common fresh-water mussel, a byssus gland may be present weaving silken threads of attachment, but this



Byssus of Common Mussel.

does not appear to be exactly comparable to the adult organ. The silk of the very large *Pinna nobilis* is finer and more abundant than that of any other mollusc. It has been woven into small articles of dress, in early times for royal personages, now for lovers of curiosities. At Taranto, Reggio, and Cagliari in Italy, the byssus is still woven along with real silk into gloves, stockings, purses, and the like, but both demand and supply appear to be falling off. See BIVALVES, MOLLUSCA, MUSSEL, PINNA.

Byström, JOHANN NIKOLAS, a Swedish sculptor, was born in 1783, and died at Rome, 13th March 1848.

Bytown, till 1854 the name of Ottawa (q.v.).

Byttneriaceae, a chiefly tropical or subtropical order of thalamifloral dicotyledons, closely allied to Malvaceae and Tiliaceae, and frequently including Sterculiaceae (q.v.). They are chiefly trees or shrubs, and often have beautiful flowers. The most important product of the order is Cocoa (q.v.). The fruit of *Guazuma ulmifolia* (Brazil) is eaten. *G. ulmifolia* was introduced into India, and at one time cultivated in Madras, as Bastard Cedar, its foliage being used as fodder. This, and numerous kindred species, yield excellent bast, used for making cordage, &c., *Abroma angustata* being specially recommended.

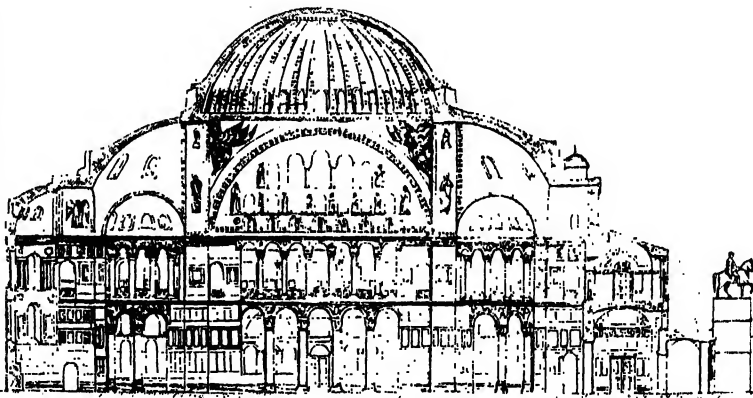
Byzantine Architecture is the style practised in Byzantium and the Eastern empire from

the time of Constantine till the taking of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, and of which the traditions are still preserved in the buildings of the Eastern Church. This style of architecture possesses considerable interest from its being one of the branches which grew out of the classic styles of Greece and Rome. Owing to the long continuance at Constantinople of part at least of the power and sovereignty of the Roman empire, and to the comparative exemption of the eastern capital from the invasions of the barbarians who overran and destroyed the monuments of the West, the transition from the classic forms of construction and design can be more clearly traced in the former than in the latter. When Constantine, in the beginning of the 4th century, removed the seat of the imperial court and government from Rome to Byzantium, he created in his new capital a fine field for the practice of the arts, and especially of architecture. Many new and splendid edifices were required, and every encouragement was given to those familiar with the constructive and decorative arts to come to Byzantium, and lend their aid in making the new city more splendid even than the old capital.

At this time Roman art was in its decadence. The classic forms and ornaments were debased and decrepit, and new features derived from the constructional elements of Roman building were beginning to supersede them. Thus, in the palace of Diocletian at Spalato, the horizontal classic entablature began to be carried round the arches, and the latter to spring directly from the capitals of the columns. In its transference to Constantinople this decaying Roman art came into contact with new elements, which inspired it with fresh life. The Romans were distinguished as constructors, and had elaborated the scientific use of the arch and vault on a great scale in their large edifices. These vaults were of several different kinds, comprising both the dome and the intersecting barrel vault. It is remarkable how the adoption of these forms of vaulting, the first by the Eastern and the last by the Western peoples, led to the development of the two great styles of the middle ages—the Byzantine and the Gothic. It seems certain that the Sassanians in Persia had practised the use of the dome for a considerable time, and it is probable that their vicinity to the meeting-point of East and West at Constantinople may have had an important influence in determining the final adoption and development of the domical form as the leading feature of Byzantine architecture. The same influence no doubt tended greatly to modify the classic details into those characteristic of the Byzantine style. The former being debased and worn out, the new ideas derived from the East were gladly seized upon, and in their turn inspired the artists with fresh vigour. The Greek element in the population also no doubt contributed to produce a strong influence on the taste and refinement displayed in this style.

The churches built by Constantine seem to have been on the same plans as those of Italy—viz. either round or basilican in form. Of these two

forms examples exist (although rebuilt) at Jerusalem and Bethlehem, and in both the ancient classic entablature and details are retained, while the arches spring from the capitals. By the time of Justinian, in the 6th century, the new style had been formed and fully developed in its main features. As above mentioned, the dome constituted the ruling element in the construction. The difficulty with this form was so to enlarge it as to give sufficient space for a great church. At first an aisle was placed round the central part (immediately under the dome), the latter being supported on eight pillars or piers. But these encumbered the floor and impeded the view, and after a time this inconvenience was obviated by the discovery that the dome might be supported on four pillars by corbelling out the angles between the circle and the square. This important invention enabled the design to be extended indefinitely by a number of domes, just as is the case with the groined arches of the West. The grandest example of this design is the church of St Sophia at Constantinople, built under Justinian, in the first half of the 6th century. There the interior is composed of a great central dome, 107 feet in diameter and 182 feet in height, carried on four piers, and length is given to the church by the addition of a semi-dome at either end. These also serve to sustain the pressure of the upper dome. The lower part of the building is

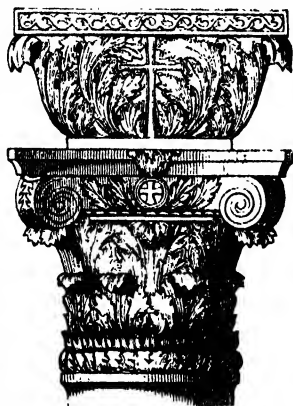


Section of St Sophia, Constantinople.

divided up with small pillars and arches, which have the effect of enhancing the size and grandeur of the simple dome. The latter is pierced with a row of windows round its base. This feature became afterwards a constant one in Byzantine churches. Externally the sloping apertures looked awkward, and a series of upright arches was substituted, with a dome resting above them. This being a weak form of construction, it tended to limit the size of the domes used in later examples. One striking characteristic of the Byzantine style is the extensive use of coloured decoration. This is a notable feature in St Sophia, where the pillars are formed of and the walls are lined with the richest marbles, while the domes are adorned with splendid mosaics.

Byzantine ornament differs considerably from the classic as well as the Gothic of the West, being always flat and incised, while the latter is bold, and apparently applied to or projected from the structural form, as, for instance, in the cups. A curious reminiscence of the classic entablature is preserved in the block which usually intervenes in Byzantine architecture between the capital of the

columns and the arch. The Byzantines were distinguished during the middle ages for all kinds of carving and metal-work, and there can be no doubt that these works of art had a great influence in the 12th century on the nascent art of the West, while their illuminations led the way to the revival of painting. The celebrated church of St Mark at Venice is a well-known example of the Byzantine style. It is, however, the only one in the West, and was doubtless the result of the commercial relations of Venice with the East. This church was copied soon after its erection in the 11th century at Perigueux, in Aquitania, and this fact led to the extensive use of the dome in that part of France.



Byzantine Capital from the nave of St Demetrius, Thessalonica.

Byzantine Art in general, developed at Constantinople under the same influences as Byzantine architecture, was mainly used for the decoration of churches. From the 6th century onwards for several centuries the most interesting remains of pictorial art were mosaics in the churches and miniature illustrations of Bibles and religious books. The Byzantine school, both in mosaic and painting, is characterised by a hierarchical stiffness in representing the human figure, by length and meagreness of limbs, features almost blank in expression, long, narrow eyes, and conventional attitudes. The colours, bright but crude, were often laid on a gold background. Yet even this type is superior in dignity and strength to the earliest Christian style of art, based on a degraded Roman pattern. The Byzantine style changed or developed very little for centuries, so that it is difficult to discover the date of a picture by internal evidence. It prevailed universally in Italy and other parts of Europe till the end of the 13th century, when Giotto (q.v.) broke from the Byzantine model which Cimabue (q.v.) still followed, and thus began the great renaissance of painting. The Byzantine method is still largely practised for religious subjects in Russia, Greece, and other countries belonging to the Greek Church. See ART, MOSAIC, PAINTING, RENAISSANCE.

Byzantine Empire, also styled the EAST ROMAN, EASTERN, GREEK, or LOWER EMPIRE, was founded in 395 A.D., when Theodosius the Great, at his death, divided the Roman empire between his two sons, Arcadius and Honorius. The empire had previously for a time been divided into East and West, but the division then made by Theodosius was final. Arcadius, a weak and luxurious character, was made emperor of the eastern division, formerly included under the prefectures of the East and part of Illyrium—namely, Syria, Asia Minor, and Pontus, stretching along the shores of the Black Sea in Asia; Egypt in Africa; and Thrace, Moesia (now Bulgaria), Macedonia, Greece, and Crete in Europe. The empire thus formed lasted more than a thousand years, and underwent a great variety of fortune. It took the name of Byzantine empire from Byzantium, the ancient name of its capital, which after 330 was usually called Constantinople or New Rome.

(1) *Period of Greek Revival (395–716)*, marked by the victories of Justinian and Heraclius.—Arcadius left the government of the empire in the hands of his minister Rufinus, from whom it passed to the eunuch Eutropius, and afterwards to Gainas, the murderer of Rufinus. Gainas fell by his ambition in 401, and the shameless and avaricious Empress Eudoxia ruled until the time of her death in 404 (see ARCADIVS). Arcadius was succeeded by his son, Theodosius II. (408–450), a feeble prince. During his reign affairs were ably and successfully conducted by his sister, Pulcheria. Yet Thrace and Macedonia could only be secured from the destructive conquests of Attila by the payment of tribute. After the death of Theodosius II., Pulcheria married the senator Marcianus (450–457), whose firmness repelled the invasions of Attila. Marcianus was followed by Leo I., surnamed Macella (the Butcher), a Thracian of low birth, but elevated to the throne by the commander-in-chief, Aspar, who, being himself an Arian, would not venture to encounter the perils that sovereignty might have entailed on one of his religious views. Leo II., grandson of the former, succeeded, but died after a few months, in consequence of which the crown came into the possession of his father, Zeno (474–491), who was banished by Basiliscus (475), but who reascended the throne in 477. Though a weak and unpopular ruler, he contrived to retain his power in spite of several serious revolts. The internal distraction of the empire, to which, as at other times, religious strifes added considerably, increased greatly during the reign of Zeno, and the invasions of the Goths were prevented only by gifts and stratagems. Ariadne, widow of Zeno, married the courtier Silentiarius, and raised him to the throne under the title of Anastasius I. (491–518). By the help of the Goths, this monarch overthrew the robber tribes of Mount Taurus. A new enemy, however, now appeared on the Danube in the Bulgarians, against whose desolating raids Anastasius built the Long Wall, to protect the peninsula on which Constantinople is situated. The war with the Persians also broke out anew during his reign, and religious tumults often purpled the streets of Constantinople itself. After his death, the army raised Justinus I. to the throne. He maintained his position mainly through the favour of the clergy, whom he had conciliated by his severe persecution of heretics.

His nephew, Justinian (q.v.), succeeded (527–565). He was celebrated for his code of laws, and for the victories of his great generals, Belisarius (q.v.) and Narses (q.v.), which re-established the empire both in Africa and Italy. But the rapid decline of the empire after his death showed that he had not been able to give it any internal consolidation or vitality. It was during the reign of Justinian that those pestilent contests of the Blues and Whites against the Greens and Reds (political factions so named from the colours respectively worn) first attained any consequence; and though the first disturbance was terribly chastised by Belisarius in 532, they continued to distract the capital periodically down to the 7th century. Justin II. (565–578), a weak man, governed by his wife, Sophia, yielded a part of Italy to the Longobards, was unsuccessful against the Persians, allowed the Avars to plunder the Danubian provinces, and ultimately became insane through vexation and anxiety. Tiberius, the captain of the guard, was then made regent, and after the death of Justin II., received the imperial dignity. He ruled with mildness and prudence (578–582), purchased a peace with the Avars, concluded the war with Persia, and left as his successor the commander-in-chief, Maurice, who reigned from 582 to 602. Having replaced on the throne the Persian

king, Chosroes II., who had been banished by his subjects, he thus secured the peace of his eastern frontiers; but the war against the Avars did not prosper. His niggardly treatment of the army caused a military insurrection, in which he was slain along with his son; and Phocas, one of his generals, was elevated to the throne. Phocas proved a bad ruler. Through his monstrous vices, tyranny, and incapacity for government, the empire lapsed into still deeper anarchy. Suddenly, however, a deliverer appeared in the person of Heraclius (q.v.), son of the exarch or governor-general of Africa, who overthrew the tyrant, and ascended the throne in 610. But great as was the genius of Heraclius, he had to submit to twelve years of defeat before he could organise and discipline a victorious army. In 622 he opened those magnificent campaigns in which the power of Persia was crushed, and which, in the opinion of Gibbon, were equal to those of Scipio or Hannibal. He lived, however, to see more formidable foes in the Saracens, who, during 632-641, overran the countries on the Euphrates, with Syria, Judea, and Egypt. The power of the Greeks, which was demanded to resist the Arabian invasions, was miserably divided and weakened by their unending religious quarrels, especially the controversy of the Orthodox against the Monothelites (q.v.). The empire was breaking asunder, and Heraclius, worn out with the fatigues of war, had abandoned his enfeebled senses to pleasure, and his enfeebled intellect to theological discussions. He died in 641. Constantine III., who succeeded his father, Heraclius, also died soon after, and was followed for a short time by Heraclonas. The next ruler was Constans, son of Constantine III., who ruled from 642 to 668, made himself odious by cruelty, and perished in an insurrection. His son, Constantine IV., Pogonatus (668-685), repelled a seven years' siege (672-679) of the Saracens, chiefly by means of the Greek fire. On the other hand, he was compelled to pay tribute to the Bulgarians, who had established themselves in ancient Mesia. Justinian II. (685-711), son and successor of Pogonatus, had a most troubled reign. At this period the empire had sunk to a very low condition, having lost most of its possessions both in Asia and Europe, while anarchy and rebellion prevailed at home. Six emperors were dethroned in twenty-one years. It was saved from ruin by the talent and energy of Leo III., the Isaurian, general of the army of the East, who in 716 seized the throne.

(2) *Period of Comparative Prosperity (716-1057)*, marked by successful defence against Saracens and Bulgarians.—Leo reorganised the army and the financial system, and in 718 repelled a formidable attack of the Saracens, but in 726 unfortunately began the controversy about image-worship, which rent the empire for more than a century. In 728 the exarchate of Ravenna was lost, and the eastern provinces became the prey of the Saracens, over whom, however, he won a great victory in Phrygia. He died in 741. Constantine V. (741-775), son of Leo III., was on account of his zeal as an iconoclast hated by the monks, who gave him the surname 'Copronymos,' because, as they said, he had polluted the font at his baptism. He was a brave ruler, recovered from the Saracens parts of Syria and Armenia, and ultimately defeated the Bulgarians, against whom he had long been unsuccessful. His son, Leo IV. (775-780), was a mild ruler; but by the ability of his generals, he made the boundaries of the empire secure against the Saracens. After him, Constantine VI. ascended the throne under the guardianship of his ambitious mother, Irene (q.v.), who raised a powerful party in favour of image-worship. Constantine having

made an attempt to liberate himself from the influence of his mother and her paramour, Stauratus, Irene barbarously caused her own son to be blinded (797). He died soon after this atrocity; and Irene, who had boldly conceived the design of marrying the Emperor Charlemagne, and thus uniting the east and west of Europe in one vast realm, excited the opposition which in 802 placed her treasurer, Nicephorus, on the throne. The restoration of the western empire by Charlemagne in 800 completed the division of the old Roman empire into East and West. Nicephorus, who fell in battle against the Bulgarians (811), was succeeded by his son, Stauratus, who soon yielded the throne to his brother-in-law, Michael I., from whom it was taken by the Armenian general, Leo V., a powerful ruler, who conquered the Bulgarians, but fell (820) in a conspiracy excited by his zeal against image-worship. Michael II., the Stammerer, was raised from a dungeon to the throne, and ruled until 829. In his reign, Crete and Sicily passed into the hands of the Saracens. Under the rule of his son, Theophilus, who is praised by the Byzantine historians for his love of justice (829-842), the general, Manuel, gained some indecisive victories over the Saracens. Theodora, widow of Theophilus, and guardian of Michael III. (842-867), brought the controversy about image-worship to a close at the council of Nicea, or Nice, in 842, when it was fully sanctioned and restored. During this reign the government busied itself in the persecution of the Paulicians (q.v.), while the Saracens devastated the Asiatic provinces.

Theodora having been banished to a convent by her son, the government was for some time held by Bardas, uncle of Michael III., and after his assassination, by Basilus I., the Macedonian, who caused Michael to be put to death, and afterwards ruled ably from 867 to 886. But though on the whole he was successful against the Saracens, the latter contrived to make themselves masters of Syracuse. His dynasty (the Macedonian) maintained itself on the Byzantine throne, with some few interruptions, until 1056. The reign of his son, Leo VI., the Philosopher (886-912), was not prosperous. The incursions of the Bulgarians and of the Saracens, who in 904 plundered Thessalonica, continued to increase during the government of his son, Constantine VII., Porphyrogenitus, who ruled mildly but feebly (912-959). Under his son, the dissolute Romanus II. (959-963), Crete was retaken from the Saracens by the vigour of his general, Nicephorus Phocas, who, on the death of the emperor, married his widow, Theophania. She, however, caused him to be murdered in 969, as she wished to marry John Zimisceus, who ruled till 976, and, like his predecessor, was victorious against the Saracens and Bulgarians, as also the Russians, who for a considerable period annoyed the empire with their attacks. His successor, Basilus II. (976-1025), the son of Romanus, conquered the Bulgarian kingdom, and attached it as a province to the empire, which it remained till 1186, when it again became independent. His brother, Constantine VIII. (1025-28), did not resemble him. Romanus III. next ascended the throne, but was assassinated by his wife, Zoe, a profligate but crafty princess, who raised successively to the imperial dignity Michael IV. (1034), Michael V. (1041), and Constantine IX. (1042). After Constantine's death in 1054, Theodora, sister of Zoe, was elected empress; and on her death in 1056, Michael VI., who was deposed by Isaac I., Comnenus. At the beginning of the 11th century the Saracen power, which had so long been a dangerous rival of the Byzantine empire, broke down, but the Seljuk Turks, a yet more formidable enemy, appeared on the eastern frontier.

In Lower Italy, the Normans narrowed the Byzantine power to the possession of Otranto.

(3) *Period of Decline* (1057-1204), marked by the Crusades and the advance of the Turkish power in Asia.—With Isaac I., Comnenus, who came to the throne in 1057, the dynasty of the Comnenian emperors began. He retired to a monastery (1059), and was succeeded by Constantine X., whose widow, Eudocia, married Romanus IV., and raised him to the throne. Romanus was deposed in 1071 by Michael VII. (son of Constantine X.), who, in his turn, was dethroned by Nicephorus III. (1078), who reigned until 1081, when he was deposed by Alexius I. (q.v.), Comnenus (1081-1118). This last reign was marked by the commencement of the Crusades, during which the Byzantine emperors had a most difficult part to play. The Crusades, however, helped greatly to check the advance of the Seljuk Turks, whose dominion had already extended itself to the Hellespont. The successors of Alexius—his son, Kalo-Joannes (1118-43), and Manuel I. (1143-80)—were able rulers, and victorious in their engagements with the Turks. Manuel's son, Alexius II., was murdered by his guardian, Andronicus (grandson of Alexius I.), who raised himself to the throne. He was the last prince of the Comnenian dynasty, and fell in an insurrection excited by his own cruelty (1185). A period of confusion ensued, during which an Isaac II., and three emperors of the name of Alexius, followed each other in quick succession till 1204.

(4) *Latin Occupation* (1204-61).—In 1204 the French and the Venetians (collectively named *Latins*) advanced on Constantinople, and captured the city. The European portion of the empire was divided into four parts, of which the first, including the metropolis, fell to the lot of Baldwin, Count of Flanders, who was made emperor, and to whom the other participants in the expedition did fealty for their respective shares. In the west of Asia Minor, Theodorus Lascaris, who had been elected emperor at Constantinople, formally transferred the seat of government to Nicaea; in the north-east of Asia Minor, the governor of the province of Colchis, Alexius Comnenus, ultimately ruled at Trebizond with absolute authority; while one of his successors, John Comnenus, even assumed the title of emperor. The Latin occupation was an event alike disgraceful to the leaders who effected it and permanently hurtful to the Byzantine empire, which never recovered its lost cohesion. At Constantinople neither Baldwin nor his successors could strengthen the sinking empire. Baldwin himself died a prisoner in the hands of the Bulgarians. After him came his brother Henry, who ruled bravely and wisely till 1216. For the next four years the empire was actually without a ruler, and a prey to utter anarchy. In 1221 Robert, son of Peter, Count of Auxerre and Courtenay, came to the throne; he was succeeded by John of Brienne, titular king of Jerusalem (1228-37), and the latter by Baldwin II. (1237-61). During these reigns a great part of the empire was seized by John Vatatzes, successor of Theodorus Lascaris of Nicaea (1222-55). This ruler was followed in Nicaea by Theodorus II. (1255-59), whose son, Johannes, during his minority, was superseded by Michael VIII., Palaeologus, who, by the help of the Genoese, captured Constantinople in 1261, and thus put an end to the Latin dynasty.

(5) *Period of Fall* (1261-1453), marked from 1354 by the rapid advance of the Turks in Europe. Michael, the first of the Palaeologi, a powerful prince, really endeavoured to strengthen the realm; but by his unhappy attempt to unite the Greek Church with the Latin, from which it had decisively separated (1054), he gave great offence

to the clergy and the people. His son, Andronicus II., who came to the throne in 1282, re-established the Greek ritual. After the death of his son and co-regent, Michael IX. (1320), Andronicus II. was compelled to divide the throne with his grandson, Andronicus III., who became sole emperor in 1328. This monarch unsuccessfully opposed the Turks, who took Nicaea and Nicomedia in 1339, and wasted the European coasts. He died in 1341. Under his son, Johannes V., the Turks first made a permanent settlement in Europe by the taking of Gallipoli in 1354. In 1361 the sultan Amurath took Adrianople, and made it the seat of government. In 1381 all that remained of the Byzantine empire became tributary to the Turks. Manuel II., son and successor of Johannes, was besieged in Constantinople by Bajazet, who defeated an army under Sigismund of Hungary at Nicopolis in 1396, and compelled the Byzantine monarch to cede to the Turks one of the main streets of the city. The fall of the city seemed inevitable, when it was saved by the advance into Asia Minor of the great Tartar conqueror, Timur, who defeated Bajazet at Angora in 1402. By this diversion Manuel recovered some portion of the Byzantine provinces; but made so little use of the occasion, that in 1422 the metropolis was again besieged by Amurath II., who, after he had overthrown the force sent to aid the emperor by Ladislaus, king of Hungary, at the battle of Varna, made Constantinople in 1444 the limit of the domains of Johannes VII., son of Manuel. Constantine XI., brother of Johannes, bravely but fruitlessly contended against the overwhelming Turkish forces, and fell heroically in the defence of Constantinople, which was captured by Mohammed II., May 29, 1453, when the Byzantine empire was brought to a close. The petty Latin princes who existed here and there in Greece, and the despots, Demetrius and Thomas, who ruled in the Morea, were subdued by Mohammed in 1460; while David, a member of the Comnenian dynasty, the last emperor of Trebizond, submitted in 1461.

It has hitherto been usual for authors dealing with the bloody record of dynastic crimes in the Byzantine empire to affirm that the history of the world never witnessed so degraded a caricature of imperial government. Against all such summary statements Mr Freeman and others energetically protest; declaring that careful study brings the fairer side into relief, and that, on the whole, the history of the fall of the Byzantine empire is the record of a noble struggle in the face of overwhelming odds. For many centuries the empire was a bulwark of Christian culture against Persians, Saracens, and Turks; and it transmitted Christianity to Russian and other Slavonic tribes after long protecting it from them.

The constitution of the Byzantine empire was founded on the institutions of Diocletian and Constantine the Great, and was purely despotic. The emperors, who were consecrated by the Patriarchs of Constantinople, claimed, as the true descendants of the Caesars, a sovereignty over the West as well as the East, and styled themselves 'rulers of the Romans,' even after Charlemagne had founded a new dynasty. Though great influence was at various times exercised by the clergy as well as by women, courtiers, and ministers, the emperors were pure autocrats, having supreme power in all departments of government, and being themselves superior to all law. By pompous titles, by great splendour of costume, and by a strict observance of an elaborately minute court ceremonial, as well as by the cruel penalties inflicted for any insult offered to the imperial dignity, or to the dignity of the emperor's relatives, they kept themselves sacredly apart from the people. Gradually every-

thing disappeared that might have been a check upon the utter despotism of the supreme power. As early as the 6th century, the consulate was absorbed into the mass of imperial honours, while the traces of the senate which Constantine had established at Byzantium, and which was composed of those on whom the emperor had bestowed the dignity of the patriciate, as well as the chartered privileges of the towns, had entirely vanished in the 10th century. The privy-council, to whom the conduct of the state was intrusted, was arbitrarily chosen by the emperor. The state officials were very numerous, and their respective ranks carefully distinguished. They were raised far above the people by titles and privileges, but were utterly dependent on the throne. Among these the *Domestici* (including many eunuchs) claimed the highest rank as immediate attendants on the emperor. The *Domestici* were made commanders-in-chief of the army. Among them the *Domestici* of the East (styled, *par excellence*, *Megadomesticus*) held the highest rank, and finally, under the Palæologi, was considered the first civil and military officer of the realm. The provinces were ruled by governors bound to contribute certain sums to the royal revenue, which gave rise to oppressive exactions. No distinction was made between the state-revenue and the privy-purse. For military service, the land was divided into districts (*Themata*); and the army, down to the later times, consisted almost entirely of foreign mercenary troops. The imperial body-guard, or *Spatharii*, were mainly soldiers of Teutonic race, the most noted being the Varangians from Scandinavia. The admiral of the fleet was styled *Megas Dux*. In the midst of constant internal and external disturbances, the administration of justice was grossly neglected and abused, though Justinian and other emperors earnestly endeavoured to establish just laws. See the articles on the principal emperors; the historical sections of the articles *ROME* and *TURKEY*; Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*; Finlay's *History of Greece*, the main authority for the Byzantine

empire (7 vols. 1851-56; new ed. 1877); and Gasquet's *L'Empire Byzantin* (Paris, 1888).

Byzantine Historians are those Greek writers who have handled the history of the Byzantine empire. They are divided into three classes: (1) Those whose works refer exclusively to Byzantine history; (2) Those who professedly occupy themselves with universal history, but at the same time treat Byzantine history at disproportionate length; (3) Those who write on Byzantine customs, antiquities, architecture, &c. The Byzantine historians have all the faults of a period when freedom, originality, and force of intellect and character were repressed by a pedantic despotism. Yet, as they are the only sources of information regarding the vast empire of the East, they are invaluable. The most interesting and instructive among them are those who confine their attention to a limited number of years, and to the events which transpired under their own observation, or in which they took part. The principal Byzantine historians were collected and published at Paris in 36 vols., with Latin translations, under the editorship of P. Philippe Labbé, a Jesuit, and his successors (1654-1711). This magnificent collection was reprinted, with additions, at Venice (1727-33). In 1828 Niebuhr, assisted by Bekker, the Dindorfs, and others, began a *Corpus Scriptorum Historiæ Byzantinæ*, carried on till 1855 in 48 vols., and continued by the Berlin Academy of Sciences.

Byzantines. See *BEZANTS*.

Byzantium, a city on the Thracian Bosphorus, founded by emigrants from Megara in 667 B.C. It rose rapidly to importance as a seat of commerce, was subject to the Persians (515-478 B.C.), was freed by Pausanias, and was alternately Athenian and Lacedæmonian during the Peloponnesian war. Thrasybulus expelled the Spartans in 390, and the city long enjoyed a kind of independence. It was taken by Severus in 196 A.D., and in 330, under the name of New Rome or Constantinople, it was made the metropolis of the Roman empire. See *CONSTANTINOPLE*.

C



the third letter in our alphabet, has, during the last three thousand years, undergone trifling changes in its form, but has varied considerably in value. Originally this symbol had the sound of *g*, it then took that of *k*, and finally, in some languages, has become equivalent to *s*. The table in Vol. I., page 187 (article ALPHABET), shows that in the Egyptian hieroglyphics the consonant *g* was represented by a picture which, though commonly designated as 'the throne,' is believed to have represented an apron. In the cursive hieratic this character bore some resemblance to a kneeling camel, and hence, when taken over by the Phœnicians, it received the name of *gimel*, the camel, whence the Greek name *gamma* was derived. The form was simplified, the capital Greek *gamma*, Γ, which is not very different from the Phœnician lapidary form, retaining only the two strokes which represented the head and neck of the camel. After the Greek alphabet had passed over to Italy the form was rounded, and became C. In the oldest inscriptions from Italy this letter still retains its original value of *g*, but as the Etruscan language had no soft mutes, it hardened into the sound of the letter *k*, which, being superfluous, fell into disuse. The Romans had both sounds, but had lost the letter *k*, and hence in the earliest Roman inscriptions C is used to denote the sound of *g* as well as of *k*; the words *legiones* and *Gaius*, for instance, being written *leiones* and *Caius*. In the 3d century B.C., the form G was evolved by differentiation out of C to denote the soft sound, and the new letter was placed seventh in the alphabet, taking the vacant place of *z*, which had fallen into disuse. After G was invented, C in classical Latin was invariably used to denote the sound of our *k*, the hard guttural mute. We learn this from the fact that the name *Cicero* was written *Kikero* in Greek, while the Germans in the time of the empire borrowed the words *Kaiser* and *keller* from the Latin *Cæsar* and *cellarium*. How the letter acquired the sound of *s* has now to be explained; and it is instructive to note the process by which the same letter comes in English to have sounds so different as those heard in *call* and *civil*. The beginning of the transition may be traced to the effect produced on certain consonants when they stand before *i*, followed by another vowel. Thus, there is a tendency to shorten the word *nation* by pronouncing it as two syllables instead of three, and it is easy to see how the sound *ti-on* would slide into the easier sound *shon*. The same is the case with the *k*-sound. The change began in Gaul about the 7th century A.D., such names as *Marcus* being pronounced as *Martius* and *Marshius*, instead of *Markius*. In Italy the change did not go so far; *Lucia*, for instance, being pronounced as *Lutshia*, instead of *Lushia* or *Lusia*. Combinations like *ceo* and *cea* differ so little from *cio* and *cia* that they followed the same course, and ultimately the *s*-sound of *c* was extended to cases where *ce* or *ci* was not followed by a vowel.

In Anglo-Saxon, as in Latin, the letter *c* was

originally sounded as *k*, a letter which we do not find in Anglo-Saxon, as it was not required. The soft sound of *c* began to come into use about the 8th century in words borrowed from Gaul, and afterwards the easier sound was extended to English words, the letter retaining its old sound before the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, but passing through *ch* to *s* before *e*, *i*, and *y*. When in Anglo-Saxon *c* followed *s* it tended to become *h*, the common suffix *isc* having changed into *ish*. When the *k*-sound was retained before *e*, *i*, or *y*, the letter *k* was ultimately substituted for *c* to avoid confusion, and thus the Anglo-Saxon *cuning* and *cene* are now written *king* and *ken*. The Anglo-Saxon alphabet was also without *q*, for which *cw* was used, *quick* being spelt *cwic*. Latin *c* has become *ch* in many English words owing to their having passed through the French; thus the Latin *caninus* and *carmen* have become *chimney* and *charm* in English. In German, the Latin *c* is represented by *k* instead of by *c*, which only appears in words which, like *cardinal*, have been borrowed from the Romance languages. A primitive Indo-European *c* sometimes becomes *h*, *s*, or *g*. Thus, the Latin *culmus* is represented by the English *hailm* and the Russian *soloma*, *cornu* by *horn*, *draco* by *dragon*, and *cithara* by *guitar*. Sometimes *c* disappears before *l* or *r*, which explains how *Claris* has become *Louis*.

C, in Music, is the name of one of the notes of the gamut. C is also the sound on which the system of music is founded, and from which the mathematical proportions of intervals are taken. The scale of C major has neither flats nor sharps, and therefore is called the natural scale. See MUSIC, SCALE, KEY.

Caaba. See KAABA.

Caaling Whale (*Globicephalus melas*), one of the Cetacea, in the dolphin family, belonging to a genus common in all seas, and oftener stranded than any other 'whale.' The skull is broad and



Caaling Whale.

depressed; snout and brain-case are about equal in length; the front of the nose-like head is rounded by a cushion of fat in front of the blow-hole; there are about a dozen small conical teeth above and below; the fore-limbs are very long (5 feet) and

narrow, and situated far below; the dorsal fin is low and triangular; the tail is deeply forked. The smooth skin of the common species is of a uniform black colour, except a white streak along the ventral surface. The total length varies from 16 to 24 feet, the maximum girth about 10 feet. The caating whale is very gregarious, and vast shoals of 50 to 100 sometimes impetuously follow their leader ashore, when alarmed and surrounded in a bay or fiord. Exciting scenes of this sort have been frequently witnessed on the Farøe Islands and elsewhere. It is recorded that 1110 were killed in the winter of 1809-10 at Hvalfiord in Iceland. In temper the animals are mild compared with some of their allies. They feed chiefly on cuttle-fishes. Many names are given to these common cetaceans—e.g. Pilot-whale, Black-fish, Social Whale, Grind-hval, &c. The common name is derived from the Scotch word *caa*, meaning 'to drive.' Several species are distinguished in different seas, but the characteristics are trivial, and somewhat vague.

Cab. See CABS.

Cabal, a term now employed to denote a small, intriguing, factious party, united for political or personal ends. It had been previously used to denote a secret committee or cabinet, when, during 1667-73, it was specially applied to Charles II.'s infamous ministry, consisting of five members, whose initials, by a strange coincidence, made up the word CABAL—viz. Clifford, Ashley (Shaftesbury), Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale. The word goes back through French *cabale* to the Hebrew *kabbālāh*, 'something received.' See CABBALA.

Caballero, FERNAN, the pen-name of one of the most popular of more recent Spanish writers. She was the daughter of Nikolaus Böhl von Faber (1770-1836), a German merchant in Spain, who had married a Spanish wife, and himself made some real contributions to the history of Spanish literature. Born at Morges in Switzerland in 1797, while her parents were travelling, she spent great part of her childhood in Germany, but returned to Spain in 1813, and in her seventeenth year married a merchant named Planell, whom she accompanied to America. A few years later she found herself a widow, and soon after married the Marqués de Arco Hermoso, two years after whose death in 1835 she married an advocate named Arrom, to become a third time a widow in 1863. The sad circumstances of her third husband's death and her profound dissatisfaction with the liberal political movements of the time clouded her later years with gloom. She died at Seville, April 7, 1877. Fernan Caballero was a prolific writer, but none of her fifty *cuentos* are long. The first was *La Gaviota*, which appeared in 1849 in the pages of the journal *El Heraldito*. Others that may be mentioned are *Elia*, *Clemencia*, *La Familia de Alvarado*. Her *Cuentos y Poesías populares Andaluces* (1859) is important as an early collection of Spanish folk-tales and songs. She herself arranged a collection of her works in 13 vols. (Madrid, 1860-61), but to this must be added the later *Colección de Artículos religiosos y morales* (Cadiz, 1862); *La Mitología contada a los Niños* (Bare, 1873); *Cuentos, Adivinos, Oraciones y Refranes populares e infantiles* (Madrid, 1877); and *Cuadros de Costumbres* (Valencia, 1878). Fernan Caballero possessed the rare gift of story-telling, and had besides a marvellously deep and sure insight into the simple heart of the peasant of Andalusia. Her old-world and somewhat sentimental catholicism sounded strange to the young Spain even of her own day, but added to the charm her stories had for those who held it unwise to destroy before it could be seen what the

world was to gain in exchange for the faith, hope, and charity of the old religion.

Cabanis, PIERRE JEAN GEORGES, a French physician and philosophical writer, born at Cosnac, Charente-Inférieure, in 1757. He commenced life as secretary to a Polish magnate at Warsaw, but soon returned to Paris to study medicine. At the outbreak of the Revolution he attached himself to the popular side; he furnished Mirabeau with material for his speeches on public education; and Mirabeau died in his arms. During the Terror he lived in retirement, and was afterwards a teacher in the medical school at Paris, a member of the Council of Five Hundred, then of the senate. He died near Meulan, May 5, 1808. His chief work is his once-famous *Rapports du Physique et du Moral de l'Homme* (1802). The book is clever, and its absolute sensationalism was so far before its time that its author might well have been suspected to be but burlesquing with grave irony the doctrines of his brother-materialists. The soul is not an entity, but merely a faculty; the brain a particular organ specially fitted to produce thought, as the stomach and the intestines perform the function of digestion. The conclusion is that the brain digests impressions and organically secretes thought.

Cabbage (*Brassica oleracea*; see BRASSICA), a plant in general cultivation for culinary purposes, and for feeding cattle. The common cabbage is said to have been introduced into England by the Romans, but to have been little known in Scotland until brought by Cromwell's soldiers. The principal varieties are known to have existed at least as far back as the 16th century, but minor varieties are being constantly produced by selection and intercrossing. The varieties (see BRASSICA) differ greatly from each other, and the ancestral wild cabbages yet admit of simple interpretation as terms of a continuous series of simple variations. The parent is of highly vegetative character, as its habitat and habit alike show; and placed in more favourable conditions its growth becomes luxuriant. This vegetative exuberance may be expressed in the simplest way by a growth of the parenchyma of the leaf, which is thus thrown into wavy folds, which are specially developed in the common kale; or the vegetative surplus may be reserved for flowering in various ways. Manufactured in the leaf, this surplus cannot pass away save in the first place through the leaf-stalk; and in one variety, the Portugal or Tronchxuda Cabbage, it remains in the midribs, which consequently become parenchymatous and succulent. More normally, however, it is carried back into the stem, and this may accordingly become swollen and turnip-like, in which case we have the Kohl-Rabi, of which an extreme subterranean and almost turnip-like variety has also arisen, or may be, as in the Jersey Cabbage, largely applied to the purpose of the growth of the stem, which may reach a height of 8 to 10 feet, and furnish not only walking-sticks but even spars for small thatched roofs, &c. The vegetative overplus may however also be applied to the formation of buds, which accordingly develop with peculiar exuberance, giving us Brussels Sprouts, or may be withheld from the lateral buds to be lavished upon the apical one alone, which thus forms the enormous 'head' of the cabbage. From excessive nutrition the flowering of this terminal bud is delayed until its own large and solid non-vegetative bulk, as well as the checking of the vegetation of the external green leaves by the winter, have given the reproductive functions an opportunity of preponderance. The most evolved and final variety is the Cauliflower, in which the vegetative surplus becomes poured into the flowering head, of which

the flowering is more or less checked; the inflorescence becoming a dense corymb instead of an open panicle, and the majority of the flowers aborting, so as to become incapable of producing seed. Let a specially vegetative cabbage repeat the excessive development of its leaf parenchyma, and we have the wrinkled and blistered Savoy, of which the hardy constitution, but comparative coarseness, become also more intelligible; again a specially vegetative cauliflower gives us an easily grown and hardy winter variety, Broccoli, from which, and not from the ordinary cauliflower, a sprouting variety arises in turn.

The whole series of variations from wild cabbage to cauliflower, from leaf to buds in the sprout, lateral to terminal bud in the cabbage, and flower in the cauliflower, are thus seen to be hypertrophied arrestments of a single process, that subordination of vegetative gains to reproductive life which is the normal fact of individual history in the organic world, as well as the essential factor of floral evolution. See BOTANY.

Cultivation.—The cabbage is biennial, consequently the main crop must be sown the autumn previous to that in which it is to be reaped. Field cabbages and the *drumhead* varieties that are used in gardens, being late in character, may be sown in July, or from the third week of that month to the second week of August. But the smaller and early sorts used in gardens should not be sown before the first week of August, nor later than the second week of that month. If the plants are reared earlier, they are apt to run to seed the following spring; and if, on the other hand, they are reared later, they will not acquire strength enough to withstand the cold of winter before it comes upon them. For successive crops to be used in the shape of young summer cabbages, one or two sowings may be made from the beginning of March to the beginning of April. Autumn-sown plants may be planted out in rows permanently as soon as they are strong enough. Additional plantations from the same sowing may be made in spring, to be followed by others, made at intervals up till July, from spring-sown plants. Thus a close succession of usable cabbage may be obtained the year round. In the northern parts of the United States, cabbages for the early summer market are sown about September, kept under glass or frames during winter, and planted out in spring. For later markets, the seed is sown in beds as early as possible in spring (about March), and transplanted later. Cabbages are sometimes preserved for winter by inverting them and burying them in the ground.

Cabbage-coleworts may be obtained from any good early variety of cabbage. They are simply cabbages which are not permitted to form hearts, but are used while the leaves are yet green and the hearts more or less open. Three sowings should be made for the rearing of these, the first about the middle of June, the second about the same time in July, and the third about the last week of the latter month, or the first week of August. These sowings will provide crops of green cabbages from October till March or April, if the winter is not destructive, after which they begin to run to seed.

Cabbage Bark. See ANDIRA.

Cabbage Butterfly, a name common to several species of butterfly, the larvae of which ('cabbage worms') devour the leaves of cruciferous plants, especially of the cabbage tribe. The Large Cabbage Butterfly, or Large White (*Pieris* or *Pontia brassicae*), is one of the commonest British butterflies. It is white, with wings tipped and spotted with black. The female is more decorative than the male. The wings, when expanded,

measure from 2½ to 3 inches across. The female lays her conical, bright yellow eggs in clusters of twenty or thirty, on the leaves of the plants which are the destined food of the caterpillars. The spring brood are found usually on wild cruciferae; the summer set on garden vegetables. The caterpillars, when fully grown, are about 1 inch or 1½ inch long, and are excessively voracious, eating twice their own weight of cabbage-leaf in twenty-four hours. When full grown, they suspend themselves by their tails, often under ledges of garden-walls, or similar projections, and are metamorphosed into shining pale-green chrysalids, spotted with black, from which the perfect insect emerges, either in the same season, or, in the autumn brood, after the lapse of a winter—no longer to devour cabbage-leaves, but to subsist delicately upon nectar.—The Small Cabbage Butterfly, or Small White, sometimes called the Turnip Butterfly (*Pieris rapae*), very much resembles the former, but the expanse of the wings is only about 2 inches. The eggs are laid singly on the under side of the leaves of cabbages, turnips, &c., and the caterpillars, which are of a velvety appearance, pale green, with a yellow line along the back, and a yellow dotted line on each side, sometimes appear in great numbers, and prove very destructive. They bore into the hearts of cabbages, instead of merely stripping the leaves, like those of the last species, and thus are a greater pest, even when comparatively few. The chrysalis is of a pale yellowish-brown colour, freckled with black.—A third species, also common in Britain, the Green-veined White Butterfly (*Pieris napi*), very nearly resembles the small cabbage butterfly.—The excessive multiplication of these insects is generally prevented by small birds, which devour them and their caterpillars, also by wasps, and by insects of the Ichneumon (q.v.) tribe, which lay their eggs in the caterpillars, that their own larvæ may feed on them. As regards artificial prevention and remedies, the eggs of the large white being laid in clusters can be removed from the cabbage-leaves; the chrysalids should be sought and destroyed; various washings, dressings, and the like are useful, such as sprinklings of salt, watering with lime-water or soap-suds, and dressing the surrounding soil with soot or gas-lime; a good drenching of any kind is often advantageous. The cabbage butterfly has become naturalised in the United States, where it is very destructive. See Miss Ormerod's *Injurious Insects*.

Cabbage-fly (*Anthomyia brassicae*), a dipterous insect in the same family as the house-fly, flesh-fly, &c., and belonging to a very large genus with about 480 European species, many of which are in their larval state very injurious to vegetables. The adult insect is about a quarter of an inch in length, and has a general ashy-gray colour, somewhat different in the two sexes. The maggots are found in summer on the roots and lower stems of cabbages and similar plants. The pupæ are rusty red in colour, and the last generation lie in the ground throughout winter. The entire development occupies about eight weeks, and there are several successive generations between June and October. The best prevention is probably rotation of crops; the earth round the roots of the cabbages should be drawn away to destroy the pupæ; watering with lime-water will kill the maggots.

Cabbage-moth (*Plutella brassicae*), a species of moth, the caterpillar of which feeds on cabbage and turnip leaves, and is sometimes very destructive. The caterpillar is greenish-black, and changes to a chestnut chrysalis in autumn. The perfect insect is predominantly of a rich mottled-brown colour, with beautiful markings. The winter

chrysalids should be destroyed when turned up in digging; the voracious grubs should be picked away from the cabbages, and the stems may be very profitably protected by making a ring in the ground with spirit of tar, quicklime, or best of all, gas-lime.

Cabbage-palm, or CABBAGE-TREE, a name given in different countries to different species of Palm, the great terminal bud of which is eaten cooked like cabbage, or sometimes also raw in salads. The Cabbage-palm of Brazil and the West Indies is *Areca (Euterpe) oleracea*. In the southern states of America the Palmetto (q.v.) is also used in the same way. The coco-nut palm (*Cocos nucifera*) and others are also sometimes similarly employed, of course in all cases at the total sacrifice of the tree.

Cabbala. The word (which is also written *Cabala, Caballa, Qaballah*) means 'that which is received,' i.e. 'tradition,' and is from the Hebrew *kabbalah*, which again is from the verb *kabal*, 'to receive.' In itself, the word might be used for any Jewish doctrine which is not explicitly contained in the Hebrew Bible since the present form of the Biblical text; the moral and ritual precepts of the Talmud are all ascribed to a tradition which can be traced back step by step. But in its technical sense, the Cabbala signifies a secret system of theology, metaphysic, and magic prevalent among the Jews. The Cabbalists taught a pantheistic doctrine, which came to them from the later and degenerate philosophies of Greece—viz. those of the Neoplatonists and Neopythagoreans. But, being Jews, they shared the common Jewish belief that their Scriptures are the fountainhead of all knowledge, and accordingly they read their doctrines into the Bible in all kinds of artificial ways, especially by the mystic significance which they attached to numbers, and the advantage they took of the fact that each Hebrew letter also stands for a numeral. They held that their so-called science was both speculative and practical, because the knowledge of metaphysical laws was supposed to clothe the adept with supernatural power. Thus like the school of the Essenes, like the Alexandrian philosophy, like Christianity itself, the Cabbala sprang from weariness of the dead letter, from a reaction against the petrified Judaism of the Rabbis. It substituted an immanent God, a God who is in nature and one with it, for the strict monotheism of the orthodox Jews.

In the Talmudic treatise 'Chagiga' there is frequent mention of secret knowledge, and in particular of a cosmogony called the 'Work of Genesis,' and a theosophy called, in allusion to the opening chapter of Ezekiel, the 'Work of the Chariot.' We are told that this knowledge is at once very sacred and very perilous, but no details are given. The authoritative documents of cabbalistic doctrine are the 'Sepher Yetzirah,' or 'Book of Creation,' ascribed to Rabbi Akiba, who died 120 A.D., and the 'Sepher Hazzohar,' the 'Book of Brightness' (see Dan. xii. 3), ascribed to Simeon-ben-Jochai, a contemporary of Akiba's. The real dates are very difficult to fix. A book with the title Yetzirah is mentioned by the Gemara in the 5th or 6th century, and by Saadia in the 10th. Possibly the book intended may be substantially identical with that which now bears the name. Zohar, which refers to the Talmud, the Arab empire, &c., cannot be older than the 8th century, and is ascribed by some eminent critics to the 13th. 'Yetzirah' is written in the Neo-hebraic of the Mishna, Zohar in the Neo-aramaic of the Gemara.

The kernel of the cabbalistic teaching is that all emanates from God, and at every turn we are reminded of the fanciful pantheism of the Gnostics.

There is no creation in the common acceptation of the term, and on the other hand no eternal matter. All that we see is due to the self-development of the Deity. In himself he is the absolute without any attribute, since all attributes limit the being of whom they are predicated. God as the absolute being is also called Adam Kadmon, 'the first or ideal man' (see Ezek. i. 26; Dan. vii. 13). Next he becomes determined by ten attributes, 'wisdom and understanding,' 'mercy and judgment,' &c. These are conceived as male and female, and they are formed into three triplets or Trinities. They constitute 'the world of emanation,' and they are the 'channels' through which the world of pure spirits, the world of angels and heavenly bodies, and the lowest world, that in which we live, have come into being. Man's body represents in its different parts the realities of the upper worlds: his soul has pre-existed, realises its own nature on its descent to this earth, and after transmigration from body to body, returns to God. The sacred character of certain numbers—e.g. of three, of seven, of ten—regulates the mode in which these ideas, half mythological, half philosophical, wholly pantheistic, are arranged; and an interpretation of the Bible based likewise on the significance of numbers, and entirely removed from all rational exegesis, adjusted the Cabbala to the letter of the written word.

The chief cabbalistic writers flourished between the 13th and 16th centuries. Of these R. Moses ben Nachman (1195-1270), better known as Ramban, is the most eminent. More and more, the philosophic were obscured by the magical elements, and orthodox Rabbis justly objected that the worship of ten divine attributes as real beings was an abandonment of Jewish monotheism. Further, cabbalistic sects attached themselves to pretended Messiahs, such as Sabbatai Zevi, born at Smyrna in 1640. The followers of Jakob Frank in Germany (1713-98), and the sect of Chasidim—i.e. 'Pious'—in Poland, were also connected with the Zoharites or Cabbalists. On the other hand, the resemblance between certain features in the emanation doctrine and the Christian Trinity induced some Jews to turn Christian, and made Christians favourable to the Cabbala. Pico della Mirandola (*Conclusiones Cabbalisticæ*, 1486) and the truly great Reuchlin (*De arte Cabbalisticæ*, 1517) were both eager Cabbalists. The chief cabbalistic writings have been done into Latin and expounded by Knorr (3 vols. Salzburg, 1677). The chief monographs on the subject are by Freystadt, *Philosophia Cabbalistica* (1832); Frank, *La Kabbale* (1843); Ginsburg, *The Kabbala* (1865). See TALMUD.

Cabeiri, mystic divinities chiefly worshipped at Samothrace, Lemnos, and Imbros, but also at Thebes, Pergamos, and elsewhere. They were regarded by most early writers as children of Hephaestus, but little is known of their character or the nature of their worship. They are identified by some with Demeter, Persephone, and Rhea; by others with the Dioscuri (Castor and Pollux); by others again with the Roman Penates.

Caber, TOSsing THE, a Scottish athletic exercise or feat, in which a large beam or young tree, heavier at one end than the other, is held perpendicularly balanced against the chest, small end downward, and tossed so as to fall on the heavy end and turn over, the furthest toss and straightest fall winning. Competitions where the powers of the opponents are unknown are generally started with a caber of 24 or 25 feet, from which the thick end is sawn off by degrees, until the proper length is got at. The thin end, held in the hand, should be not more than 3 inches in diameter; the average length of a good lurch caber is about 21 feet.

Cabés, or *Gabes*, a port of Tunis, in a fertile district at the head of the gulf of the same name (ancient *Syrta Minor*). It was in the 5th century a bishop's seat, and in the 10th a rich and strongly fortified town. The harbour admits small vessels only, and the annual imports and exports now average but £20,000 and £11,500 respectively. Pop. about 10,000.

Cabet, ÉTIENNE, a notable French communist, was born at Dijon in 1788, and educated for the bar, but turned his attention to literature and politics. Under the Restoration, he was one of the leaders of the Carbonari (q.v.), and in 1831 was elected deputy for the department of Côte d'Or. Soon afterwards, he published a *History of the July Revolution* (1832), started a Radical Sunday paper, *Le Populaire* (1833), and on account of an article in this paper, was sentenced to two years' imprisonment, but escaped to London. After the amnesty, 1839, he returned to Paris, and published a *History of the French Revolution* (4 vols. 1840), bestowing great praise on the old Jacobins. He attracted far more notice by his *Voyage en Icarie* (1840), a 'philosophical and social romance,' describing a communist Utopia. The work obtained great popularity among the working-classes of Paris. Cabet next proceeded to send an 'Icarian colony' to the Red River in Texas, but the colonists who went out in 1848 found Texas anything but a Utopia. Their ill fortune did not deter Cabet from embarking at the head of a second band of colonists. On his arrival he learned that the Mormons had just been expelled from Nauvoo in Illinois, and that their city was left deserted. The Icarians established themselves there in 1850. Cabet's efforts, however, were not successful. He was finally obliged to leave Nauvoo and retire to St Louis, where he died in 1856. (See Nordhoff, *Communist Societies of the United States* (1875).

Cabinda, a small Portuguese territory on the west coast of Africa, delimited in 1886, bounded on the E. by the Congo State, which on the S. separates it from the mouth of the Congo. The capital, Cabinda, was formerly a noted slave port; pop. 8000, now chiefly engaged in boat-building and coast trading.

Cabinet, in Great Britain, is the body of ministers who carry on the government. It is an institution which has gradually grown out of the needs and exigencies of our political life, and is now an essential part of our polity. 'Yet,' says Macaulay, 'it still continues to be altogether unknown to the law; the names of the noblemen and gentlemen who compose it are never officially announced to the public; no record is kept of its meetings and resolutions, nor has its existence ever been recognised by any Act of Parliament.' In former times the Privy-council were the advisers of the crown, but as the Privy-council was a large body, a small informal council of royal advisers grew up within it. This became marked under the Stuarts, especially Charles II. The rise of the cabinet as we know it, however, really dates from the revolution of 1688 and the effectual establishment of parliamentary government. The members of cabinet are the leaders of the majority of the House of Commons, and the position of the cabinet as the executive government marks the supremacy of the representatives of the people. It was a considerable period after the revolution of 1688 before this state of things received their full development. As William III. was a foreigner raised to the throne by a revolution and dependent on parliament, it was during his reign about 1693 that the cabinet in its modern form originated. But for some generations the cabinet was a loosely arranged body of ministers without a fully acknowledged

chief, without full powers, and without a fully developed collective policy. The aim and tendency of the personal rule of George III. was to degrade the cabinet into ministers dependent on himself. Even so late as 1834, William IV. took it upon him to dismiss a cabinet which was objectionable to himself personally. At present, in the event of a change of government, the royal initiative is confined to the duty of 'sending for' the leader of one of the great parliamentary parties. The particular leader may not always be definitely indicated, in which case the sovereign exercises a certain discretion. With regard to the cabinet generally, it may be said that while composed of members of both Houses of Parliament, it must depend on the majority of the House of Commons; it must be united on the leading questions of the day, and must follow a common policy; and it acknowledges a collective responsibility to parliament for its principal acts. But as we said at the outset, the cabinet has no formal place in the constitution, and its functions are not governed by written rules. As the executive organ of parliament it is very elastic, and while subject to considerations of use and wont its action can be suited to the exigencies of time and circumstance. The cabinet now always includes: The First Lord of the Treasury, the Lord Chancellor, the Lord President of the Council, the Lord Privy Seal, the five secretaries of state, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the First Lord of the Admiralty. Thus the minimum number of members is eleven. With the addition of other members it has sometimes numbered seventeen, but a large cabinet is not an advantage.

In the United States the cabinet consists of the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Secretary of the Interior, the Attorney-general, and the Postmaster-general. These are the heads of their respective departments, and in their collective capacity act as Advisory Board to the president. They are appointed to office by the president, but their appointments must be confirmed by the senate, and they generally hold office until their successors are appointed and confirmed. Contrary to the English system, the United States cabinet-ministers must not have seats in congress; there is no premier, and the president, not the ministers, is responsible for the acts of the government. The salary of members of cabinet is \$8000 a year.

The word cabinet, it may be added, is now frequently used for analogous institutions in other countries.

Cable, GEORGE WASHINGTON, a popular American author, was born in New Orleans, October 12, 1844. He had early to shift for himself, and at nineteen volunteered into the Confederate service. He saw some hard service, and in one action was severely wounded. After the war he earned for some time a precarious living, and finally found himself laid up with malarial fever caught at survey work on the Atchafalaya River. During his two years' illness he began to write for the New Orleans papers, and his success ere long was such as to encourage him to devote himself to the literary craft. His sketches of Creole life published in *Scribner's Monthly* made his reputation, revealing as they did to the world an interesting phase of American social life hitherto unknown. His keen observation and dexterous literary use of the Creole dialect at once found him a public on both sides of the Atlantic. Among his books are *Old Creole Days* (1879), *The Grandissimes* (1880), *Madame Delphine* (1881), *Dr Serier* (1883), *The Creoles of Louisiana* (1884), *The Silent South* (1885), and *Bonheurture* (1888). Cable has lectured in America with great success on his chosen subject, and has had the happiness to see important reforms

in contract convict labour in the southern states, brought about mainly through his own pen.

Cable is either a large rope or a chain of iron links, chiefly employed on shipboard to suspend and retain the anchors. Rope cables are made of the best hemp or of wire, twisted into a mass of great compactness and strength. The circumference of hemp-rope varies from about 3 inches to 26. A certain number of yarns are laid up left-handed to form a *strand*; three strands laid up right-handed make a *hawser*; and three hawsers laid up left-handed make a *cable*. The strength of a hemp cable of 18 inches circumference is about 60 tons; and for other dimensions, the strength is taken to vary according to the cube of the diameter. Wire-rope has within comparatively recent times been to a certain extent taking the place of hemp for tow-line and hawsers on board ship. These usually consist of six strands, laid or spun around a hempen *core*, each strand consisting of six wires laid the contrary way around a smaller hempen *core*. The wires are galvanised or zinc'd, or else coated with a preservative composition. Wire-ropes are usually housed on board ship by winding them round a special reel or drum. Hemp cables, moreover, have for long been almost wholly superseded by chain cables; the introduction of steam on board ship having brought in its train the powerful steam-windlass wherewith to manipulate the heaviest chains and anchors required. Hempen and wire ropes are of course invariably used as tow-lines and for mooring vessels.

Chain cables are made in links, the length of each being, generally, about 6 diameters of the iron of which it is made, and the breadth about $3\frac{1}{2}$ diameters. There are two distinct kinds of chain cables—the stud-link chain, which has a tie or stud welded from side to side, and the short-link or unstudded chain. (As to mode of making chain cables, see under CHAINS.) The cables for use in the mercantile service are made in 15 fathom lengths, but in government contracts chain cables are required to be made in 12½ fathom lengths, with one swivel in the middle of every alternate length, and one joining-shackle in each length. Besides the ordinary links and joining-shackles, there are end-links, splicing-tails, mooring-swivels, and bending-swivels. The sizes of chain cables are denoted by the thickness of the rod-iron selected for the links. The following table gives certain ascertained quantities concerning the cables in ordinary use:

Thickness of Iron.	Weight of 32y.-pin.	Weight per Fathom.	Breaking Strain.
$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz.	13½ lb.	6 tons.
1 "	3½ "	54 "	24 "
1½ "	12 "	121 "	60 "
2 "	28 "	215 "	99 "
2½ "	40 "	272 "	126 "

Compared with the strength of hempen cable, 1 in. diameter chain cable is equivalent to 10½ in. circumference hemp, 1½ in. to 13½ in., 1½ in. to 16 in., 1½ in. to 18 in., and 2 in. to 24 in.

By the Chain Cables Act of 1871, certain bodies are licensed to erect machines for testing all chain cables and anchors; and it is forbidden to sell or purchase, under a penalty of £50, any chain cable or any anchor weighing more than 168 lb. which has not been duly tested. Minor alterations were introduced by a later Act (1874), leaving the main rules intact. For submarine cables, see TELEGRAPH; and for cable tramways, TRAMWAY.



Stag's Head caboched.

Caboched, or CABOSSED, an heraldic term, from the old French word *caboché*, 'the head.' When the head of an animal is borne, without any part of the

neck, and exhibited full in face (or *affronté*), it is said to be caboched.

Cabot, or CABOTTO, GIOVANNI, a Venetian pilot, the discoverer of the mainland of North America, settled as a merchant, probably as early as 1472, in Bristol, where he is supposed to have died about 1498. Under letters-patent from Henry VII., dated 5th March 1496, he set sail from Bristol in 1497, with two ships, accompanied by Lewes, Sebastyan, and Sancto, his sons, and on 24th June sighted Cape Breton Island and Nova Scotia. Letters-patent were granted, 3d February 1498, for a second expedition; but whether any voyages were made under these is doubtful. However, they form the last authentic record of his career.—The same uncertainty exists as to the birthplace of his second son, SEBASTIAN, who, it now appears most probable, was born at Bristol in 1474. Sebastian's name is associated with that of his father in the charter of 1496, and in 1499 he appears to have sailed with two ships in search of a North-west Passage, and followed the American coast from 60° to 30° N. lat.; but it has been considered doubtful whether this voyage also should not be assigned to his father. We hear no more of Sebastian till 1512, when he appears to have attained some fame in England as a cartographer, in which capacity he entered the service of Ferdinand V. of Spain in the same year. A contemplated voyage of discovery to the North-west was frustrated by the death of the king in 1516; and the jealousy of the regent, Cardinal Ximenes, impelled Cabot to return to England in 1517. During this visit he appears to have been offered by Henry VIII., through Wolsey, the command of an expedition which, through either the cowardice or malice of Sir Thomas Perte, who was appointed his lieutenant, 'tooke none effect'; but whether the expedition ever left England or not has been disputed. In 1519 Cabot returned to Spain, and was appointed pilot-major of the kingdom by Charles V., for whom, in 1526, he commanded an expedition which examined the coast of Brazil and La Plata, where he endeavoured to plant colonies. The attempt ending in failure, he was imprisoned for a year in 1530, and banished for two years to Oran, in Africa. In 1533 he obtained his former post in Spain; but in 1547 he once more betook himself to England, where he was well received by Edward VI., who made him inspector of the navy, and gave him a pension. To this monarch he seems to have explained the variation of the magnetic needle in several places, which he was among the first, if not the very first, to notice particularly. In 1553 he was the prime mover and director of the expedition of Merchant Adventurers which opened to England an important commerce with Russia. He seems to have died in London in 1557. Of his famous map (1544), embodying the discoveries of his father and himself, one example exists, preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris. Among monographs on the Cabots may be mentioned Nicholl's *Life of Sebastian Cabot* (1869) and HARRISSE'S *Jean et Sébastien Cabot* (Paris, 1882); see also WEISE'S *Discoreries of America to 1535* (New York, 1884), and Winsor's *History of America*, vols. ii.-iv. (Boston, 1885).

Cabourg, a village in the French department of Calvados, on the Dives, 11 miles SW. of Trouville by rail. In 1888 the French government proposed to establish here a commercial and military port, to command the mouth of the Seine, and communicate with the English Channel by a canal. Pop. (1886) 1003.

Cabra, a town of Spain, 37 miles SE. of Cordova, on a stream of the same name, has an old castle, a college, and an active wine trade. Pop. (1878) 13,763.

Cabral, or CABRERA, PEDRO ALVAREZ, the discoverer—after Pinzon—of Brazil, was born about 1460 of a good old Portuguese family. After Vasco da Gama's first voyage, the king appointed Cabral to the command of a fleet of 13 vessels, carrying 1200 men, and bound for the East Indies. On the 9th March 1500 he sailed from Lisbon. To avoid becalming off the coast of Africa, he took a course too far westerly, fell into the South American current of the Atlantic, and was carried to the unknown coast of Brazil, of which, on 25th April, he claimed possession for the king of Portugal, naming the new country 'Terra da Santa Cruz.' After sending home one vessel to bear news of his accidental discovery, Cabral sailed for India; but on 29th May four of his vessels foundered, and all on board perished, including Diaz the great navigator; and soon afterwards three more vessels were lost. Cabral therefore landed at Mozambique, on the east coast of Africa, of which he first gave clear information, and sailed thence to Calicut, where, having made the terror of his arms felt, he was permitted to found a factory, entered into successful negotiations with native rulers, and thus established the first commercial treaty between Portugal and India. He returned with a considerable booty, and dropped anchor at Lisbon, 31st July 1501. Subsequently we find no mention of Cabral.

Cabrera, one of the Balearic Isles (q.v.), uncultivated, but producing wild olives. Area, 8 sq. m. There is a good harbour, with a fort. The island is used by the Spanish government as a penal settlement, and was crowded with French prisoners during the war in the Peninsula.

Cabrera, DON RAMON, Carlist leader, was born at Tortosa, Catalonia, in 1810. Intended for the church, he had already received the minor orders, when the death of Ferdinand in 1833 gave the signal for civil war. Cabrera at once joined the *absolutists*, or partisans of Don Carlos, and by his energy, daring, and pitiless cruelty at least after the shooting of his aged mother by Mina (1836) for treasonable correspondence soon made his name a household word throughout Aragon and Valencia. Defeated and severely wounded at Rancón, he escaped with difficulty into the woods, but soon reappeared at the head of a really formidable force, overthrew the royal army at Buñol and at Burjasot, and though vanquished at Torre-Blanca, he soon after reopened the war with fiery energy, and even for a time threatened Madrid itself. In 1839 Don Carlos created him Count of Morella, and governor-general of Aragon, Valencia, and Murcia; but Marotto's treachery obliged him to act solely on the defensive, and in July 1840 he was driven across the French frontier. In 1845 he strongly opposed Don Carlos's abdication of his rights, and in 1848 renewed the struggle for absolutism in Spain; but the adventure proved a miserable failure, and early in 1849 he had to recross the Pyrenees. He afterwards married a wealthy English lady. When Alfonso was proclaimed king of Spain in 1875, Cabrera published a manifesto advising the Carlists to submit to him, as a good son of the church. He died at Wentworth, near Staines, 24th May 1877.

Cabs derive their name from the cabriolets de place introduced into England from Paris at the beginning of the present century. As early as 1672, we are informed, on the authority of Count Gozzadini, that cabriolets, or gigs with hoods, 'an affair with a curved seat fixed in two long bending shafts, placed in front on the back of a horse, and behind on two wheels,' were introduced from Paris into Florence, where they so rapidly increased that in a few years they numbered over one thousand.

These vehicles appear to be the original of the *carriole* of Norway, the *calesso* of Naples, and the *volante*, a hooded gig on two very high wheels, of Cuba. In Paris the cabriolet de place was introduced about the middle of the 17th century by Nicholas Sauvage, whose residence in the Rue St Martin at l'Hôtel St Fiacre has given the name of *fiacres* to the public carriages of that city. In 1805 Messrs Bradshaw and Retch obtained licenses for eight cabriolets which were started in London; and a newspaper of April 23, 1823, states that 'cabriolets were in honour of his majesty's birthday introduced to the public this morning. They are built to hold two persons inside, besides the driver (who is partitioned off from his company), and are furnished with a book of fares . . . which are one-third less than the hackney coaches.' These two-wheeled cabs, built by Mr Davies, had a body somewhat similar to the 'hansom,' but smaller, the forepart of the head being capable of being folded. Their number was, owing to the opposition of vested interests, at first limited to twelve. They were painted a yellow colour, and stood for hire in a yard in Portland Street, Oxford Street. They speedily acquired great popularity, and in 1832, when all restrictions as to numbers were removed, had reached a total of sixty-five. Ultimately they displaced the hackney coaches (public vehicles are still officially designated 'hackney carriages'). First used in England about 1605, these were chiefly the discarded carriages of the nobility utilised and licensed for public use. In 1625 their number was restricted to fifty, thirty-seven years later they had increased to 400, when the government began to impose a tax of £5 upon each vehicle, and in 1715 their total reached 800. By reducing their size, and building the under-carriage shorter than those of the nobility, great improvement was effected (1790). 'Hackney' (Chaucer, *hakeney*, old Fr. *haquenée*, 'His hakeney, that was a pomey grice,' *The Prologue of the Chanounes Yeman*, line 6) is by Professor Skeat supposed to be ultimately derived from two Dutch words signifying 'a jolting nag.' Pepys, in his *Diary* (1662), speaks of riding his *haquenée* to Woolwich. Some, however, state that the name originated from Hackney, formerly a suburb of London, where the first hired coaches were accustomed to start from. The cabriolet de place, which, as we have seen, gradually displaced the hackney coach, was itself succeeded by a cab patented by Mr Boulnois. It was drawn by one horse, and carried two passengers facing each other, the driver being seated on the top, the vehicle having a door behind like an omnibus. This falling out of fashion, a larger cab, of the brougham type, but smaller and plainer, for two people, came into use in 1836. From this design the present Clarence four-wheeler is constructed.

The introduction of the hansom patent safety cab, named after the inventor, the architect of Birmingham town-hall, marked a new era in rapid street locomotion. The patent was taken out in 1834, and originally consisted of a square body, the two wheels, about 7½ feet in diameter, being the same height as the vehicle. Numerous improvements were made upon this, and in 1836, a fresh patent being taken out by Messrs Gillett & Chapman, a company was formed for establishing hansom cabs. Since that time there has been a steady advance made in the construction and appointments of the 'hansom.' Those introduced by Lord Shrewsbury claim special notice for their convenience and smart appearance. The most recent improvement consists of a folding framework hood, which permits the vehicle to be used either open or closed. An endeavour has also been made to introduce cabs with india-rubber tires, and

they are steadily increasing in numbers. A three-wheeled cab, a new invention, was licensed in 1887.

The cabs of foreign countries and the chief towns of Great Britain have their own peculiar features and police or municipal regulations, the latter under the Town Police Clauses Act (10 and 11 Vict. chap. 89). The Metropolitan Streets Act, 1867 (30 and 31 Vict. chap. 134), consolidated and amended previous acts relating to cab and vehicular traffic in London, under the direction of the chief-commissioner of the police. Special regulations are in force under the Metropolitan Public Carriages Act, 1869 (32 and 33 Vict. chap. 115), for granting licenses, the inspection of cabs, and the qualification of the drivers, who must (prior to being licensed) submit a certificate of character, signed by two ratepayers, testifying to personal knowledge of the applicant extending over two years. Lost property found in cabs must within twenty-four hours be taken by the driver to the nearest police-station, the cabman receiving, if the property be claimed, a *pro rata* recompense. By returns made in 1886, there were in London 3997 four-wheeled cabs and 7020 hansomcabs, with 14,852 drivers. The tax paid amounted to £20,002. The cost of a four-wheeled cab and horse is about £100. Cabmen's shelters (of which there are 40 in London alone), founded 1875, to afford drivers accommodation and shelter when on the stands, have proved of great service to the men, and have greatly promoted habits of sobriety. The Cab-drivers' Benevolent Association (founded 1870) grants annuities, and gives legal and pecuniary assistance to cab-drivers and their widows. A Home of Rest for Horses (founded 1887) provides rest for overworked cab horses. The organ of the cab interest is *The Hackney Carriage Guardian* (weekly).

Cabul. See KABUL.

Cacao. See COCOA.

Caccamo, a town in the province of Palermo, Sicily, 5 miles SW. of Termini, with mines of agate, jasper, and beryl. Pop. (1881) 7964.

Cáceres, the second largest province of Spain, in the north of Estremadura, owned chiefly by large proprietors, and mostly devoted to cattle-raising; the northern half, however, is a good wine country. Area, 8014 sq. m.; pop. (1885) 325,953.—The capital, Cáceres, 45 miles N. of Merida by rail, is famous for its bacon and sausages, and has a bull-ring of granite, dye-works, and manufactures of woollens, crockery, and rope. It was the *Ustra Caccilia* of the Romans, by whom it was founded in 74 B.C.; and here the allied forces defeated the rear-guard of the Duke of Berwick, 7th April 1706. Pop. (1885) 14,173.

Cachalot is a name for the Sperm Whale. See WHALE.

Cachao. See HANOI.

Cachar, a district of British India in the chief-commissionership of Assam, bordering on Manipur. Area, 3750 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 313,858. The staple crop is rice, yielding three harvests in the year. The tea-plant was discovered growing wild here in 1855, since which time the tea-growing industry has become highly important, more than a fourth of all the tea exported from Assam coming from this district. Its forests are considered practically inexhaustible, and timber is exported to Bengal. The town of Silchar (pop. 6567) is the administrative headquarters.

Cache (Fr., 'hiding-place'), in Canada and the western states of America, a hole dug in the ground for concealing provisions and other articles cumbersome to carry.

Cachet, LETTRES DE. See LETTRES DE CACHET.

Cachexia (Gr. *kakos*, 'bad'; *hexis*, 'habit'), a term used in medicine of an obviously unhealthy condition of the body. It is chiefly used in regard to chronic diseases, where the general nutrition is defective, and the blood in an unhealthy state. Thus, Cancerous Cachexia indicates the peculiar impoverished state of the blood and general debility which are associated with the deposits of cancer in various parts of the body; Gouty Cachexia, the state of the general system in gout, as opposed to the mere local attack of gout in the foot. Lead Cachexia is used of the condition of general enfeeblement which sometimes results from the slow absorption of lead into the system; Mercurial Cachexia similarly in chronic poisoning by mercury. Cachexia Strumipriva is the name applied to the peculiar condition recently found to result from removal of the thyroid gland.

Cacholong, a beautiful mineral, regarded as a variety of semi-opal; see OPAL. It is sometimes called Pearl Opal, or Mother-of-pearl Opal. It is generally of a milk-white colour, rarely with a yellowish or reddish tinge.

Cacique, or CAZIQUE, the designation given to the chiefs of Indian tribes in works relating to Central and South America. The word was formed by the Spaniards from a native Haytian word.

Cacodarmon. See DEMON.

Cacodyle, or KAKODYLE, is an organic substance containing carbon, hydrogen, and arsenic, $((CH_3)_2As)_2$. The oxide of cacodyle, $((CH_3)_2As)_2O$, otherwise known as *Cadet's fuming liquor* or *alkarsine*, has the remarkable property of taking fire spontaneously when exposed to the air, and evolving abundant and exceedingly poisonous fumes of arsenic.

Cacongo, or KAKONGO, formerly a district of South Guinea, Africa, extending along the South Atlantic Ocean, in 5° S. lat., immediately to the north of the mouth of the Congo. The Cacongo River enters the sea in 5° 12' S. This territory was claimed by the Portuguese, though they have no settlement in it; it has been mostly absorbed in the Congo Free State.

Cactaceæ, an order of calycifloral dicotyledons, consisting of succulent shrubs of very singular appearance. Linnaeus included all the Cactaceæ in the single genus *Cactus*, which is now divided into a number of genera, with about 1000 species; the name *Cactus*, however, still continuing in popular use, common to the whole order. The cactuses are almost without exception natives of America, and their extraordinary forms give a remarkable character to the vegetation of its warmer regions. One is found in Ceylon, and one is a probable native of West Africa. Most of them are leafless, but *Pereskia*, the tree-cactus of the West Indies and Central America, has in some of its species large oblong elliptical deciduous leaves, somewhat succulent, but essentially similar to those of ordinary plants. But in adaptation to the excessive poverty and dryness of the soils in which they flourish, and especially to the protracted droughts and torrential rains which characterise the dry and the rainy season, the leaves are frequently reduced to spines, or mere abortive scales, with their axillant buds developed merely as a wart bearing a tuft of spines, or even reduced altogether. The vegetative functions are thus thrown entirely upon the stem, of which the rind-parenchyma or cellular envelope (see BARK) becomes of great succulence, often forming the greater thickness of the stem, although a small central woody bundle can of course always be

distinguished. The stem may become flattened, as in the Prickly Pear (*Opuntia*), or more frequently be thrown into ridges and furrows, so as to increase the vegetative surface. Protected by its dense and continuous epidermis, the bulky stem of the cactus is thus enabled to store a vast supply of water in the spongy bark and pith, and thus withstand the drought and sun of the most rocky and desert situations, of which they often cover large tracts. On this account they are often of great value as sources of water-supply to man and animals; and travellers upon the Mexican plateau have described how the herds of half-wild horses break down branches of *Cereus* with their hoofs, or kick open the spheroidal *Melocactus*, to quench their thirst. Hence such forms have been called 'springs in the desert.' Some are copiously branched (*Phyllocactus*), and sometimes spreading or trailing. Usually, however, the branches are rarer and inserted with peculiar stiffness (*Opuntia*). In yet more specialised forms the checking of the vegetative buds reduces branching still further, or even stops it altogether, as in the tall upright pillar-like and generally unbranched *Cereus giganteus*, which gives such a strangely monotonous, almost architectural rather than vegetative character to the deserts of New Mexico. Finally, even upward growth ceases, and we have merely the short, thick, spheroidal stems, like those of *Echinocactus*, *Melocactus*, *Mammillaria*, &c., which of course furnish the ultimate term

far up mountain slopes, some Mexican forms almost reaching the snow-line. The peculiar vegetative character, which constitutes the most striking peculiarity of the order, leads to the employment of species of *Cereus* and *Opuntia*, &c., in the formation of hedges of great strength and impenetrability, especially in Mexico and the West Indies. Hence the *Opuntia* has been introduced into the Mediterranean countries, where, in conjunction with the *Agave* and the native Fan Palm (*Chamærops*), it frequently gives a curiously American character to the landscape. The stems of similar species are used for posts and spars, as also for fuel, especially in districts of Peru and Chili, where timber is scarce; and the wood of old *Opuntia* stems has been used by cabinetmakers.

The cultivation of the cactus family has long been increasingly popular, not so much on account of the frequent beauty or rarity of their flowers as the bizarre and often grotesque vegetative forms, of which the effect is heightened by the spines, which often densely clothe the whole plant, especially in the spheroidal forms, where they may also be replaced or supplemented by a thick growth of woolly or silky hairs.

Some species are easily grown, but their extensive cultivation requires a separate cactus-house, in which the natural conditions of extreme drought during great portion of the year can be imitated. Most of them are easily propagated by branches, which are usually allowed to dry a little before being planted. Those like *Melocactus*, which does not readily produce branches, can be made to do so by cutting or burning out the solitary apical bud.

The flowers are often of great size and beauty, and are remarkable for their floral envelopes, of which the constituent leaves run in spirals instead of whorls, and are thus insensibly graduated from small green foliage leaves with axillant spiny buds into large and splendid petals. The stamens are also indefinite, the style single, and the stigma three-lobed. The flowers are usually very short-lived; in some night-flowering species, such as the well-known *Cereus grandiflorus*, common in hot-houses, the flower only opens after dark, and perishes before morning.

The fruit is sometimes termed a berry, but not with justice; since the presence of leaves and spine-tufts over its whole outer surface clearly shows we have to do, as in the rose, with a succulent axis, into which the ovary is depressed. The fruit of many species, especially of *Opuntia*, is edible and wholesome (see PRICKLY PEAR), and the same genus is further of importance as the food-plant of the cochineal insect. See COCHINEAL.

Cactus, a son of Vulcan, was a huge giant who lived in a cave on Mount Aventine. Having stolen and dragged into his cave some of the cattle which Hercules had carried away from Geryon in Spain, he was killed by that hero, who discovered his place of hiding by the lowing of the oxen within, in response to the lowing of the remainder of the flock as they were passing the entrance of the cave.

Cadamba, or KUDUMBA, the wood of several species of *Nauclea*, an Indian genus of *Cinchonaceæ*. *N. (Uncaria) Gambir* is the source of gambier. See CATECHU.

Cadastral Maps are maps on a large and complete scale. Properly a cadastral survey is made by the government for fiscal purposes; the word being derived through the French from Ital. *catastro*, which is from the low Lat. *capitastrum*, 'a register for a poll-tax' (Lat. *caput*, 'the head'). See ORDNANCE SURVEY.



Cacti :

a, *Cereus giganteus*; b, *Opuntia coccinellifera*; c, *Mammillaria pectinata*; d, *Phyllocactus anguliger*.

of the series. This reduction of the vegetative system, as might be expected, is usually accompanied by a reduction of size. Some grow rapidly on old lavas, and disintegrate them by their penetrating roots, so preparing a soil for other plants; the prickly pear is often planted in Sicily by the mere insertion of a joint of it in a fissure of the lava. Many species are Epiphytes (q.v.) in American forests (e.g. *Rhipsalis*); others range

Caddis-fly (*Phryganea*, &c.), a name common to the members of a very distinct family of Neuropterous insects. The family (*Phryganeidae*) is co-extensive with a special division of the order known as Trichoptera, and regarded by some as a fore-shadowing of Lepidoptera. The adult insects are somewhat moth-like, and the larvæ often not unlike caterpillars. The two pairs of wings are different; both bear hairs or scales, but the posterior pair are usually broader and can be folded. The mouth organs are not adapted for mastication, the mandibles are degenerate and membranous, and the first pair of maxillæ are fused to the second. Besides these more distinctive features, the caddis-flies have the following general characters: the head is small, the antennæ long and bristle-like, the compound eyes hemispherical, the eye-spots three in number, the wings with very few transverse veins or none, the feet with attaching processes. The adults are very active, especially in the evening and at night.

The eggs are laid in gelatinous masses on plants or stones near or in the water. Into this the larvæ speedily pass, and surround themselves with a sheath usually composed of minute fragments of wood, grass, moss, leaves, stone, shell, and the like, bound together by the silken secretion of a spinning gland which opens on the second pair of maxillæ. Within these tubes the larvæ are both masked and protected. Sometimes they are fixed, sometimes carried about. The tubes which are open at both ends vary greatly, but seem to be constant for the species. Two British species (*Setodes*) have a primitive type of tube, which is silken and nothing more. Sometimes a few strips of grass stem are simply glued on, but in most cases the sheath is complex, definite, and composed of a multitude of little fragments. In *Helicopsyche* the sheath is spirally twisted like a minute snail-shell. The larvæ feed principally on aquatic plants, and are in turn much eaten by fishes and other animals. The abdomen of the larva discharges aquatic respiration, and bears external respiratory filaments. These are absent in *Enoicycla pusilla*, which lives out of the water amongst moss at the roots of trees. After a while the larva

water into aerial life. Some of the smaller species rise to the surface in their cases, and take wing thence, as from little boats.

The caddis-flies form the largest family of Neuroptera; some 800 species are known; Mr M'Lachlan in his monograph enumerates 474 European forms, of which about 200 occur in Britain. Besides the typical genus *Phryganea*, with the very common species *Phryganea striata*, *Limnophilus*, *Brachycentrus*, *Apatania*, *Molanna*, *Setodes*, &c. are represented by British species. The larvæ are very common in ponds and streams in spring, are well known as caddis-worms to anglers, and form deadly bait.

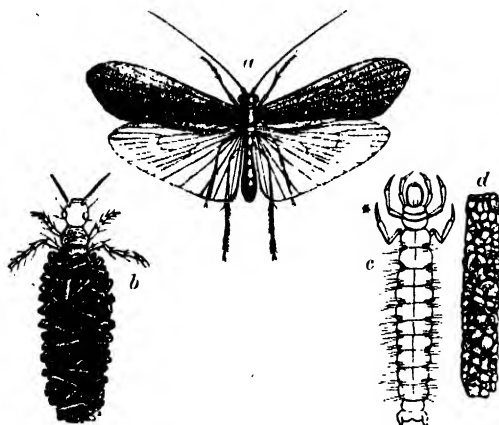
Cade, JACK, leader of the insurrection of 1450, was by birth an Irishman. He had murdered a woman in Sussex, had fled to France, and served awhile against England, and then had settled in Kent as a physician, and married a squire's daughter. Assuming the name of Mortimer, and the title of Captain of Kent, he marched on London with upwards of 15,000 followers, and encamped at Blackheath, whence he kept up a correspondence with the citizens, many of whom were favourable to his enterprise. The court sent to inquire why the good men of Kent had left their homes; and Cade, in two formal complaints, called on Henry VI. for redress of grievances, and change of counsellors. The answer was an army, before which Cade retreated to Sevenoaks; there he defeated a detachment, and killed its two leaders. On 2d July he entered London, where for two days he maintained strict order, though he forced the Lord Mayor to pass judgment on Lord Say, one of the king's detested favourites, whose head Cade's men straightway cut off in Cheapside. On the third day some houses were plundered; and that night the citizens held London Bridge against the insurgents. A promise of pardon now sowed dissension among them; they dispersed, and a price was set upon Cade's head. He attempted to reach the coast, but was followed by one Alexander Iden, a squire of Kent, who on 12th July fought and killed him in a garden, near Heathfield in Sussex.

Cadell, FRANCIS, born at Cockenzie, near Edinburgh, in 1822, became an East India midshipman, and is best known as the explorer of the Murray River with a view to its navigation (1850-59). He was murdered by a mutinous crew when commanding a ship sailing from Amboyne in 1879.

Cadell, ROBERT (1788-1849), partner in the publishing-house of Constable & Co., Edinburgh, is described by Lockhart 'as one of the most acute men of business in creation.' After Constable's failure, Cadell began business again, and realised a handsome fortune by his various editions of Scott's works.

Cadelle (*Trogosita mauritanica*), a coleopterous insect sometimes found in granaries in Britain, but seemingly imported from more southerly countries, where, as in France, its larvæ often commit great ravages among stored corn and meal. They also live on bread, almonds, and even rotten wood. When full grown, they are about three-quarters of an inch long, flattened, fleshy, rough with scattered hairs, whitish, tapering towards the head; which is black, horny, and furnished with two curved jaws. The perfect insect is a glossy beetle of a deep chestnut colour, marked with dotted lines. The adults are found in rotten wood, under bark, and in stores of edible materials. The family to which *Trogosita* belongs (*Nitidulidae*) is a very large one, and the members (800 species) are widely distributed.

Cademosto, ALOYS DA, explorer, born in Venice about 1432, traded along the Mediter-



Caddis-fly:

a, Perfect insect (*Phryganea striata*); b, larva and case; c, larva of *Limnophilus subpunctulatus* removed from case; d, case of same.

moors its tube, and spins silken blinds across the ends. The pupa metamorphosis then begins. At an advanced stage, the pupa burst their prison, and swim or creep about for a while, before undergoing the final change which lifts them from the

ranean and Atlantic coasts, and in 1455, for the Infante Henry, undertook a voyage to the Canaries and as far as the mouth of the Gambia. In 1456 he made a second voyage to Senegambia, and on the death of Prince Henry returned to Venice, where he died about 1480. His account of his discoveries was published at Vicenza in 1507.

Cadenabbia, a health resort, beautifully situated among orange and citron groves, on the west shore of Lake Como. Its famous Villa Carlotta contains works by Canova and Thorwaldsen.

Cadence, in Music, is the close of a phrase; the term being generally applied to the final two chords of the phrase. There are three principal species—viz. the perfect, the imperfect, and the interrupted cadence. The perfect, also called the whole or final cadence, is generally used at the end of a composition or of an important section. Its final chord, either major or minor, must be on the tonic (in the solfa notation, *doh*)—i.e. it must have the key-note for its bass. This is preceded by a major chord on the dominant or fifth note of the scale (*soh*), as for example :



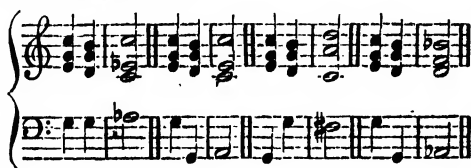
Another form consists of the progression from the chord of the subdominant (*fah*) to that of the tonic, as :



These two forms were formerly distinguished as the authentic and the plagal. The latter differs only as to its place in the scale from the next species, the imperfect or half cadence, which is like a colon or semicolon, for it is used to mark the termination, not of a composition or movement, but of an idea or section. Its harmony is often that of the perfect cadence reversed, as it must end on the dominant chord, which is most frequently preceded by the tonic chord, though sometimes by other chords, such as that of the subdominant (*fah*).



In the interrupted or false cadence the progression of chords is such as to lead to the expectation of a perfect cadence; but instead of the tonic chord, another harmony is unexpectedly introduced, often with strange and beautiful effect. This interruption may be made in so many ways that Reicha, in his *Traité de Haute Composition Musicale*, gives 120 varieties. The following are some of those most generally used :



In modern music, a desire for continuity and freedom from commonplace, has led to the avoidance of full cadences before the conclusion of a piece of music, and to the variation and disguise of them when they do occur. An extreme instance of this may be cited in Wagner's *Tristan und Isolde*, in the whole of which opera there is only one full close—at the end of act i.

Cadency, MARK OF, in Heraldry, an addition to, or variation from, the original coat-armorial of a family, adopted for the purpose of distinguishing a cadet from the head of the house. The term is occasionally restricted to those small figures—the label (1), crescent (2), mullet (3), martlet (4), annulet (5), fleur-de-lis (6), &c.—first introduced



into English heraldry in the reign of Henry VII., used to distinguish the eldest, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, &c. sons respectively, and often adopted as hereditary marks of particular junior branches of a family. Other modes of differencing cadets have been and still are used, especially in Scotland, where they form a separate branch of the study of heraldry, which is the subject of a treatise by the Scottish herald, Nisbet. See HERALDRY.

Cadenza, an ornamental flourish introduced by a soloist towards the close of a piece of music or a section of one. It is either written by the composer himself, or left to the executant; and in its more extended development, affords the latter an opportunity of displaying his powers. Remarkable instances of improvised cadenzas by both vocal and instrumental performers are on record, but they are now generally written out in full. The best cadenzas are constructed from themes already heard in the course of the work.

Cader Idris ('Chair of Idris,' a reputed giant), a picturesque mountain in Merionethshire, Wales, 5 miles SW. of Dolgelly. It consists of an immense ridge of broken precipices, 10 miles long, and 1 to 3 miles broad; the highest peak reaching an elevation of 2914 feet. It is composed of basalt, porphyry, and other trap rocks, with beds of slag and pumice. The view from the summit, which is very extensive, includes the Wrekin in Shropshire, and St George's Channel almost to the Irish coast.

Cadet, MILITARY. Cadet (Fr., through some low Lat. diminutive form. from Lat. *caput*, 'head') is a term applied in a general sense to the younger son of a noble house as distinguished from the elder; and in France, any officer junior to another is a cadet in respect to him. In England, however, the term is generally applied to a youth studying for the army at one of the military colleges, or for the navy on board the *Britannia* training-ship; and in the United States, pupils at the West Point Military Academy and at the Naval Academy at Annapolis are termed cadets.

Of British military cadets, those destined for the Royal Artillery or Royal Engineers study at the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, and those for other branches of the service at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst. Among those who join the latter establishment, some are admitted on passing a qualifying examination, and educated gratuitously. These are sons of officers who have fallen in action, and left their families badly off. They are called 'Queen's Cadets,' or, if the father belonged to the Indian army, 'Indian Cadets.'

A somewhat different system existed prior to 1861 for the supply of officers to the East India Company's army. After having been educated at

Addiscombe School, near Croydon, for two years, a youth was appointed to a cadetship in the Company's service, with pay, and, on a vacancy occurring, received a commission as an officer. After the transference of the Company's powers to the crown, this system ceased, and officers for the native Indian regiments are now supplied by volunteers from the European regiments. When the East India Company possessed political and military authority in India, there were about 5000 English officers in their pay. See ARMY, ARTILLERY (for the Royal Military Academy), and MILITARY SCHOOLS.

Cadet, NAVAL, is the lowest grade of officer of the military branch of the royal navy. The entry is by limited competition, except a few cadetships which are given annually to the colonies and to the sons of officers of the services. Nomination is made by members of the Board of Admiralty. Each flag-officer on hoisting his flag, and captain on first appointment to command a ship, is allowed one nomination. The age for entry is 13 to 14½ years. Candidates are examined twice a year in London. If successful, they are sent for two years to the *Britannia* training-ship at Dartmouth, where they study mathematics, languages; navigation, seamanship, &c. The cost of this tuition to the cadet's parent or guardian is £70 a year. At the conclusion of the course cadets are placed on the *Navy List* according to their position in the final examination, those who take first-class certificates becoming midshipmen at once. Cadets receive further instruction on board sea-going ships, and also keep watch, do duty aloft, in boats, &c. They mess in the gun-room, and are paid a shilling a day.

Cadet's Fuming Liquor. See CACODYLE.

Cadi, an Arabic word signifying a judge or person learned in the law, the title of an inferior judge among the Mohammedan nations. Like the Mollah (q.v.), or superior judge, he must be chosen from the higher ranks of the priesthood, as all law is founded upon the Koran.

Cadiz, an important commercial city of Spain, capital of the province of the same name, which forms a part of the great division of Andalusia, is situated at the extremity of a narrow tongue of land projecting 5 miles NW. from the Isle of Leon, 95 miles SSW. of Seville by rail, 7 miles SW. of Xeres (31 by rail). A small channel, with a draw-bridge and a railway bridge, separates the island from the mainland; at its northern outlet stands the arsenal of La Carraca, with large docks, 4 miles ESE. of the city. On the W. and S. the Atlantic Ocean washes the city, and on the N. and NE. the Bay of Cadiz, a deep inlet of the Atlantic, forming an outer and an inner bay. The town, which is walled and defended from the sea both by a series of forts and by low shelving rocks, is about 2 miles in circuit, and presents a remarkably bright appearance, with its shining granite ramparts, and its whitewashed houses crowned with terraces and overhanging turrets. Many of these flat roofs are also used as cisterns, the town being poorly supplied with water, which is brought from Santa Maria, 6 miles to the N. by sea, and 19 by rail. The streets are well paved and lighted, regular, but narrow, and there are some pleasant public walks, the most frequented of which is the Alameda, by the seaside. Cadiz has few public buildings of note: its two cathedrals are indifferent specimens of ecclesiastical architecture, but possess some excellent pictures by Murillo; while the custom-house, naval, and other schools, observatory, signal-tower, alms-houses, hospitals, and bull-ring are distinguished rather for excellent management than for architectural beauty. It reached its highest

prosperity after the discovery of America, when it became the *dépôt* of all the commerce with the New World; declined greatly as a commercial city after the emancipation of the Spanish colonies in South America; but again revived, owing partly to the extension of the Spanish railway system, and partly to the establishment of new lines of steamers. The number of ships annually entering the port is about 3800, with a tonnage of over 1,200,000; of these about a third, with more than half the tonnage, are foreign. The exports consist of salt, cork, lead, wine, tunny-fish, olive-oil, and fruits. The manufactures are glass, woollen cloth, leather, soap, hats, gloves, fans, &c. Pop. (1800) 71,521; (1879) 65,028; (1885) 58,042.

Cadiz is one of the most ancient towns in Europe, having been built by the Phœnicians, under the name of Gaddir ('fortress'), about 1100 B.C. It afterwards passed into the hands of the Carthaginians, from whom it was captured by the Romans, who named it Gades, and under them it soon became a city of vast wealth and importance. Occupied afterwards by the Goths and Moors, it was taken by the Spaniards in 1262. In 1587 Drake destroyed the Spanish fleet in the bay; nine years later, Cadiz was pillaged and burned by Essex; and in 1625 and 1702 it was unsuccessfully attacked by the English. From 1808 the headquarters of the Spanish patriots, Cadiz was blockaded by the French from February 1810 until August 25, 1812, when the victories of Wellington forced them to raise the siege. It was captured in 1823 for Ferdinand VII. by the French, who held it till 1828; and it was the birthplace of the Spanish revolution of 1868, as well as the scene in 1873 of an Intransigente rising.

Cadmia is the term applied to the crust formed in zinc furnaces, and which contains from 10 to 20 per cent. of cadmium.

Cadmium (sym. Cd, atomic weight 112) is a metal which occurs in zinc ores. In the preparation of zinc, when heat is applied, the cadmium, being more volatile than that metal, rises in vapour, and distils over with the first portions of the metal (see ZINC). Cadmium is a white metal, somewhat resembling tin, than which it is rather denser, its specific gravity being 8.6. It is very soft, and is malleable and ductile, crackling like tin when a rod of it is bent. It fuses at 442° (227.8° C.), and volatilises a little below the boiling-point of mercury. It is rarely prepared pure, and is not employed in the arts as a metal, though several of its salts have been serviceable in medicine, and the iodide and bromide have been useful in photography. There are alloys of cadmium with various other metals. The sulphide of cadmium, CdS, occurs naturally as the mineral *Greenockite*, and when prepared artificially, is of a bright yellow colour. It is known as Cadmium Yellow, and is of great value to the artist. A great variety of tints are produced by mixing it with white-lead. Much of what is sold as Naples Yellow is thus prepared, but the genuine Naples Yellow, prepared by heating antimonie anhydride with plumbic oxide, has a greenish tint. See YELLOW.

Cadmus, in Greek Mythology, the son of Agenor and Telephassa, and brother of Europa. When the latter was carried off by Zeus, he was sent by Agenor in quest of her, with injunctions not to return without her. The search was vain, and the oracle at Delphi told Cadmus to relinquish it, but to follow a cow of a certain kind which he should meet, and build a city where it should lie down. He found the cow in Phœcis, followed her to Boœtia, and built there the city of Thebes. Intending to sacrifice the cow to Athena,

he sent some men to the well of Ares hard by for water, but they were killed by the dragon, a son of Ares, who guarded it. Cadmus then slew the dragon, and sowed the monster's teeth in the ground. From these at once sprung up armed men who set upon and slew each other until none were left but five, who became the progenitors of the Theban families. To Cadmus is ascribed the introduction into Greece of an alphabet of 16 letters derived from Egypt or Phœnicia, and the discovery of brass, or introduction of its use. Some have attempted to explain the name itself as Phœnician.

Cadoudal, GEORGES, a distinguished leader of the Chouans (q.v.), was born near Auray, in Lower Brittany, where his father was a miller, in 1771. He was among the first to take up arms against the Republic, and soon acquired great influence over the peasants. Captured in 1794, he escaped, became leader of the insurgents in Lower Brittany, and organised an army in which no noble was permitted to command, and which Hoche, with all his generalship, was unable to subdue or disperse. After an apparent submission in 1796, he renewed the revolt in Brittany in 1799, but was compelled to submit, and to dismiss his forces, in February 1800. Bonaparte recognised his energy and force of character, and endeavoured to secure his services; but Cadoudal refused his offers, and passed over to England, where the Comte d'Artois appointed him a lieutenant-general, and where, in 1802, he conspired with Pichegru for the overthrow of the First Consul. With this design he went to Paris, but was arrested, condemned, and guillotined, June 25, 1804. He was a man of stern honesty and indomitable resolution. 'His mind was cast in the true mould; in my hands he would have done great things,' said Napoleon of him. After the Restoration, his family was ennobled.

Caduceus, the winged staff of Hermes (Mercury), which gave the god power to fly. Originally a simple olive branch, its stems were afterwards formed into snakes, and several poetical tales devised by the mythologists to explain this, as that Hermes having found two snakes fighting, divided them with his rod, and thus they came to be used as an emblem of peace. It was the staff or mace carried by heralds and ambassadors in time of war. It was not used by the Romans, with whom the corresponding symbols were the *verberga* and *scapinæ* carried by the *Fetiales*. Many magical virtues were ascribed to the caduceus; in Homer,



Caduceus.

Hermes touches with it the souls of the dead, and so hurls them to sleep before carrying them to the under-world. On ancient medals it is often given to Ares (Mars), who holds it in the left hand, a spear being in his right, to show how peace and war alternate. It is also seen in the hands of Dionysus, Hercules, Demeter, and Aphrodite. Amongst the moderns it is used as an emblem of commerce, over which Mercury was the presiding divinity.

Cæcilia (Lat. *cæcus*, 'blind'), a genus of serpent-like amphibians, type of a small order of *Gymnophiona*, in which the body is worm-like, without tail or limbs, with transversely furrowed skin, and usually with small hidden scales. Their striking serpent-like appearance, suggestive too of the lizard slow-worm (*Anguis*), is simply an adaptation to similar semi-subterranean habits. The mouth is small, on the under side of the snout; there is an opening with a curious sensory organ beside each

nostril; the eyes are not absent nor anatomically incomplete, but small and hidden under the skin; the tympanum and tympanic cavity are absent. Teeth are borne by jaws and gums; the tongue is fixed. The vertebral bodies are biconcave; the skull has two condyles; rudimentary ribs are borne by all the vertebrae except the first and last. Huxley notes that certain peculiarities in the skull are foreshadowed by the extinct giant amphibians or Labyrinthodonts. The cloaca is at the end of the tailless body. Rudimentary limb buds have been observed beside the cloaca. As in snakes, the right lung is much better developed than the left. That they are really amphibians is proved not merely by their anatomy, but by the gills borne by the young forms. In *Ichthyophis* (*Epiërium*) there are three beautiful plumose gills on each side; in *Typhlonectis*, a single pair, which used to be described as sacs, but are really leaf-like. They inhabit warm countries and damp places, burrow like earthworms, and eat worms and insects. About thirty species are known, and are very widely distributed. *Cæcilia* itself is a South American genus, about 20 inches in length, and the thickness of a large



Cæcilia compressicauda.

worm; *Epiërium* is found in Ceylon, Mexico, and Brazil; and *Siphonops* (over two feet in length) buries deeply in the soft earth of Brazil and elsewhere. The genera, of which 11 altogether are distinguished, are peculiarly divided; thus 5 species of *Dermophis* are American, and one is African. These animals should hardly be called 'blindworms.' It must be clearly recognised that the *Gymnophiona* (*Cæcilia*, &c.) are amphibians, the blindworms or slow-worms (*Anguis*) and the *Amphisbænicæ* are lizards, and that all have a superficial adaptive resemblance to snakes. See Claus, *Text-book of Zoology*, vol. ii.; Huxley, *Anatomy of Vertebrate Animals*; Leydig, *Ueber die Schleichenurche* (1867); Wiedersheim, *Anatomie der Gymnophionen* (1879); Sarasin, *Forschungen auf Ceylon* (1887).

Cæcum (Lat. *cæcus*, 'blind'), a general term for any blind sac arising from the gut. Such outgrowths are common in many different classes of animals. The gut being a tube lined by cells in very favourable nutritive conditions, and being at the same time limited in its growth at both ends, it is easy to understand why it should develop outgrowths, or become twisted upon itself in the way it does. Insects and starfishes afford good illustrations of cæca attached to the gut of invertebrate animals. Among backboneed animals cæca occur on all the three divisions of the gut. (a) The crop of birds is a more or less marked cæcum or outgrowth of the fore-gut. The stomach itself is frequently, as in many fishes, of the nature of a cæcal sac from the general course of the fore-gut. The complex stomach of ruminants, &c. illustrates the same sort of formation. (b) The digestive cæca at the beginning of the small intestine in many fishes are good examples of outgrowths from the mid-gut. (c) At the union of small and large intestine (hind-gut), cæca are often given off in reptiles, birds, and mammals. Those of birds are usually two in number, and vary greatly from mere papillæ to long tubes. The cæcum of mammals is usually single. It varies greatly with the diet, being short for instance in carnivora, absent altogether in bears and weasels, but long in herbivorous animals. As a hollow sac continuous with the rest of the intestine, it delays the passage of the food, which is thus subjected to longer

digestion and absorption. In man the cæcum terminates in a small appendage which has not grown in proportion with the rest, and is well known as the appendix vermiformis. Besides the above structures to which the term is often applied (especially to those of the hind-gut), it may be noted that the lungs are outgrowths from the fore-gut, the liver a paired outgrowth from the mid-gut, the allantois an outgrowth from the hind-gut. *In their primitive embryonic stages, and in their first appearance—e.g. as air-bladder of fish, hepatic sac of lancelet, bladder of frog—these may be fairly described as cæca. For other information, and for the human cæcum, see the articles **INTESTINE**, **DIGESTION**.

Cædmon was the first English writer of note who used his own Anglo-Saxon language, and the first religious poet of the Teutonic race. All that we know of him is from Bede, who devotes to him a chapter of his *History* (book iv. 24). He died about 680 A.D. In Bede's account, written not more than sixty years after his death, we are told that Cædmon, until he was of mature age, had never learned any poem, and that sometimes when at festivals his turn came to take the harp and sing, he would rise from the feast and go home. On one such occasion, having gone out to the stables of the beasts, which it fell to him that night to guard, and sleeping at his watch, he had a vision, in which one stood by him and said, 'Cædmon, sing me some song!' 'I cannot sing,' he said, 'for this cause I have come out hither from the feast.' 'But you shall sing to me!' 'What,' asked Cædmon, 'ought I to sing?' 'Sing the beginning of created things.' And straightway a poetic inspiration seized him, and he began to pour forth verses in praise of God, of which Bede adds, 'this is the sense, though not the order: "Now ought we to praise the author of the Heavenly Kingdom, the Creator's might and counsel, the works of the Father of Glory; how through the Eternal God he became the author of all wondrous things; Almighty Guardian, who for men's sons created first heaven for their roof, and then the earth."'" When he awoke from his dream, the words remained fast-rooted in his memory, and were recited by him to others with new confidence. He was taken before Hilda, abbess of Streaneshaleh (now Whitby), when she and the learned men who were with her in the monastery immediately declared that he had received the gift of song from Heaven. He was now educated, became a monk, and spent the rest of his life in composing poems on the Bible histories and on miscellaneous religious subjects, a long list of which is given by Bede, who says that in all he wrote 'his care was to draw men away from the love of evil deeds, and excite them to the love of well-doing; and that 'none of those who tried after him to make religious poems could vie with Cædmon, for he did not learn the poetic art from men, but from God.'

Of the 'Paraphrase of Cædmon' there is extant but a single MS. of the 10th century (Cod. Jun. xi.) in the Bodleian, consisting of 229 folio pages, 212 of which contain the account of the creation and the fall of the angels and of man, and the story of Genesis down to the offering of Isaac, together with a description of the Exodus of Israel, and part of the book of Daniel, ending with Belshazzar's feast; the remaining pages comprise a poem of Christ and Satan—a description of the 'Harrowing of Hell.' It is certain that this poetry, at least in its present form, is due to various authors, and probably to different times. Professor Sievers endeavoured to prove, from the identity of words and idioms, that one passage—that describing the temptation and fall of man—was a translation of an Old Saxon poem by the author of the *Heland*; but it is perhaps more probable that both

poems are versions of a Northumbrian original. The extant MS. was presented by Archbishop Ussher to Francis Dujon the younger, better known as Franciscus Junius, by whom it was printed for the first time at Amsterdam in 1655, twelve years before the first edition of *Paradise Lost*, to some parts of which it bears a striking resemblance. Satan's Speech in Hell is characterised by a simple yet solemn greatness of imagination, which may possibly have influenced in some degree the more magnificent genius of Milton. The beginning of this MS. differs considerably from the Anglo-Saxon verses given by Alfred in his translation of Bede as the opening of Cædmon's poem, as well as from the Northumbrian version appended to an 8th-century MS. of Bede in the university of Cambridge. Dr George Hickes was the first to doubt the identification of the extant paraphrase with the work of Bede's poet; the elder Disraeli in his *Amenities of Literature* supposes the account of Cædmon's inspiration to be a monkish fiction devised for gain; and the learned Palgrave notes with idleness (*Archæologia*, xxiv. 342; Lond. 1832) that as the Jews call Genesis (from its first two words) *Bereshith*, and the Chaldee Targum of Onkelos names it *Be-Kadmon* ('in the beginning'), the latter word may be the origin of the name given to the Anglo-Saxon versifier of Genesis. The fine poem known as 'The Dream of the Holy Rood,' part of which in Northumbrian is inscribed in runic letters on the Ruthwell cross, while the remainder was discovered in a MS. at Verecelli, has also been ascribed with much plausibility to Cædmon. His name is inscribed upon the topmost stone, but this may mean nothing if Cædmon was, as Mr Bradley supposes, merely an Anglicised form of a common British name, *Catumanus* (in modern Welsh, *Cadfan*). Very little was done for the study of Cædmon from Hickes's death in 1715 down to the year 1830, when the attention of English scholars was again directed to it by the Danish scholar, Grmott. Editions of the *Paraphrase* of Cædmon have been published by Benjamin Thorpe, with Eng. trans. (Lond. 1832); K. W. Bonterwek (Elberfeld and Gütersloh, 1851 and 1854); C. W. M. Grein, in his *Bibliothek der angelsächsischen Poesie* (Gött. 1857-64); and the part relating to Exodus and Daniel occupies vol. ii. of Harrison and Sharp's *Library of Anglo-Saxon Poetry* (Boston, 1883; 2d ed. 1885). See Bernhard ten Brink's *History of English Literature* (vol. i. 1877); Henry Morley's *English Writers* (vol. ii. 1888); and Henry Bradley's article in vol. viii. of the *Dictionary of National Biography* (1886).

Caen, the chief town in the French department of Calvados, and the former capital of Lower Normandy, is situated on the left bank of the navigable Orne, here joined by the Odon, 9 miles from its mouth, 149 W. by N. of Paris, and 83 ESE. of Cherbourg. It has wide clean streets, a fine central square, with a statue of Louis XIV., charming promenades, and many noble specimens of mediæval architecture. Among its fifteen churches are those of St Étienne and La Sainte Trinité, both Romanesque in style, founded in 1066 by William the Conqueror and his queen Matilda, and containing their graves, which the Huguenots violated in 1562; St Pierre (1308-1521), with an exquisite spire 242 feet high; St Nicholas, now desecrated; and St Jean. The castle, founded by the Conqueror, and finished by Henry I. of England, was dismantled in 1793, and now serves as a barrack. The university (1809) is successor to one founded by our Henry VI. in 1436; and in the Hôtel de Ville is a library of 80,000 volumes, and a fine collection of paintings (its gem Perugino's 'Marriage of the Virgin'). The chief manufacture is lace. Trade is

facilitated by a maritime canal connecting the port with the sea, and also by railways connecting it with Paris, Ronen, Cherbourg, Tours, Le Mans, &c. Nothing is known of Caen before the 9th century. It was a place of importance in 912, when it came into the possession of the Normans, under whom it increased rapidly. William the Conqueror and his queen made it their residence, and greatly improved it. In 1346, and again in 1417, it was taken by the English, who held it till 1450. In 1793 several of the Girondist chiefs, proscribed by the Jacobins, went to Caen, and organised an unsuccessful revolt against the 'Mountain' (q.v.). Malherbe, Marot, Huet, and Auber were natives (a marble statue of the last was unveiled in 1883); Charlotte Corday lived here; and Beau Brummell died in the lunatic asylum. Pop. (1872) 39,415; (1886) 42,041. See Lavalley, *Caen, son Histoire et ses Monuments* (1877).

CAEN STONE. The immediate neighbourhood of the town of Caen has been celebrated for its stone-quarries from a very early period. The excellence of the stone, which is an oolite, and the facility of transport by sea, led to Caen stone being very extensively used in England. Winchester and Canterbury cathedrals, Henry VII.'s Chapel at Westminster, and many country churches, are built of Caen stone, which is still frequently used in England. The quarries are subterraneous, and the stone is brought up through vertical shafts.

Caere. See CERVETRI.

Caerlaverock, a splendid ruined castle near the mouth of the Nith, 7 miles SSE. of Dumfries. For more than four centuries the seat of the Maxwells, earls of Nithsdale (1620-1716), and still the property of their representative, Lord Herries, it was captured by Edward I. in 1300. Robert Paterson, Scott's 'Old Mortality,' was buried in the churchyard in 1801. See Sir W. Fraser's *Book of Caerlaverock* (2 vols. 1873).

Caerleon ('castle of the legion'), a small but ancient town in Monmouthshire, on the right bank of the Usk, 2½ miles NE. of Newport. The *Isca Silurum* of the Romans, it was very early the seat of an ancient see—the only one, it seems, in all Wales—which was transferred to St David's in the 6th century. An abbey of Cistercian monks existed here before the Reformation. Many Roman relics have been found, as baths, pavement, altars, tiles, coins, inscriptions, and enamels; and the smaller of these are deposited in a museum. There are also remains of an amphitheatre, measuring 222 by 192 feet, and known as King Arthur's Round Table. Geoffrey of Monmouth it was who connected King Arthur with Caerleon; and to that connection, through Lord Tennyson, Caerleon owes its chief fame. Pop. 1099. See J. E. Lee's *Isca Silurum* (Lond. 1845).

Caermarthen, Caernarvon. See CARMARTHEN, CARNARVON.

Cesalpinia, a large genus of leguminous trees, the type of the essentially tropical sub-order Cesalpinieae (see LEGUMINOSÆ). The sub-order contains about 1500 species, largely trees, among which many are notable for their purgative properties, as Senna; some produce edible fruits, as the Tamarind, the Carob, and the West Indian Locust tree; some yield resinous and balsamic products, as Copaiba, Aloys-wood, &c.; some produce important dye-woods, as Logwood, Brazil-wood, Camwood, &c.; and some are trees of great size, and very valuable for their timber. The genus contains a number of important trees, notably *C. echinata* (brazilensis), which yields the Brazil-wood, Pernambuco Wood; and *C. sappan*, the Sappan-wood of commerce; also *C. coriaria*, which supplies the astringent pods called Dividivi, used in tanning.

The various species named are dealt with in separate articles.

Cesalpinus, the Latinised form of the name of Andrea Cesalpino, an eminent botanist and physiologist, born at Arezzo, in Tuscany, in 1519. He made his studies at Pisa, afterwards lectured there, and had charge of the botanical museum. He died early in 1603 at Rome. His fame depends on his work, *De Plantis Libri XVI.* (Florence, 1583), which commenced a new epoch in systematic botanical science, and supplied many hints to the great Linnæus. See Sachs, *Geschichte der Botanik*.

Cæsar, the title of the Roman emperors and of the heirs to the throne, was originally the name of a patrician family of the *Julii gens*, one of the oldest in the Roman state, claiming to be descended from Iulus, the son of Æneas. Octavian bore the name as the adopted son of the great Julius Cæsar, and handed it down to his own adopted son, Tiberius; after whom it was borne by Caligula, Claudius, and Nero. Although the Cæsarian family proper became extinct with Nero, the title of Cæsar was part of the style of the succeeding emperors, usually between Imperator and the personal name, as 'Imperator Cæsar Vespasianus Augustus.' When the emperor Hadrian adopted Ælius Verus (136), the latter was permitted to take the title of Cæsar; and from this time in the western, and afterwards also in the eastern, empire it was borne by the heir-apparent to the throne, while Augustus continued to be the exclusive name of the reigning emperor. It is hardly necessary to mention that the name reappears in the *Czar* (or *Tsar*) of Russia, in the *Kaiser* of the 'Holy Roman Empire' and the modern empire of Germany, and in the *Kaisar-i-Hind* or empress of Hindustan.

Cæsar, CAIUS JULIUS, son of a Roman prætor of the same name, was born 12th July 100 B.C., according to Mommsen in 102 B.C. His circumstances and connections made him a resolute adherent of the democratic party at Rome. His aunt Julia was wife of Caius Marius; and in 83 B.C. Julius himself was married to Cornelia, daughter of Lucius Cinna, one of the principal enemies of Sulla. The anger of the dictator at this marriage cost Cæsar his rank, property, and almost his life itself. Feeling that he would be safer abroad for a time, he went to Asia, 81 B.C.; but on learning the death of Sulla (78 B.C.), he hurried back to Rome, where he found the popular party in a state of great ferment, and anxious to regain what it had lost under the vigorous despotism of the aristocratic dictator. Cæsar, however, took no part in the attempts of Lepidus to overthrow the oligarchy; but he showed his political leanings by prosecuting (77 B.C.) Cneus Dolabella—a great partisan of Sulla—for extortion in his province of Macedonia. To improve his eloquence, he went to Rhodes to study under the rhetor Apollonius Molo.

In 74 B.C. he returned to Rome, where he had been elected pontifex, and now for the first time threw himself earnestly into public life. He soon became the most active leader of the democratic party, and had a large share in effecting the agreement by which Pompey and Crassus accepted the popular policy. The result was the overthrow of the Sullan constitution in 70 B.C., and the restoration of popular institutions such as the tribunate. In 68 B.C. Cæsar obtained a questorship in Spain. On his return to Rome



(87 B.C.), he married Pompeia, a relative of Pompey, with whom he was daily becoming more intimate. In 65 B.C. he held the curule ædileship, and lavished vast sums of money on games and public buildings, by which he increased his already great popularity. For the next few years Cæsar is found steadily active on the popular side. In 63 B.C. he was elected pontifex maximus, and shortly after, prætor. During the same year occurred the famous debate on the Catiline conspiracy, in which the aristocratic party vainly endeavoured to persuade the consul, Cicero, to include Cæsar in the list of conspirators. It is believed by some that he was at least indirectly concerned in the conspiracy. In 62 B.C. Pompey returned from the East, and disbanded his army. Next year Cæsar obtained the province of Hispania Ulterior. His government of that province was useful to him as giving him military experience and supplying the means wherewith to meet his enormous debts. On his return he was elected consul, along with Calpurnius Bibulus.

With rare tact and sagacity Cæsar reconciled the two most powerful men in Rome, who were then at variance, Pompey and Crassus, and formed an alliance with them, known in history as the *First Triumvirate* (60 B.C.). Cæsar's proceedings during his consulship were marked by this policy of friendship to Pompey; he passed an agrarian law by which Pompey's veteran soldiers chiefly profited, and he obtained the ratification of that general's acts in the East. To strengthen the union which had been formed, Cæsar gave Pompey his daughter Julia in marriage, though she had been promised to Brutus; while he himself also married Calpurnia, daughter of Piso, his successor in the consulship. On the expiry of his term of office, he obtained for himself, by the popular vote, the province of Gallia Cisalpine and Illyricum for five years, to which the senate added—to prevent the popular assembly from doing so—the province of Gallia Transalpine. Nothing could have been more favourable for Cæsar's aims. He had now an opportunity of developing his extraordinary military genius, and of gathering round him an army of veterans, whom perpetual victory should inspire with thorough soldierly fidelity and devotion to his person. This was the very thing he wanted to give him a reputation equal to that of his coadjutors, Pompey and Crassus, whom in genius he far surpassed.

In 58 B.C. Cæsar repaired to his provinces, and during the next nine years conducted those splendid campaigns in Gaul by which he completed the subjugation of the West under the dominion of Rome. In his first campaign he defeated the Helvetii, and also Ariovistus, who with a large number of Germans had settled west of the Rhine. In 57 B.C. Cæsar broke up the Belgic confederacy and subdued the various tribes composing it, the greatest struggle being with the Nervii. When the senate received Cæsar's official despatches, it decreed a thanksgiving of 15 days—an honour never previously granted to any general. During the winter and the spring following Cæsar stayed at Luca, where he had a memorable meeting with Pompey and Crassus, and for three years following agreed upon a common policy. It was decided that Pompey and Crassus should be consuls for the year 55 B.C., while the government of Cæsar in Gaul was to be prolonged for a second term of five years till 49 B.C. In the year 56 B.C. followed the subjugation of the Veneti and other peoples of Brittany and Normandy, and the conquest of Gaul might be considered complete. He now undertook a fourth campaign against two German tribes who were about to enter Gaul. He was again successful; and pursuing the fleeing

enemy across the Rhine, spent eighteen days in plundering the district inhabited by the Sigambri. In the autumn of the same year (55 B.C.) he invaded Britain; but after a brief stay in the island, returned to Gaul. The Roman senate, astonished at his hardihood and his successes in regions where no Roman army had ever been before, accorded him a public thanksgiving of 20 days. In 54 B.C. Cæsar opened his fifth campaign by a second invasion of Britain, in which he crossed the Thames, and enforced at least the nominal submission of the British tribes in the south-east of the island. On his return to Gaul, Cæsar was compelled—on account of the scarcity of corn—to disperse his forces for winter quarters, and this encouraged some of the Gallic tribes to revolt. It led to the first serious reverse which Cæsar sustained in Gaul; a division of fifteen cohorts was entirely destroyed by the Eburones. But he was speedily master of the insurrection, and exacted a terrible vengeance on its authors. Cæsar now returned to Northern Italy, that he might be able to communicate more easily and securely with his friends at Rome. That city was gradually becoming more anarchic, the evils of weak government more apparent; the hour for decisive action seemed to be approaching, when there broke out a general rebellion of the Gauls, headed by a young warrior of the Arverni named Vercingetorix. It was in the dead of winter when the news came to Cæsar. Without delay he crossed the Cevennes mountains, though they were covered with snow to the depth of six feet. The struggle with Vercingetorix was a severe one; at Gergovia, the capital of the Arverni, Cæsar was defeated, and for a time his affairs seemed in a desperate condition. But he managed to unite his forces, and at the siege of Alesia (52 B.C.) crushed the whole hosts of the Gauls. Vercingetorix surrendered himself, and the independence of Gaul was at an end. Only some isolated tribes continued to resist; and next year (51 B.C.) Cæsar proceeded to quell them. This he successfully accomplished, and having in addition reduced the whole of Aquitania, passed the winter of his eighth campaign at Novetocenna, in Belgium, where he spent the time in a magnanimous and politic manner. The Gallic princes were courteously and generously treated, and generally a mild system of government was set up, which made the Roman yoke as easy as possible. This was all the more necessary, as affairs at Rome urgently demanded attention. He took up his residence at Ravenna, where he was informed of everything that was going on by the tribune Curio, whose support he had purchased.

In the meantime Pompey had definitely gone over to the senatorial party. Many causes had contributed to this change of attitude. Pompey's wife, Cæsar's daughter Julia, was dead. Crassus had fallen in Asia in 53 B.C., and thus Cæsar and Pompey were left alone, the two most powerful men of Rome. Pompey was jealous of his younger rival. His natural tendency was to adhere to the old aristocratic party. He now cast in his lot with it, and it was decided to break the power of Cæsar. With this view it was necessary to deprive him of his command in Gaul. During the long manœuvring which followed, Cæsar acted with the greatest moderation, and managed to throw upon his opponents the responsibility of violating the law. Under the direction of Pompey the senate summarily called upon him to resign the command and disband his army. The tribunes Mark Antony and Cassius put their veto on this motion; but they were violently driven out of the senate-chamber, and fearing for their lives, they fled to Cæsar's camp. Things had now come to an extremity. The senate intrusted Pompey with the

duty of providing for the safety of the state. His forces far outnumbered Caesar's legions, but they were scattered over the provinces of the empire, and the Italian levy was unprepared. In face of an enemy of such marvellous promptitude and energy as Julius Caesar this dilatoriness was fatal. Perceiving that the time for energetic action had at length arrived, Caesar harangued his victorious troops, who were willing to follow him anywhere; crossed the Rubicon (a small stream which separated his province from Italy Proper), and moved swiftly southwards. Pompey fled to Brundisium, pursued by Caesar, but contrived to reach Greece in safety, 17th March, 49 B.C. The Italian cities everywhere opened their gates to the conqueror. In three months Caesar was master of all Italy.

Caesar next subdued Pompey's legates in Spain, who were at the head of considerable forces. On his return, he took Massilia, where he learned that he had been appointed dictator of the republic—a function which at this time he retained only for eleven days, but these were honourably distinguished by the passing of several humane enactments. Pompey, now thoroughly alive to the magnitude of his danger, had gathered in Egypt, Greece, and the East, a powerful army, while his fleet swept the sea. Caesar, however, crossing the Adriatic at an unexpected season, made a rush for Dyrrhachium, where Pompey's stores were; but was nevertheless outstripped by his opponent. Pompey intrenched his army on some high ground near the city, where he was besieged by Caesar. The first encounter was favourable to Pompey, who drove back Caesar's legions with much loss. The latter now advanced into Thessaly, followed by his exulting enemies. A second battle ensued on the plains of Pharsalia, 9th August, 48 B.C. The senatorial army was utterly routed; and Pompey himself fled to Egypt, where he was murdered. See POMPEY.

No sooner had the news reached Rome, than Caesar was again appointed dictator for a year, and consul for five years. He was invested with tribunician power for life, and with the right of holding all the magistratual comitia except those for the election of the plebeian tribunes. He did not, however, return to Rome after the battle of Pharsalia, but went to Egypt, then in a distracted condition on account of the disputes regarding the succession. Out of love for Cleopatra (who subsequently bore him a son), he entered upon the 'Alexandrine War,' in which he was successful, and which he brought to a close in March 47 B.C. He next overthrew a son of Mithridates, near Zela, in Pontus, August 2 of the same year, and arrived in Rome in September. He was once more appointed dictator, and the property of Pompey was confiscated and sold. Before the close of the year he had set out for Africa, where his campaign against the Pompeian generals, Scipio and Cato, was crowned with victory at the battle of Thapsus, April 6, 46 B.C. Cato committed suicide at Utica, and with such irresistible celerity was the work of subjugation carried on, that by the end of the summer Caesar was once more in Rome. Now occurred that display of noble and wise generosity for which Caesar may be regarded as truly great. He was not a man that could stoop to the vulgar atrocities of Marius or Sulla; he majestically declared that henceforth he had no enemies, that he would make no difference between Pompeians and Cæsarians. His victories in Gaul, Egypt, Pontus, and Africa were celebrated by four great triumphs, during which the whole Roman populace was feasted and fêted by the magnificent liberality of the dictator.

Caesar now proceeded with his schemes for the settlement of affairs at Rome. During the year 46 B.C. he conferred a benefit on Rome and on the

world by the reformation of the calendar, which had been greatly abused by the pontifical college for political purposes. After quelling an insurrection which broke out in Spain, where Pompey's sons, Cneius and Sextus, had collected an army, he received the title of 'Father of his Country,' and also of *imperator*, was made dictator and *præfectus morum* for life, and consul for ten years; his person was declared sacred, and even divine; he obtained a body-guard of knights and senators; his statue was placed in the temples; his portrait was struck on coins; the month Quintilis was called Julius in his honour; and on all public occasions he was permitted to wear the triumphal robe. He proposed to make a digest of the whole Roman law for public use, to found libraries for the same purpose, to drain the Pontine Marshes, to enlarge the harbour of Ostia, to dig a canal through the Isthmus of Corinth, and to quell the inroads of the barbarians on the eastern frontiers; but in the midst of these vast designs he was cut off by assassination on the Ides (15th) of March, 44 B.C. Of the sixty aristocrats who were in the conspiracy, many had partaken of Caesar's generosity, and all of his clemency. A few, like Brutus, out of a weak and formal conscientiousness, based on theory rather than insight, were probably offended by Caesar's desire to change the form of government into a hereditary monarchy; but the most, like Cassius, were inspired by very ordinary motives.

Caesar, who was fifty-six years of age when he was murdered, was of a noble and kingly presence, tall of stature, with a countenance which, though pale and thin with thought, was always animated by the light of his black eyes. He was bald-headed (at least in the latter part of his life), wore no beard, and though of a rather delicate constitution naturally, he ultimately attained to the most vigorous health. In the completeness and variety of endowments he has had no equal. Both as general and statesman he takes a foremost place in the annals of the world; and excepting Cicero, he was the greatest orator of his time. As a historian, he has never been surpassed and rarely equalled in simplicity and in the terse directness and dignity of his style. He was, in addition, a mathematician, philologist, jurist, and architect, and always took great pleasure in literary society. The importance of Julius Caesar in history depends chiefly on the work he did in the transformation of the Roman state from a republic to the rule of a single chief. The republican government of Rome was intended for a city with a limited population of burgesses and dependents. As its rule widened, this form of government proved more and more inadequate to the altered circumstances. Under the new conditions due unity and energy in the administration could be attained only through the rule of a single chief resting ultimately on the military power. During the anarchy of the later republic this was becoming apparent. Caesar saw it with greater clearness than any of his contemporaries, and he had the genius and energy to bring it almost to realisation. His policy was on the whole the same as that more cautiously pursued by Augustus, to concentrate in his person the chief offices of state, and thus to establish a single rule under the old republican forms. Such a transformation was inevitable; and Caesar, in the course he followed, simply brought the tendencies of the time to their own proper development. He was a realist statesman who worked towards attainable ends by such means as were available. Yet he showed a clemency and generosity of temper, a humanity and serene superiority to the mean and vulgar passions of the time, that in a moral point of view decidedly raise him above the level of his contemporaries.

Of Caesar's works the Commentaries on the Gallic and Civil wars alone have been preserved. Among recent accounts of his life the most valuable are to be found in Mommsen's *Roman History* (Eng. trans. 1866), and Drumann's *Geschichte Roms*. See also the works of Merivale and Arnold; *Histoire de César*, by Napoleon III.; Froude's *Cæsar*; and *Histoire de Jules César*, by Stoffel (1888).

Cæsar, SIR JULIUS, judge, born at Tottenham in 1558, was the son of Cesare Adelmare, physician to Queen Mary. He was called to the bar in 1580, and was appointed judge of the Admiralty Court in 1584, Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1606, and Master of the Rolls in 1614. He sat in six parliaments, was knighted in 1603, and died 18th April 1636. The close friend of Whitgift, and afterwards of Bacon, he has left a higher reputation for superiority to bribery than for legal acumen; and his lavish bounty to all beggars is related to have rendered the loan of his coach, so well known to this fraternity, an expensive favour for his friends. He wrote two treatises, on the Court of Requests and on the Privy-council, and a multitude of miscellaneous papers.

Cæsarea, now called by the natives 'Kaisariyah.' This once proud and splendid seaport, on the coast of Syria, 30 miles N. of Joppa, was built by Herod about 22 B.C., and named in honour of Caesar Augustus. It was a Greek town, with its temples, amphitheatre, baths, &c., imported into Syria. A semicircular mole built of large blocks of stone protected the port on the south and west, within which a fleet might ride in safety. It was the see of Eusebius in the 4th century, and was occupied by the Crusaders, who built a cathedral here; after them, it seems to have gradually decayed. It is now a heap of half-buried ruins, with a few miserable stone houses inhabited by fishermen. There is a small open harbour. —CÆSAREA PHILIPPI. This town, mentioned in Matt. xvi. 13, and Mark, viii. 27, was situated about 95 miles N. of Jerusalem, near the source of the Jordan. Its suffix was given in honour of Philip the Tetrarch, who repaired the city. It is now a heap of ruins; the modern village of Paneas, or Banias, on its site, comprises about 150 houses, with traces of a temple. It has been identified with Baalgad or Beth-Rehob.

Caesarean Operation (*cædo*, 'I cut'—*cæsus*) has from very ancient times been the popular name for *Hysterotomy* (*hyster*, 'uterus'; *tomē*, 'section'). Pliny distinctly alludes to it in his *Natural History* (lib. vii. cap. ix.), saying that Cæsar was so called from being taken by excision out of the womb of his mother, and that such persons were called *Cæsones*. In the case of Julius Cæsar, however, the statement must be regarded, to say the least, as extremely doubtful.

The risk to the child's life, if it be alive when the operation is begun, is slight; but to the mother's, very great indeed. Still, many cases are on record where not only the child but the mother was saved. Some women, indeed, seem to have accepted it as their usual method of delivery, having several children, each requiring to be removed through an abdominal incision; one woman submitted to it seven times. It has also been successfully performed in most unfavourable circumstances. An illiterate Irish midwife operated with a razor on a poor farmer's wife in 1738, removing a dead child, and her patient completely recovered; and cases are known in which women have operated on themselves with perfect success. The operation has been less often and less successfully resorted to in Great Britain than on the continent of Europe and in America.

Since about 1870, two procedures have been introduced with the view of diminishing the risk

to the mother when delivery is impossible by the natural channel. Porro's operation, first performed by him in 1876, consists in the removal of the uterus after the child has been delivered. In Thomas's operation (1870), the skin incision is made in the groin, and the genital canal is opened into below the uterus, which is left intact. Both these operations have hitherto given promise of more favourable results as regards the life of the mother than the old procedure, in which the first incision was made in the middle line of the body.

Practitioners are not quite agreed as to the circumstances which justify the performance of such a severe operation on the living female, but all are unanimous as to the propriety of at once removing by it the child of a recently dead woman. Tradition ascribes to Numa Pompilius a decree that every pregnant woman who died should be opened; and the senate of Venice in 1608 decreed that practitioners should perform, under heavy penalties, the Caesarean operation on pregnant women supposed to be dead. In 1749 the king of the Two Sicilies decreed the punishment of death to medical men who omitted to perform it on women dying when advanced in pregnancy. Of course, to be of any use, it must be performed immediately.

Cæsium, an alkaline metal, almost always found along with rubidium, was discovered by Bunsen and Kirchhoff in 1860 by spectrum analysis. The metal, isolated for the first time in 1882, is silver white, soft and extensible, and like rubidium is highly analogous to potassium. Its symbol is Cs, and its atomic weight 133. Its melting-point is 26.5° C., and its specific gravity 1.88. It ignites spontaneously in the air, and when thrown on water, behaves like sodium, potassium, and rubidium. The name is derived from *cæsius*, 'sky-coloured,' from the colour given to the blowpipe flame by caesium. See RUBIDIUM.

Cæsura, in Prosody, a pause or stop in the line, on the variations in the position of which much of the effect of the rhythm of verse depends. See METRE.

Café. See COFFEE-HOUSE.

Caffeine, or THEINE, $C_8H_{10}N_4O_2H_2O$, is the alkaloid or active principle of Coffee (q.v.) and Tea (q.v.). When isolated, it forms beautiful white crystals, with a silky lustre, which are soluble in chloroform, water, alcohol, and ether. It is a remarkable fact that nearly all the beverages in use in different parts of the world owe their virtues to, or at least contain, the same or similar active principles. Thus caffeine is present in coffee, tea, guarana, Paraguay tea or *maté*, and in the kola nut; while in cocoa theobromine is the corresponding principle, differing but slightly from caffeine in chemical composition—the latter being methyl-theobromine—i.e. theobromine in which one atom of hydrogen has been replaced by the group methyl, CH_3 . In coffee, caffeine is present to the extent of from 1 to 2 per cent., while ordinary tea and guarana contain from 2½ to 6 per cent. In large doses, caffeine proves fatal to the lower animals, causing convulsions and death. In man, doses of 8 to 12 grains produce diuresis, great excitement, anxiety, and even delirium; but it has been of late used medicinally as a powerful stimulant of the heart's action. It may be extracted from coffee or tea by making a decoction in hot water, and adding acetate of lead, which causes a precipitate of caffeotannate of lead. When the latter is acted on by sulphuretted hydrogen, the lead is separated, and the caffeine left in solution. On evaporation of the liquid, and recrystallisation from alcohol, the caffeine separates in crystals.

Caffeine forms a series of salts, of which the

citrate has come largely into use. One grain given every hour is often found to give great relief in sick headaches.

Caffraria. See KAFFRARIA.

Cage-birds. Birds have been kept from the earliest history of the world to the present time by savage as well as by civilised races, and the origin of caging and domesticating birds as pets is lost in antiquity. Alexander the Great kept a ring-necked parakeet in a golden cage of fabulous value; and these birds still bear the name of the famous Greek emperor. Steam and colonisation have led to the regular importation into Britain of not less than 50,000 foreign cage-birds every year, and as many of these varieties breed freely in England, our native songsters are less sought after as pets except by the poorer class. Not that any of these brilliantly plumaged foreigners can compare in song with several of our more sober-coated little songsters—the British blackbird, the thrush, or the skylark. There is now a craze for foreign bird-breeding, and Australian and American parakeets nestle freely in large cages or garden aviaries, burrowing into logs of rotten wood, making no nests, and laying their eggs in the holes. They stand our winters well if supplied with abundance of suitable food—viz. canary, hemp, millet, and oats for aviaries; and canary only in cages, where want of exercise produces excessive fatness and egg-binding. Of the foreign cage-birds, the best songsters are the shama (*Copsychus saularis*, an Indian bird of the thrush family), bulbul, Virginian nightingale (of which the hen sings quite as well as the male bird), and the American mocking-bird. Amongst English soft-billed songsters the most desirable are the nightingale, blackcap, blackbird, thrush, lark, and starling; these all have to be fed on crushed hemp and bread-crumbs, with animal food in the shape of meat or insects—spiders being a wonderful ‘pick-me-up’ for these birds when out of health. Of the grain-eating British birds kept for their song, finches and goldfinches head the list; but the bullfinch is deservedly popular, for he is very handsome in his crimson breast and black velvet coat, and he is essentially of a knowing, jolly disposition, although his call-note is somewhat monotonous. He can easily be taught to whistle a tune if the lesson is begun before he is old enough to be in full song. Siskins and redpolls are the unfortunate birds which a certain class of people delight to chain to a bucket-board by means of a belt or brace, and doom to draw their water and food from wells beneath by means of miniature buckets. Goldfinches and finches are sometimes similarly treated, but happily this cruel practice—like the ‘blearing’ of birds’ eyes with a hot iron to make them sing better—is rightly discontinued.

Broadly speaking, the ailments which afflict all cage-birds are in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred due to injudicious and excessive feeding, and it is far better to err on the side of short commons than to feed too high. As the sicknesses of the birds owe their origin to insufficient exercise and too much stimulating food, the safest and most universal medicine is a drop of castor-oil, put into the patient’s mouth with a camel-hair brush. Artificially heated rooms and the fumes of gas are very deleterious to bird-life, and glass conservatories, by reason of their varying heat, are unsuitable places either for aviaries or cages. To have a bird in a window, or to place an aviary cage there, is gross cruelty, because a draught is even more injurious to birds than to human beings; and pets kept under such conditions are always in bad health and wheezy.

The best parrot for talking purposes is the double-fronted, yellow-faced Amazon (*Chrysotis ochro-*

cephala), which is much hardier than the African gray birds, of which latter species more than ninety-five per cent. die in the process of acclimatisation. There are two varieties of grays—small from the south coast, and a larger kind from the west of Africa; these latter are the best. The spring of the year is the proper season to buy a parrot, as the young birds are then imported, and there is the whole summer and autumn in which to harden them off. The cockatoo family are all crested, and in some varieties the crests are fan-shaped, and can be opened or closed at will. These birds make noisy cage-pets, being querulous and excitable, and they never make good talkers. Canary-seed is the best staple article of diet for all the parrot tribe, both large and small.

Cagliari (pronounced *Cal'yari*), the capital of Sardinia, at the head of a spacious bay, on the south coast of the island. By steamboat it is 34 hours from Leghorn, 27 from Naples, 22 from Palermo, and 17 from Tunis; whilst by rail it is 174 miles S. of Porto Torres. With a lagoon on either hand, it lies at the base and on the slopes of a steep hill, 300 feet high; its streets are mostly narrow and dirty. Its harbour, defended by forts, has been enlarged since 1882; and Cagliari has a university (1596; remodelled 1764), a castle (*circa* 1217), a cathedral (1312; modernised 1703), and a bronze statue (1860) of Charles Felix V. Pop. (1881) 35,588. Cagliari occupies the site of the *Carales* of the Carthaginians, and has a Roman amphitheatre, measuring 95½ by 79 yards. From 19 A.D. till 1492 it was the seat of a great Jewish colony; otherwise it has shared the ups and downs of Sardinia, having been several times besieged or bombarded—in 1708 by the English under Admiral Lake.

Cagliari, PAOLO. See VERONESE.

Cagliostro, COUNT ALESSANDRO DI, an arch-impostor, who, in the latter half of the 18th century, travelled through Europe, and whose adventures afford considerable insight into the men and manners of his times. He was born at Palermo, of poor parentage, 8th June 1743, and his true name was Giuseppe Balsamo. Carlyle’s picture of him when a boy—‘brass-faced, vociferous, voracious’—is probably accurate, and already prophesies the bold and boisterous quack. When thirteen years old he ran away from school, and was afterwards sent to the monastery of Caltagirone. Here he became assistant to the apothecary, and picked up that scanty knowledge of chemistry and medicine which he afterwards turned to such profitable account. His conduct in the monastery was in keeping with his character, but finding it too contracted a sphere for the development of his ambitious genius, he left it, or was ejected, and for a time led ‘the loosest life’ in Palermo. In 1769 he found it advisable to leave his birthplace; and in company with the Greek sage Althotas, he is vaguely represented as travelling in parts of Greece, Egypt, and Asia. At Rome, ‘his swart, squat figure first becomes authentically visible in the Corso and Campo Vaccino. He lodges at the sign of the Sun in the Rotunda, and sells etchings there,’ very hard up at this time. At Rome, too, ‘the bull-necked forger’ contrived to marry a very pretty woman named Lorenza Feliciani, who became a skilful accomplice in his schemes, and captivated many admirers, while Cagliostro picked their pockets. He now made the tour of Italy with great success as a physician, philosopher, alchemist, freemason, necromancer. Next, he extended his victorious career through some parts of Germany, and especially carried on a lively business in his ‘elixir of immortal youth,’ which became very popular among the ladies. By its virtue the count assured them he had already attained his

150th year, while his young and charming wife often talked affectionately of her son as 'a commander in the Dutch navy.' Through Courland, they advanced triumphantly to the court of St Petersburg, where he seems to have made his first failure; for the Empress Catharine, aided by her Scotch physician, Rogerson—a keen-witted native of Annandale, who sceptically examined his famous 'Spagirie food,' and pronounced it 'unfit for a dog'—penetrated his real character, and made him the subject of a comedy. Cagliostro soon found it convenient to vanish. We next find him at Warsaw, discoursing on his pet Egyptian masonry, medical philosophy, and the ignorance of doctors, but he has the misfortune to be unmasked by a certain Count M. This, however, had little effect on the stupid credulity of Cagliostro's dupes—belonging, it must be remembered, to the upper classes, who in that age were at once sensual, infidel, and superstitions—so that they persisted for a time 'in distending his pockets with ducats and diamonds,' which, however, his lavish dissipation soon scattered to the winds—for this prophet of a new physical and moral regeneration, and inventor of an 'invaluable pentagon for abolishing original sin,' was a desperate gambler. In 1780 he went to Strasburg; and soon afterwards we find him in Paris, still founding lodges of 'Egyptian freemasons,' holding nocturnal meetings for the evocation of spirits, and scandalously simulating the character and deeds of a philanthropist. From Paris he came over to England, where he was cordially received by the followers of Swedenborg. On his return to Paris (1785), he became distinguished at court, was intimate with the weak and credulous Cardinal Rohan, and played a prominent part in the affair of the Diamond Necklace (q.v.). This lodged him in the Bastille; but he cleared himself by a statement which gained credit, and, after being liberated, carried on his adventures once more in England, but feebly, the sunshine of success now obviously growing dim; in short, the count, in gloom and foreboding, disappeared from the island. On the Continent, too, the market was closed, a general distrust having been excited by the revelations of one of his dupes. 'At Aix, in Savoy, there are baths, but no gudgeons in them;' at Turin he is ordered off by the king; a similar fate befalls him at Roveredo; at Trent we catch a glimpse of him 'painting a new hieroglyphic screen,' which, however, attracts no more the gaping crowd; lower still, 'he pawns diamond buckles;' finally, his wayward wife—in whom, perhaps, because of her womanhood, the enormous lie and quackery first breaks up—'longs to be in Rome by her mother's hearth, by her mother's grave, where so much as the shadow of refuge awaits her.' In May 1789 he entered the city; on the 20th December, the Holy Inquisition detected him founding 'some feeble ghost of an Egyptian lodge.' He was imprisoned, and condemned to death for freemasonry. His sentence was commuted to imprisonment for life in the fortress of San Leone, where, in spite of his 'elixir of immortal youth,' he died 26th August 1795, aged fifty-two years. His wife ended her days in a convent. His *Mémoires* (Paris, 1785) are not authentic. See the essay (1833) in Carlyle's *Miscellanies*.

Cagnola, LUIGI, MARQUIS, an Italian architect, was born at Milan in 1762, and died in 1833. A follower of Palladio, he belonged to the revivers of classical architecture. His masterwork is the triumphal *Arco della Pace*, of white marble, in Milan, commenced in 1807, finished in 1838.

Cagots (Basque *Agotac*), a name given to a distinct tribe of people, who are found scattered in the district of the western Pyrenees. Formerly

they were usually said to be the descendants of the Visigoths, who remained in France after their defeat by Clovis in the 5th century, and the name was explained as a corruption of *canis gothus* ('Gothic dog'). But it is difficult to understand why such a descent should have maintained its opprobrium. Others have connected them with the Albigenses, or the Moors left behind in Gascony after the disaster at Tours; it is far more likely that they were originally the victims of social seclusion due to the taint of leprosy, but that the disease wore itself out from their healthy way of life. M. de Rochas has strengthened this argument by showing how easily *Caqueux*, the ordinary name applied to the same or a similar people in Brittany, is formed from the Célto-Breton word *cacodl*, 'leprons.' Until the French Revolution they were forced to wear a peculiar dress, were forbidden to practise all but the most menial trades, though M. P. Raymond has shown that in the 14th and 15th centuries some were even bankers and physicians, and were obliged to live isolated, either in separate villages or in separate quarters of the towns. So complete was their estrangement from the other inhabitants, that they were forced to enter the churches by doors specially set apart for them. Since that Revolution, they have been placed, as regards the law, on an equal footing with other citizens, but socially they are still regarded as a degraded race. In their language there is nothing that is distinctive, save that their isolation has sometimes made them speak a purer dialect than their neighbours, nor yet are they ethnologically distinct; although many have claimed that the predominant blue eyes, fair hair, and fair complexion point back to a Teutonic origin. They have been often connected erroneously with the *Cretins*, with whom their healthy frames, and strong but not unhandsome figures, have little in common. Races, whose history and present condition greatly resemble those of the Cagots of south-western France, are called *Caqueux* in Brittany, and *Colliberts* in Poitou, Maine, and Anjou. See Michel, *Histoire des Races Maudites de la France et de l'Espagne* (2 vols. 1847); the bulletins of the *Société Anthropologique* (1871, &c.); Rochas, *Les Parias de France et d'Espagne, Cagots et Bohémiens* (1877); and Dr J. Huck Tuke in vol. ix. (1880) of the *Journal of the Anthropological Institute*.

Cahir, a town in County Tipperary, Ireland, beautifully situated on the Suir, 11 miles NW. of Clonmel. On a rock in the river is Cahir Castle, built in the 12th century. The town has a large trade in corn and flour. Pop. (1881) 2469.

Cahors (anciently *Dirona*), the chief town in the department of Lot, in the south of France, is situated on a small rocky peninsula, formed by a bend of the river Lot, 71 miles north of Toulouse by rail. The streets are steep and narrow, and present many fine specimens of antique architecture. The cathedral was built early in the 12th century. Cahors contains many Roman remains, including those of a magnificent aqueduct. The famous Fénelon was a student at the university here, which was founded by Pope John XXII. in 1321, but united with that of Toulouse in 1751; and here were born the poet Claude Marot, and Léon Gambetta, to whom a monument was raised in 1884. The town was taken and pillaged by Henry of Navarre in 1580. Its industries are pottery and tanning; it has also an active trade in truffles, oil, wine, wool, and lime. Pop. (1872) 13,061; (1886) 14,196.

Caicos, a group of islands belonging geographically to the Bahamas, but annexed in 1874 to Jamaica. The North, West, East, Grand, and

other Caicos, have, together with Turk's Islands, an area of 223 sq. m., and a pop. (1881) of 4778. Salt and sponges are their chief products.

Caifa. See HAIFA.

Cailland, FRÉDÉRIC, a French traveller, born at Nantes, 9th June 1787, became a goldsmith and travelled over Europe, and in 1815 to Alexandria. In examining the mineral resources of Egypt, he rediscovered the ancient emerald mines of Jebel Zobara, near the Red Sea; and his report of a journey to Siwah (see OASES) led to its annexation by Egypt in 1820. In 1821-22 he accompanied Ibrahim Pasha's expedition to the White Nile, and his *Voyage à Méroé* (4 vols. Paris, 1823-26) contained the first reliable information of that district. In 1827 he settled as conservator of the Natural History Museum at Nantes, where he died, 1st May 1869. He published a *Voyage à Syouah* and two volumes of researches on the life of the ancient Egyptians, Nubians, and Ethiopians.

Caillié, RENÉ or **AUGUSTE**, a French traveller, noted for his journey to Timbuctoo, was born 19th September 1799 at Mauzé, in Poitou. Having gone to Senegal, and engaged in trading with the natives, he learned about 1826 that the Geographical Society of Paris had offered a premium of 10,000 francs to the first traveller who should reach Timbuctoo. Provided with a stock of goods for barter, and dressed in Moorish garb, Caillié, who had learned Arabic, started from Kakondy in Sierra Leone, April 18, 1827, and after some delay caused by illness, reached the mysterious city, April 20, 1828. Here he remained fourteen days, then accompanied a caravan across the Sahara Desert, reaching the coast at Tangier, August 7. After hearing and examining his statements, the society awarded him the offered prize, with a pension of 1000 francs. His notes of travel, arranged by M. Jonard, were published under the title *Journal d'un Voyage à Tombouctou*, &c. (3 vols. 1830). Caillié died near Paris, May 7, 1839.

Cain, the first-born of Adam and Eve. He appears in the book of Genesis as the prototype of human weakness descending swiftly into inhuman wickedness, and Cain and his family are contrasted with the husbandman Abel as the founders of settled life and worldly culture. Characteristic of the Hebrew race, whose historical significance was exclusively religious, is the tradition which assigns the beginnings of the arts and handicrafts, not to the elect, but to the godless and rejected line. The names of Cain's descendants bear a striking resemblance to those of Seth; and Tuch, Ewald, Knobel, and others accept the opinion of Buttmann (in his *Mythologus*) that the former were simply formed from the latter. A sect of the Ophite Gnostics called themselves *Cainites* (130 A.D.), and invented an explanation of his alleged crime, which, like most of the Gnostic heresies in the early church, sprang out of the deep-rooted fundamental error of the 'two principles.' The Cainites believed that Cain was the offspring of the intercourse of a superior Power with Eve, and Abel of an inferior Power; that their characters corresponded to their paternal parentage, and that the slaying of Abel only symbolised the victory of the superior over the inferior Power. See Gnostics, OPHITES.

Cainozoic (Gr., 'recent life'), a geological term, synonymous with Tertiary, introduced with other words by Mr Phillips, to avoid the confusion which attended the use of the terms primary, secondary, and tertiary, owing to the various meanings attached to them by geologists. It exhibits fossil remains of recent forms of life, and stands opposed to Mesozoic, including intermediate and Palæozoic, ancient and extinct, forms.

Ca ira ('It will go on!'), a popular song which arose in the fever of the French Revolution, so named from its refrain:

Ah! ça ira, ça ira, ça ira!
Les aristocrates à la lanterne!

Like the *Marseillaise*, the *Carmagnole*, and the *Chant du Départ*, it became a French national song, and was styled the *Caillon National*. The words, which are worthless rubbish enough, were due to a street singer named Ladré; the melody to Bécourt, a stage-drummer. The song was prohibited by the Directory in 1797.

Caird, SIR JAMES, born at Stranraer, in Wigtonshire, in 1816, published in 1849 a treatise on *High Farming as the Best Substitute for Protection*, and among later works, *English Agriculture in 1850-51* (1852), a reprint of letters to the *Times*, which has been translated into German, French, and Swedish, and republished in the United States. He sat in parliament as a Liberal, 1857-65, and in 1864 obtained a grant for the collection and publication of agricultural statistics of the country. Appointed chairman of the Royal Commission on Sea Fisheries in 1863, he was made a K.C.B. in 1882.

Caird, JOHN, a great Scottish preacher, was born at Greenock in 1820. He studied at the university of Glasgow, and held in succession pastoral charges at Newton-upon-Ayr (1845), Lady Yester's parish, Edinburgh (1847), Errol, in Perthshire (1849), and Park Church, Glasgow (1857). A sermon preached before the Queen at Crathie in 1855, and published under the title of *The Religion of Common Life*, quickly carried the fame of the author into all parts of the Protestant world. Dean Stanley said it was the greatest single sermon of the century. In 1858 Caird published a volume of sermons, marked by beauty of language, strong thought, and intense sympathy with the spiritual aspirations of mankind. He received the degree of D.D. in 1860, was appointed professor of Divinity in 1862, and in 1873 Principal of Glasgow University. In 1880 he published a work of great importance, *An Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion*, which revealed a strong Neo-Hegelian leaning.—His brother, EDWARD, was born in 1835. From Glasgow he passed as a Snell exhibitioner to Balliol College, Oxford, and became in 1864 fellow and tutor at Merton. In 1866 he was appointed professor of Moral Philosophy at Glasgow University, where he has since exercised a quite unusual personal influence over his students. His works are a *Critical Account of the Philosophy of Kant* (1877), one of the best English works devoted to Kant, an excellent little book on Hegel in Blackwood's 'Philosophical Classics,' and an examination of *The Social Philosophy and Religion of Comte* (1885).

Cairn, or **CARN**, a Celtic word signifying a protuberance, a heap, a pile. In that sense it appears in the names of hills and other natural objects in Scotland, Ireland, Wales, Cornwall, and Brittany. It is also applied to artificial heaps of unhewn stones, which, among archaeologists, have come to be generally known as 'cairns.' Externally all cairns are very much alike, the only differences discernible being those of size and basal outline. Internally they vary in their construction according to their purpose and period. Prehistoric cairns are usually sepulchral, but any dry-built structure, such as a broch, a bee-hive house, or even an early Christian church in a condition of ruin, may assume the appearance of a cairn. Sepulchral cairns of the prehistoric period are divisible into two classes—chambered and unchambered—the former being characteristic of the stone age, the latter of the age of bronze and later times. The chambered cairn may be circular,

oval, or oblong on the ground-plan, sometimes with concave or convex ends. The passage, roofed with flat stones, leads into a chamber which may either have a roof of Bee-hive (q.v.) construction as in the British Isles, or of megalithic construction of immense blocks laid from wall to wall as in Brittany and Scandinavia. The chamber is sometimes subdivided by partitions of slabs set on edge in the floor, at other times there are smaller chambers opening off three sides of the main chamber, the fourth side being occupied by the entrance-passage, as at Maeshowe in Orkney. Both burnt and unburnt human remains are found in these chambered cairns, which seem to have been family sepulchres used for long periods consecutively. They are often of great size, and conspicuously placed on eminences, or associated in groups as tribal cemeteries like those of Tuilten, Cruachan, and Brugh, so often referred to in the early Irish annals as 'the three cemeteries of the idolaters.' The external configuration of the cairn is usually defined by a single or double retaining wall, and the site is sometimes surrounded by a ditch, or by a ditch and rampart of earth, as at Maeshowe; or by a single or double circle of standing stones, as at Clava in Strathnairn; or it may be associated with an alignment, or group of standing stones arranged in rows, as at Callernish in the island of Lewis. The chamber is always small in comparison with the vast size of the cairn itself. In Caithness an oblong cairn 240 feet in length had a chamber measuring only 12 feet by 6. Maeshowe (a circular cairn covered with earth), 92 feet in diameter and 36 feet in height, has a chamber measuring only 15 feet by 14 feet 10 inches, entered through a passage 54 feet in length. Gavr Innis in the Morbihan, 197 feet in diameter and 30 feet high, has a chamber measuring only 9 feet by 8, entered through a passage 44 feet in length. In this case both passage and chamber are lined with great stones elaborately sculptured with groups or patterns of irregularly circular, spiral, and wavy lines. In a cemetery of about 30 cairns at Loughcrew, in Ireland, there are several of 120 to 180 feet in diameter, the chambers of which are lined with sculptured slabs of somewhat similar character. The great chambered cairn of New Grange, one of a group of three situated on the banks of the Boyne, near Drogheda, with a diameter of 315 feet and a height of about 70 feet, has a chamber of about 13 feet diameter, with side recesses of smaller size. The passage is 63 feet in length, and many of the great stones lining the passage and chamber are sculptured with incised patterns of irregular spirals and zigzags. The site of the cairn is surrounded by a circle of standing stones. It is on record that these cairns were opened and plundered by the Norsemen in 862 A.D. The unchambered cairns of the bronze age and later times are usually smaller in size and mostly circular. Instead of a passage and chamber they contain in their interior, sometimes on, sometimes under the surface level, one or more burials, burnt or unburnt, inclosed in cists formed of unhewn flat slabs. There is in the church of Penmachno, in Wales, an early Christian monument which states that 'Carausius lies here, in this cairn of stones,' 'Carausius hic jacit in hoc congeries lapidum (sic).' Adamnan in his life of St Columba mentions that a converted chief in Skye was buried by his followers under a cairn. There is an old Gaelic proverb, *Cuiridh mi clach 'ad charn*, 'I will add a stone to your cairn,' and in the north-west Highlands it is still the custom to erect cairns of stones at the halting-places on the journey to the cemetery. Cairns, apart from their original purpose, have been used as boundaries, or as the meeting-place of a tribe, or the inauguration-place

of a chief. The *Cairn-na-cuimhne*, near Balmoral, was the mustering-place of the men of Strathdee. Occasionally a cairn may be raised to commemorate some event, or to mark a spot traditionally connected with a deed of fame or of horror. A familiar instance of the latter class is found in Musket's Cairn in the Queen's Park, Edinburgh, where a wife was murdered by her husband in 1720 (see Scott's *Heart of Midlothian*); to the former belong the Jubilee cairn on Ben Ledi, and the numerous cairns round Balmoral. Cairns are most frequent in stony countries. Where stones are scarce, the earthen mound or Barrow (q.v.) came in place of the cairn, from which it differs only in the materials. See CALLERNISH, MAESHOWE.

Cairnes, JOHN ELLIOT, economist, was born in County Louth, Ireland, 26th December 1823. His father was a brewer, and as the son showed no aptitude for such learning as his teachers offered him, he was placed in the brewery. After a time, however, young Cairnes began to entertain a liking for intellectual pursuits, and, much against his father's will, went to Trinity College, Dublin, where he graduated B.A. in 1848. In 1850 he was appointed Whately professor of Political Economy at Dublin, the first-fruits of this office being his *Character and Logical Method of Political Economy* (1857). In 1859 he was elected to the chair of Political Economy and Jurisprudence in Queen's College, Galway. He published in 1862 his book on the *Slave Power*, which made a profound impression. In 1866 he was called to the chair of Political Economy in University College, London. He published his *Essays on Political Economy, Theoretical and Applied* in 1873, and in 1874 *Some Leading Principles of Political Economy newly Expounded*. An accident in the hunting-field in 1860 led to a breakdown in health, from which he never quite recovered, and the later years of his life were clouded with suffering, which he bore with patience, nor did it prevent him taking a lively interest in the affairs of the day. He died 8th July 1875. As an economist, Cairnes may be regarded as a disciple of Mill, but his adhesion was that of a powerful and independent thinker, whose opinions were the result of his own research. He elucidated with great clearness, grasp, and philosophic comprehensiveness many of the most important and difficult problems in political economy. He is second only to Mill among recent English economists.

Cairngorm Stone, or simply **CAIRNGORM**, a name often given by jewellers, and particularly in Scotland, to brown or yellow quartz or rock-crystal, because found among the Cairngorm Mountains, in south-west Aberdeenshire. The same mineral is found in many other localities, as at Olivet near Orleans, in Bohemia, Brazil, Siberia, &c. In Cairngorm and the neighbouring district of Mar, it occurs both in the granite rock and in the alluvial soil. It differs from common colourless quartz or rock-crystal only in the presence of a very little oxide of iron or manganese, to which it owes its colour. It is much used as an ornamental stone. The yellow variety is not unfrequently called topaz, although quite different from the true topaz, which it resembles chiefly in colour, having neither its hardness nor its brilliancy. The topaz is, however, sometimes found along with it in the granite and gneiss districts of Mar and Cairngorm. The brown variety is sometimes called Smoky Quartz, and when of a good and uniform colour is by some preferred to the yellow.

Cairns, EARL. HUGH MACCALMONT CAIRNS, a great lawyer and parliamentary debater, was born in County Down, Ireland, in 1819, and educated at

Trinity College, Dublin. He was called to the bar at the Middle Temple in 1844, was returned to parliament for Belfast in 1852, and quickly made his mark in the House by his fluency and readiness in debate. He became Q.C. in 1856, in 1858 Solicitor-general, and in 1866 Attorney-general under Lord Derby. Later in the same year he was made a judge of appeal, and in 1867 was created Baron Cairns. Under Disraeli's premiership he became Lord Chancellor in 1868, and again in 1874, and was created Viscount Garmoyne and Earl Cairns in 1878. For some years he led the Conservatives in the House of Lords with equal dexterity and vigour. He died at Bonrnmouth, 2d April 1885. As a lawyer he will be best remembered for his measures to improve the transfer of land, and his having originally projected that fusion of law and equity which was actually carried into effect by his successor, Lord Selborne. He took an active interest in all philanthropic schemes, and was often chairman at religious meetings in Exeter Hall.

Cairns, JOHN, D.D., LL.D., theologian, was born at Ayton Law, Berwickshire, 23d August 1818, was a distinguished student at Edinburgh, and was ordained at Berwick in 1845, where he remained till 1876, having since 1867 been professor of Theology in the United Presbyterian Church. He became principal in 1879. Dr Cairns, who is an eminent preacher, wrote the article 'Kant' in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* (8th ed.), has contributed to the new edition of Herzog's *Real-encyclopædie*, and has published the memoir of Dr John Brown (1860), and *Unbelief in the 18th Century* (1881).

Cairo, the capital of modern Egypt, is situated in 30° 6' N. lat., and 31° 26' E. long., on the right bank of the Nile, 131 miles by railway from Alexandria, and near the apex of the Delta—in the figurative language of the East, it is the brightest gem in the handle of the green fan of Egypt. In the present day it covers about 11 sq. m. of the sandy plain, and extends from Mount Mukattam to the port of Boulak (Bulák); but only a small part of the modern city belongs to the Cairo of history, which consisted originally of little more than an immense palace with its attendant buildings. Modern Cairo is built upon the remains of four distinct cities. 'Amr, the Mohammedan conqueror of Egypt, founded the first in 641 close to the Roman fortress of Babylon, and his city was named El-Fustât or 'the Tent,' because it was erected on the spot where he encamped. Remains of this earliest of the Mohammedan capitals of Egypt are still included in Masr-el-'Atika or 'Old Cairo,' chiefly famous for the Coptic churches built within the Roman fortress. In 751 the deputy of the Abbaside califs transferred his residence to a spot somewhat to the north-east of Fustât, and a new suburb sprang up called El-'Askar or 'the Camp.' In 868 Ahmad-ibn-Tâlin, the first independent Mussulman ruler of Egypt, founded a third city or suburb, El-Katâi ('the Fiefs'), still more to the north-east; and a further step in the same direction was made in 969 when Jôhar, the general who conquered Egypt for the Fatimite califs of Tunis, laid the foundations of the great palace-inclosure, which he named El-Kâhira ('the Victorious'), corrupted by the Italians into Cairo. In the present day the whole city is vulgarly called Masr-el-Kâhira, or simply Masr (which is also the Arabic name for Egypt; the Hebrew Mizraim). Kâhira soon expanded from a palace into a suburb, and the various foundations grew into one city, save where fire or earthquake laid waste a whole quarter; and vast heaps of rubbish occupy the site of ruined streets. The Fatimites threw a wall round their restricted city, and Saladin

in the 12th century extended the walls so as to include the new Citadel, which he built (1166) on a spur of Mount Mukattam, together with some suburbs which had sprung up outside the old Fatimite boundary. The course of the walls can still be traced in the heart of the modern city by the names of ancient gates. Since the accession of Mohammed 'Ali and his dynasty in the present century, Cairo has been greatly enlarged on the west side, and the space between the city of Saladin and the Nile has been covered with villas and palaces of European construction. The medieval city, however, may still be seen in something of its former picturesqueness in the streets and bazaars, which occupy and surround the site of the original palace-inclosure of El-Kâhira. The quarter bounded by the north and east walls, between the Bab-en-Nasr ('gate of victory') and the Citadel, is still purely oriental; and it is chiefly in this part that are found the numerous mosques, schools, fountains, and latticed houses which represent the art of the Saracens in its most chaste and perfect form. Here is situated the Azhar University (founded 971), to which 2000 students annually flock from all parts of the Mohammedan world; here is the mosque of El-Hâkim (990), the beautiful Maristân and tomb of Kalaûn (1288), and the fine mosques of En-Nâsir (1298), Aksunkur (1347), Sultan Hassan (1358), El-Muayyad (1420), and El-Ghûri (1503), to mention but a few of these exquisite monuments. In this part also is best seen the characteristic life of the people. The traveller who wanders through the narrow crowded lanes, where a thin streak of sky marks the narrow space between the lattice-windows (*meshrebtyas*) of the overhanging upper stories, and diving under a camel here, or shrinking into a recess there, endeavours to avoid being trampled to death by the endless stream of horses, camels, asses, and human beings which surges through the principal thoroughfares, and then emerges in front of a line of stately mosques, or beneath the arches of a noble gateway, or again finds himself in a silent secluded court, lined by private dwellings, may fancy himself transported to the fairyland of the *Thousand and One Nights*, and realise the saying of the Arab writer: 'He who hath not seen Cairo hath not seen the world; its soil is gold; its Nile is a wonder; its women are like the black-eyed virgins of Paradise; its houses are palaces; and its air is soft—its odour surpassing that of aloes-wood and cheering the heart; and how can Cairo be otherwise when it is the mother of the world?' The medieval city, however, is rapidly giving way to the encroachments of western commerce and sanitation. The separate closed quarters of distinct trades are becoming rarer. Very few of the old palaces of the Mamelukes are still standing; the most beautiful features of the decoration of ancient houses and even mosques have been despoiled by the travelling collector; and natural decay, aided by centuries of neglect and ignorant injury, has reduced the remains of a perhaps unrivalled epoch of Saracenic art to those shattered but exquisite ruins, which an official 'Commission for the Preservation of the Monuments' now endeavours, not, indeed, to restore, but if possible to rescue from further demolition and decay. See MOSQUE, ARABIAN ARCHITECTURE.

The modern portion of the city consists partly in a few broad streets or 'boulevards,' which pierce the medieval quarters, and have destroyed many priceless monuments of art, but chiefly in the western suburb of Ismailia, formed by new villas, built along broad avenues lined with trees, and extending from the square called the Ezbekiya, near or in which are the principal hotels, the opera-house, theatre, and the European shops,

as far as Boulak. In this suburb are some of the numerous palaces of the Khedive, notably Abdin, where all official receptions take place; others are situated on the bank of the Nile, where are also barracks and a hospital. Boulak (q.v.), whence the steamboats and dahabiyas start for the Nile voyage, is principally noteworthy for its active printing-press and for the splendid collection of Egyptian antiquities accumulated in the museum. Modern Cairo, including the whole circuit, old and new, is the largest city in Africa, and second only to Constantinople in the Turkish empire. Its population at the last census (1882) was estimated at 371,000; about 21,000 are Europeans, among whom Italians and Greeks preponderate. The main constituents of the inhabitants are the half-Arab, half-Egyptian townsfolk; the fellahin, or country-people who have settled in the capital; Copts, Turks, and Jews. There are military and veterinary schools, a girls' school, and a public library rich in Arabic manuscripts. The police is admirable, and the city is under the control of a special governor. Railways and telegraphs connect it with Alexandria, Ismailia, Suez, Port Said, and Upper Egypt. Steamers ply on the Nile as far as the Second Cataract. Gas, the telephone, and other modern appliances are in universal use among the European and official circles. There is a busy trade, but chiefly of the transport kind, consisting of the produce of the interior. Manufactures, except rude pottery, turned woodwork, and silver-smithery, are almost non-existent; and the arts of ancient and medieval Egypt appear to have been almost forgotten. After the battle of Tel-el-Kebir in 1882, British troops occupied Cairo, and thenceforward Cairo was the centre of English influence in Egypt. See EGYPT.

Cairo, capital of Alexander county, Illinois, on a low point of land at the junction of the Ohio with the Mississippi, about 180 miles below St. Louis, is an important centre of railway and steamboat traffic. A steel bridge (1888), costing \$5,000,000, connects the railways north and south of the Ohio. The city has suffered much from inundations, from which it is now protected by levees, which are utilised for streets and railway tracks. There are numerous manufacturing establishments, a convent, an academy, a United States marine hospital, and a custom-house. Pop. (1860) 2188; (1880) 9011; (1888, estimated) 14,000.

Caisson, in engineering construction, is a chest used in 'laying' the foundations of the piers of bridges, quays, and like structures, in deep and rapid rivers. It consists of a very strong platform of timber or of metal plates, to which the sides are attached. The site of the pier being levelled by dredging or otherwise, the caisson is brought over the spot, and moored in the proper position. Two or three of the lower courses of masonry are then built upon the platform of the caisson, and the water is slowly admitted by a sluice, in order to cause the caisson to settle into its place.

When the foundations are laid with concrete, the caisson may consist of a simple frame of wooden walls, floated into position to form an inclosure, into which the concrete can be shot, and can set undisturbed by the wash of the water. Compressed air is now very generally employed inside a metal column, in a chamber at the bottom of the column, where workmen are required for excavating. The column is open at the bottom, and the water is prevented from occupying the working chamber by the counterpressure of the air. Communication between the working chamber and the external atmosphere above is effected by means of what is aptly called an 'Air-lock' (q.v.), serving

for the exit and entrance of the workmen and materials. The air in the lock is lowered to the pressure of the atmosphere before the chamber is opened for the passage of men or materials to the open air; and it is, on the contrary, raised to the pressure of the air in the working chamber before men and materials are admitted.

In excavating for the foundations of the Forth Bridge, the caissons were of very large dimensions, being 70 feet in diameter, the greatest depth reached varying from 71 feet to 89 feet below high-water, and from 39 feet to 43 feet into the bed of the Forth. The pneumatic process was in the main adopted (see BRIDGE).

The new Tay viaduct, of which Mr W. H. Barlow was the engineer, has main spans of 245 feet, each pier carrying which is formed of two iron cylinders, 23 feet in diameter, filled with brickwork and concrete, and sunk to depths varying from 20 feet to 30 feet into and resting upon sand, the depth of water at high tide being 23 feet. The weight borne by each superficial foot in the cylinders is estimated at 3 tons.

The bridge over the Ganges at Benares, with spans of 335 feet, has piers composed of single iron caissons of oval shape, 65 feet long, 28 feet broad, lined with brickwork and filled with concrete. They are sunk to a depth of about 100 feet.

One of the most remarkable instances of the sinking of foundations by means of iron caissons was exhibited in the erection of a graving dock at Toulon. Here, the caisson was 472 feet long by 134 feet wide, and 62 feet deep. It embraced the entire dock, which was built of masonry. The excavation was performed by the use of a compressed-air chamber in the bottom of the caisson, as in the Forth Bridge.

Caisson, in relation to shipping, is an apparatus for lifting a vessel out of the water for repairs or inspection. It is usually a hollow structure, sunk by letting water into it. There is an air-chamber inside, which allows it to sink only to a certain depth. In that state it is hauled under the ship's bottom, the traps or openings are closed, the water is pumped out, and the caisson rises with the ship upon it. *Pontoon* is another term for the same apparatus.—The name caisson is also given to the pontoon or floating gate used to close a dry dock or similar place.

Caisson, in its military sense, means a tumbril or ammunition wagon.

Caithness, a county in the extreme N.E. of the Scottish mainland. Its length from N.E. to S.W. is 43 miles; its greatest breadth, 28 miles; and its area, 701 sq. m. Except in the west and south, where the mountain-range dividing Caithness from Sutherland attains in Morven a height of 2313 feet, the general aspect of Caithness is level and bare, being in great part moorland and treeless. The northern sea-coast is bold and rocky, with many bays, inlets, promontories, and caves. Here are Dunnet Head and Duncansby Head; and on the west side of the last-named is John o' Groat's House (q.v.). There are no navigable rivers in Caithness, and no lakes of importance. The climate is damp and chilly, but snow rarely lies on the plains above a day or two at a time. Thunder is rare; auroras are seen almost nightly in winter. Coal has not been found in Caithness; the common fuel is peat. The chief crops are oats, bere, turnips, and potatoes; but only 23 per cent. of the entire area is in cultivation. The parts which are under tillage are generally a deep fertile loam on a strong till clay. In the north-east the soil is sandy. The crops are 20 days later in ripening than in the Lothians. The occupants of many of the small farms divide their time between farming and fishing.

There are herring, ling, cod, salmon, and lobster fisheries. The herring-fishery falls in the months July and August, and Wick is the chief seat of the British herring-fishery. The other exports are cattle, oats, wool, and flagstones, of which, as well as of freestone and slate, Caithness contains quarries, the chief being that of Castlehills, 5 miles to the east of Thurso. The county returns one member to parliament; and Wick is its only parliamentary burgh; another town is Thurso, an old burgh of barony. A railway, completed in 1874, and extending to Wick and Thurso, connects Caithness with the south. Pop. (1801) 22,609; (1831) 34,529; (1861) 41,111; (1881) 38,865. In early times Caithness is supposed to have been inhabited by Celts, who afterwards mixed with Danes and Norwegians; and from the 10th century to 1196 it was subject to Scandinavian jarls. The Scandinavian origin or part-origin of the people of Caithness is shown by their tall forms and fair features, and their speaking English instead of Gaelic. Caithness has remains of brochs or Picts' houses, stone-circles, and several old castles. See Laing's *Prehistoric Remains of Caithness* (1866), Calder's *History of Caithness* (new ed. 1887).

CAITHNESS FLAGSTONES are thin-bedded dark-coloured bituminous sandstones, slightly micaceous and calcareous, valuable on account of their great toughness and durability for pavements, cisterns, and various other purposes, and accordingly are largely exported. They belong to the Old Red Sandstone (q.v.), and contain abundant remains of fossil fishes.

Caius, DR JOHN, physician and scholar, was born at Norwich in 1510. (Caius, pronounced *Key*, is probably a Latinised form of the English name Kaye or Key.) He entered Gonville Hall, Cambridge, in 1529, and in 1533 was elected a fellow thereof, having just before been appointed principal of Fiswick's Hostel. In 1539 he went abroad, in 1541 was created an M.D. of Padua; returning to England in 1544, he delivered lectures on anatomy in London, then practised at Shrewsbury and Norwich. In 1547 he was admitted a fellow of the College of Physicians, of which he was subsequently nine times elected president. He also became physician to Edward VI., Queen Mary, and Queen Elizabeth. In 1557 he obtained permission to elevate Gonville Hall into a college, which took the name of Gonville and Caius College, and of which in 1559 he became master. A loyal Catholic, he had great trouble with his Protestant fellows, who burned his mass vestments, and whom in return he put in the stocks. He died 29th July 1573. He was author of *A Booke or Counsell against the Sweatyng Sicknesse* (1552), and of ten other published works on a variety of subjects, critical, antiquarian, and scientific.

Calvano, a town of Southern Italy, 4 miles N. of Naples. Pop. (1881) 10,832.

Cajabamba, capital of the province of Chimborazo, in Ecuador, 102 miles S. of Quito, on the arid plateau of Topi, at an elevation of 9480 feet. Pop. 16,000. The former town of *Rioabamba*, founded on this site in 1533, was in 1797 overwhelmed by an earthquake in which 30,000 lives were lost.

Cajamarca, a department in the NW. of Peru, between the western chain of the Andes and the Amazon. A railway connects it with the Pacific, and there is a large farming and cattle-raising industry. Area, 14,188 sq. m.; pop. (1876) 213,391. The capital is Cajamarca; pop. 7215.

Cajeput (*Melaleuca leucodendron* or *minor*), a tree of the order Myrtaceæ, sub-order Leptospermeæ, from the leaves of which the pungent, aromatic, volatile oil called Oil of Cajeput is

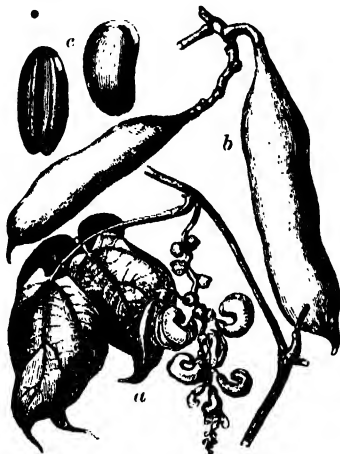
obtained by distillation. The cajeput-tree is common on the mountains of the Moluccas. It is rather a small tree, with a crooked trunk, thick spongy bark, white wood, elliptical-lanceolate alternate evergreen leaves, and terminal spikes of white flowers. The greater number of the species are natives of Australia, some of them very beautiful shrubs and frequent in hothouses. The name is sometimes given in California to *Umbellularia Californica*, a handsome evergreen lauraceous tree affording a valuable cabinet-wood.

Cajetan. **CARDINAL**, properly Thomas de Vio, was born at Gaeta in 1469. At an early age he entered the Dominican order, lectured on theology at Brescia and Pavia, and became general of his order in 1508, cardinal in 1517, Bishop of Gaeta in 1519, and legate to Hungary in 1523. In the history of the Reformation, his name is remembered for his vain attempt to induce Luther to recant his errors at Augsburg in 1518. Cajetan died at Rome in 1534. His *Opera Omnia* were printed in 5 vols. at Lyons in 1639.

Calabar, the name of a coast district of Upper Guinea, Africa, now embraced in the Niger Protectorate (a British Protectorate since 1884), the limits of which are not clearly defined; but it is usually understood to extend from the Nun mouth of the Niger to the Cameroonian district. The surface is low and flat, and the climate unhealthy. Palm-oil, kernels, ebony, ivory, india-rubber, shea butter, and beni-seed are the chief articles of commerce, which is mostly in the hands of the Royal Niger Company. The United Presbyterians have had a mission here since 1846, which has produced beneficial changes. The belief in witchcraft is dying out; and the destruction of twin children, the ordeal of the Calabar bean, and the massacre of slaves at the death of a king, are now less common than formerly. Of the different tribes, the Efik, who are a negro stock, is the most important. Their language has been reduced to writing, and many volumes, including the Scriptures, have been translated into Efik. Their political bond of union is a kind of secret society known as Egbo. British consular jurisdiction is chiefly exercised in the river mouths between the Brass and the Old Calabar rivers. Many European traders, instead of living in towns or on the beach, occupy the hulks which are moored in the channels of the rivers. The chief towns are Duke Town, Creek Town, and Old Town.—The Old Calabar River, which is believed to rise in the neighbourhood of Iko, beyond Uyanga, enters the Bight of Biafra, about 52 miles WNW. of Fernando Po, by an estuary about 9 miles in breadth. It is navigable by steamers for about 200 miles above its mouth, and abounds in crocodiles.—The New Calabar River is a branch of the Niger, falling into the Bight of Biafra in 4° 30' N. lat., and 7° 7' E. long. See Waddell's *Twenty-nine Years in the West Indies and Central Africa* (1863).

Calabar Bean, or the ordeal bean of Old Calabar, is the seed of *Phytostigma venenosum*, of the order Leguminosæ. It is a climber nearly allied to the scarlet runner (*Phaseolus multiflorus*), but reaches a height of 50 feet or more, and is perennial, with a slender woody stem. It yields its virtues to alcohol, and imperfectly to water. It is used in the form of an emulsion by the natives of Africa, as an ordeal when persons are suspected of witchcraft; the accused being declared innocent if he can throw off the poison by vomiting. In 1855 the late Sir Robert Christison very nearly fell a victim to his zeal for science in experimenting with some specimens of this bean which had been sent to Edinburgh by some African missionaries, dangerous symptoms having been produced

by 12 grains of the kernel which he swallowed. In 1861 Dr T. R. Fraser tried the effects upon himself of doses of 6, 8, and 10 grains. The general symptoms were epigastric uneasiness, great feebleness, dimness of vision, salivation, giddiness, and irregular, feeble, and slow heart's action. About the same time he made the interesting discovery



Calabar Bean :
a, flowering branch ; b, seed pod ; c, seeds.

that, when placed on the eyeball, this substance contracts the pupil, and produces near-sightedness; and it is now frequently employed for these purposes in ophthalmic surgery. It has also been administered in tetanus and other nervous diseases. Fraser has also shown that since its action is precisely contrary to that of belladonna or its active alkaloid atropine, the latter can with certainty be administered (even in quantities which would be injurious or fatal under ordinary circumstances) as an antidote to the other. The Calabar bean owes its activity to the presence of a very powerful alkaloid, called Eserin, which, in the form of gelatine discs, each containing $\frac{1}{100}$ th grain of eserine, is much used in ophthalmic operations; and sometimes similarly in solution as a local tonic to strengthen a relaxed power of accommodation. Eserin is used to contract the pupil, as belladonna relaxes it.

Calabash Tree (*Crescentia cujete*), a small tree belonging to the Bignoniaceæ (q.v.), common in tropical America, but said to have been introduced from Guinea. The wood of the tree is tough and flexible, but by far the most useful part is the hard shell of the fruit, which, under the name of *calabash*, is much used in place of bottles for holding liquids, and for goblets, cups, water-cans, &c., and in fact furnishes most of the domestic utensils of the natives. These shells may even be used as kettles for boiling liquids, and they will bear this several times without being destroyed. They are sometimes polished, carved, and dyed, and otherwise ornamented. The rinds of gourds are sometimes similarly used, and called calabashes.

Calabria, the south-west peninsula of the kingdom of Italy, bounded N. by the province of Basilicata. Area, 6637 sq. m.; pop. (1886) 1,317,173. It is traversed throughout its entire length of 160 miles by the Apennines, whose summits in the region in the north, known as La Sila, and the Aspromonte in the south, are crowned with pines, while forests of oak, beech, and chestnut cover their sides. The valleys be-

tween the various hills afford rich pasture, especially in the north, to which, where swamps have not rendered them uninhabitable from malaria, in spring-time whole colonies migrate with their flocks and herds. There is no river of any importance in Calabria; but the valleys and plains, watered by such streams as there are, are very fertile, yielding wheat, rice, cotton, liquorice, saffron, the sugar-cane, &c., and also the vine, orange, lemon, olive, fig, and mulberry, in luxuriance. Iron, tin, lead, silver, alabaster, marble, and graphite are among its minerals. The fisheries of its coasts, particularly the tunny and anchovy fisheries, are important. The district is very subject to earthquakes. For purposes of administration the compartmento is divided into the provinces of Cosenza (with a population in 1881 of 451,185), Catanzaro (pop. 433,975), and Reggio (pop. 375,528). In ancient times the name Calabria was given to the south-east peninsula, nearly corresponding to the modern province of Lecce, no portion of which is included in modern Calabria, which answers to the ancient *Bruttium*. The name, as applied to the district now known by that name, appears to have originated with the Byzantines sometime prior to the conquest of the country by the Normans, in the 11th century. The people, who are a proud, fiery, and revengeful race, were long celebrated as among the fiercest of banditti. They strenuously resisted the power of France during the Napoleonic campaigns, and were not finally subdued until 1810. --*Il Calabrese* ('the Calabrian') is the name by which the painter Maltia Preti (1613-57) is usually known. See *The Highlands of Calabria*, by Ross and Cooper (1888).

Calad'dium. See Cocco.

Calahorra, a town of Spain, 30 miles SE. of Logroño by rail. It occupies the site of the ancient *Calagurris*, the birthplace of Quintilian, celebrated for its obstinate but unsuccessful resistance to Pompey's legate (78 B.C.). It has an old cathedral, and (1878) 8134 inhabitants.

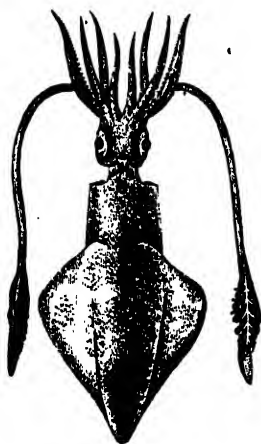
Calais, a seaport town of France, in the department of Pas-de-Calais, on the Strait of Dover, here 21 miles wide, by rail is 184 miles N. of Paris. It ranks as a fortress of the first class, the old walls, dividing it from its suburb, Saint Pierre, having been demolished since 1883, and their place supplied by a ring of exterior forts. The gate built by Richelieu in 1635, and immortalised by Hogarth, has disappeared; but the cardinal's citadel (1641) still stands on the west of the town. On the south and east are low marshy grounds, which could be submerged in the event of an invasion. The harbour, which was nearly dry at low tide, and which had rarely more than from 15 to 18 feet of water in it, has been greatly improved since 1875 at a cost of more than £2,700,000. Calais is one of the chief ports of debarkation for travellers from England to France, and has steam communication thrice a day with Dover, with which since 1851 it has also been connected by submarine telegraph. With the air of a Flemish more than of a French town, Calais has not much to boast of in the way of objects of interest. The church of Notre Dame has a fine 'Assumption' by Seghers. The picturesque hôtel-de-ville was rebuilt in 1750, and restored in 1867. The adjoining Tour de Gnet (1214) served as a lighthouse till 1848; the present lighthouse is 190 feet high. A museum (1884) occupies the site of the Hôtel Dessin, where Sterne lodged, and Scott, and Lady Hamilton. A handsome English church was built in 1862. The chief manufacture is tulle or bobbin-net, introduced by English from Nottingham in 1818. The fisheries, once important, have greatly declined. Pop. (1872) 39,700; (1881) 44,315; (1886) 54,714.

Calais was a small fishing-village till in 997 it was improved by Baldwin IV., Count of Flanders, whilst in 1224 it was enlarged and strengthened by Philip of France, Count of Boulogne. In 1347, after a twelvemonth's siege, it was captured by Edward III. of England, and the self-devotion then shown by six of the citizens, who were saved by the entreaties of Queen Philippa, forms one of the noblest passages of history. The English retained it until 1558, when it was captured by the Duke of Guise, its garrison of 800 men holding it for a week against his 30,000. Since then (with the exception of two years, 1596-98, when it was in the possession of the Spaniards) Calais has continued French. In 1659 Charles II. of England resided some time here; and about a quarter of a century later James II. arrived here with French troops for the invasion of England, which the destruction of the French fleet prevented him from accomplishing. Louis XVIII. landed at Calais in 1814, after his exile.

Calais, a town of Washington county, Maine, 82 miles ENE. of Bangor, at the head of navigation on the St Croix River, which is part of the boundary between the United States and Canada. The terminus of a local railway, Calais is connected by several bridges with St Stephen's, a Canadian railway station. There is some ship-building and a large trade in lumber. Pop. (1880) 6173.

Calamander Wood, a cabinet-wood of the greatest value, resembling rosewood, but much surpassing it in beauty and durability. The tree which produces it is *Diospyros hirsuta*, a species of the same genus which produces ebony; it is a native of the south-east of India and of Ceylon. But this tree 'has been so prodigally felled, first by the Dutch, and afterwards by the English, without any precautions for planting or production, that it has at last become exceedingly rare.' It yields veneers of unusual beauty, 'dark wavings and blotches, almost black, being gracefully disposed over a delicate fawn-coloured ground.' Its density is very great, a cubic foot weighing nearly 60 lb., and it takes an exquisite polish. The name Calamander Wood is supposed to be a corruption of Coromandel Wood.

Calamary, or SQUID, a popular name applied to numerous forms of Cuttle-fish or Cephalopoda



Common Calamary (*Loligo vulgaris*).

(q.v.), but more especially to the common *Loligo vulgaris*. The genus belongs to a family known as Myopsidae, including Cephalopoda with ten arms, a horny (except in Sepia) pen, the remnant of a shell, and a cornea closing the eye. The body is long, pointed behind, and bears two triangular posterior fins. The skin round the mouth bears suckers; the two longest seizing-arms bear four or more rows of suckers, and are not entirely retractile; one of the shorter arms becomes much modified in the male to form a 'hectocotylus' or sperm-

holding organ. About two dozen species of *Loligo* are known from all seas, and some fossil forms

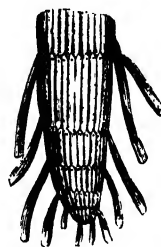
occur in the Jurassic strata. The Common Calamary (*Loligo vulgaris*) has a pinkish or yellowish white colour, with purplish-brown spots, and measures a foot and a half or more in length, not including the arms. It is common in the Atlantic and Mediterranean, swims actively in shoals, and is sometimes eaten, or used as bait. For further details, see CUTTLE-FISH.

Calambac. See ALOES-WOOD.

Calamine, an ore consisting essentially of carbonate of zinc. The name is said to be derived from the Greek and Latin *calamus*, 'a reed,' because when fused it adheres to the base of the furnace in a reed-like form. Its primary form is a rhomboid, and it occurs in small obtuse-edged crystals, also compact and massive. It is white, yellowish-white, brown, green, or gray; is sometimes opaque, sometimes translucent; is brittle, and has an uneven conchoidal fracture. It occurs in beds and veins in rocks of various kinds, but most commonly in limestone. Mendip, Matlock, Alston Moor, Leadhills, and Wanlockhead are British localities. Calamine is an important ore of zinc.

Calaminth (*Calamintha*), a genus of Labiate, nearly allied to balm and thyme. *C. officinalis* is not unfrequent in England. It has an agreeable aromatic mint-like odour, and is used by the country-people to make herb-tea, and enjoys a widespread traditional repute as a pectoral medicine. *C. clinopodium* is Wild Basil, and *C. Acanthos*, Basil Thyme. The common calaminth is found in North America, with several native species.

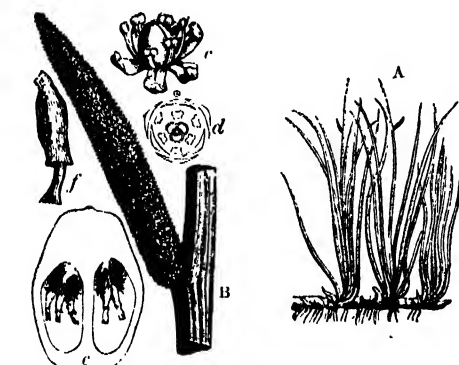
Calamites, a group of fossil plants which make their first appearance in the Devonian, occur abundantly in the Carboniferous, and seem to die out in the Permian strata. There is some doubt as to the true affinities of these plants, but they are most probably related to the Equisetaceae, and are believed to be a kind of gigantic 'horse-tails,' from which, however, they differ in certain points. The decorticated stem is longitudinally ribbed or furrowed, and transversely jointed at intervals—these intervals sometimes increasing or decreasing regularly, or in other cases being equal or irregularly different in length. (In one series the longitudinal furrows do not alternate at the joints or nodes, and these fossils are now separated from Calamites proper under the genus of Archaeocalamites.) In some stems long narrow branchlets proceed from the transverse joints, and in others branches bearing whorls of small branchlets or long narrow pointed leaves. The branch-sears occur periodically, the node-bearing sears being separated from each other by a certain number of joints without branches. The root termination is conical. Some of the species were provided with thick, and others with thin bark. The former did not show on their outer surfaces the fluting which is so marked a characteristic of the decorticated stems—the condition in which these fossils usually occur. The thin-barked species did show a fluted surface. Calamites seem to have grown in dense brakes on low alluvial flats, and perhaps even in water. They seem to have budded out at the base, forming clumps of plants, while to support themselves they threw out cord-like roots from the lower part of the stem. The fruits were long and generally thin spikes, bearing spore-cases under scales, and were attached to the twigs or branches. Some of the forms reached a length of 30 feet.



Lower part of *Calamites cannaefornis*.

Calamus, the reed pen which the ancients used in writing, was made of the stem of a reed growing in marshy places, probably *Arundo Donax* (see REED), of which the best were obtained from Egypt. The stem was a knife softened, then dried, and cut and split with a knife (*scalprum librarium*), as quill pens are made. To this day the Orientals generally write with a reed (Arab. *Kalam*).

Calamus, the traditional name of the Sweet Flag (*Acorus Calamus*), which is no doubt the 'Calamus Aromaticus' of Roman authors, and probably the sweet calamus and sweet cane of Scripture, although it has, however, been attempted to identify calamus with one of the fragrant grasses (see LEMON-GRASS) which yield the grass-oil of India. The sweet flag, although resembling Iris in habit, belongs to the order Aroidae, and is widely distributed through the Eastern palaearctic region, and is also indigenous to North America. It is said to have been introduced into Europe from Asia Minor in the 16th century, and is now widely naturalised in ditches and by the sides of ponds.



A, *Acorus Calamus*, showing rhizome; B, flower-head; C, separate floret; D, floral diagram, showing essentially liliaceous type; E, vertical section of ovary; F, single ovule.

Hooker indeed regards it as a native of Britain. The root-stock yields an aromatic stimulant and tonic, which has fallen into disuse in regular medicine, but is still of high repute in the East. It is in fact cultivated in Ceylon and Burma. It is sometimes used to flavour beer, and in the perfuming of tooth-powder and snuff; and was masticated to clear the voice and sweeten the breath. It is also made into confections and used in the preparation of liqueurs in Germany, &c. The plant was formerly used to strew floors instead of rushes, and particularly in cathedrals on festival days. The name Calamus is also given to a genus of palms. See RATTAN, and DRAGON'S BLOOD.

Calamy, EDMUND, a Puritan divine, was born in London in 1600. He studied at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge (1616-19), where he attached himself to the Calvinistic party; and afterwards became domestic chaplain to Felton, Bishop of Ely. In 1626 he was appointed lecturer at Bury St Edmunds, but resigned his office when the order to read the *Book of Sports* began to be enforced (1636). In 1639 he was chosen minister of St Mary's Aldermanbury, London. He now entered warmly into the controversies of the time, and became noted as a leading man on the side of the Presbyterians. He had a principal share in the composition of *Smeetynnuus* (q.v.), a work intended as a reply to Bishop Hall's *Divine Right of Episcopacy*, and one of the most able and popular polemics of the day. Like the mass of the Presbyterian clergy, he was monarchical and not republican in his political opinions. He disapproved, therefore, of the execu-

tion of Charles, and of Cromwell's protectorate, and did not hesitate to avow his attachment to the royalist cause. He was one of the deputies appointed to meet Charles II. in Holland, and congratulate him on his restoration. His services were recognised by a royal chaplaincy and the offer of the bishopric of Coventry and Lichfield, which he refused through conscientious scruples (his wife's, according to Tillotson). Ejected for nonconformity in 1662, he continued to attend service in his old church, till heart-broken by the Great Fire of London, he died 29th October 1666. He had published nineteen sermons, &c.—Two of his five sons were educated for a religious profession: the one, Dr BENJAMIN CALAMY (1642-86), rose to be a prebendary of St Paul's, and published *A Discourse about a Scrupulous Conscience*, dedicated to his patron, Judge Jeffreys; the other, EDMUND CALAMY (1635-85), was ejected for nonconformity. His son, EDMUND CALAMY, D.D., born in 1671, studied three years at Utrecht, and, declining Carstares' offer of a Scotch professorship, from 1794 was a Nonconformist minister in London. He visited Scotland in 1709, when Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen all conferred honorary degrees on him, and he died 3d June 1732. Of his forty-one works, the best known are his *Account of the Ejected Ministers*, and his interesting *Autobiography*, first published in 1829.

Calañas, a town of Andalusia, Spain, about 27 miles N. of Huelva, and 13 miles N.E. of Tharsis, with which it was connected by rail in 1887. Here is a large copper-mine. Pop. (1887) 3991.

Calas, JEAN, a Frenchman, remembered as the unhappy victim of fanaticism and injustice, was born in Languedoc in 1698. He lived as a tradesman of good character in Toulouse. In 1761, one evening after supper, the eldest son of the Calas family, Marc Antoine, a youth addicted to gambling, and subject to fits of deep melancholy, was found hanged in the warehouse. There was not a shadow of a reason for doubting that the young man committed suicide; but popular rumour accused the father, or other members of the Calas family, of murdering the eldest son, 'because he had contemplated conversion to Catholicism.' It was also asserted that a young man named Lavaysse, who was in the house on the fatal evening, had been despatched 'by the Protestants of Guyenne to perpetrate the murder.' The clergy exerted all their influence to confirm the populace in their delusion. In consequence of the popular excitement the family of Calas was brought to trial for the murder, and several deluded and (perhaps) some bribed witnesses appeared against them. A Catholic servant-maid and the young man Lavaysse were also implicated in the accusation. Calas brought forward many most convincing arguments in his defence, but they were of no avail, and the parliament of Toulouse sentenced the wretched man—by a majority of 8 votes against 5—to torture and death on the wheel! The old man was accordingly put to death on the wheel in 1762. His property was confiscated. His youngest son was banished for life from France, but was captured by the monks, and compelled to abjure Protestantism. The daughters were sent to a convent. The young man Lavaysse was acquitted, and the widow of Calas escaped into Switzerland, where she was so fortunate as to excite the benevolent interest of Voltaire, who brought the whole affair before the public, and, in his book *Sur la Tolérance*, proved that Calas had fallen a victim to religious hatred and popular fanaticism. A revision of the trial followed, and, after full investigation, the parliament at Paris in 1765 declared Calas and all his family innocent.

Louis XV. gave the sum of 30,000 livres to the bereaved family, but neither the parliament of Toulouse nor the fanatical monks were ever brought to account. See Coquerel, *Calas et sa Famille* (2d ed. 1870).

Calasaya Bark. See CINCHONA.

Calascibetta, or CALATASCIBETTA, a town in the Sicilian province of Caltanissetta, built on a steep and isolated height, 64 m. SE. of Palermo. Pop. (1881) 6615.

Calatafimi, a town of Sicily, in the province of Trapani, 8 miles SW. of Alcamo. It has a ruined Saracenic castle, Kalat-al-Fimi, from which it derives its name. Here, in 1860, Garibaldi's troops defeated the Neapolitan soldiers. Pop. (1881) 9785.

Calatayud (Arab. 'Ayud's Castle'), a city of Aragon, Spain, on the Jalon, 152 miles NE. of Madrid by rail. It is built out of the ruins of ancient *Bithilis*, the birthplace of Martial, which lay about 2 miles to the east. Pop. (1877) 11,512.

Calatrava la Vieja, a ruined city of Spain, on the Guadiana, 12 miles NE. of Ciudad Real. Its defence against the Moors, undertaken by Raymond, abbot of Fitero, and Diego Velasquez in 1158, after it had been abandoned by the Templars, is famous on account of its having originated the Order of the Knights of Calatrava, which was instituted at Calatrava in 1158, by King Sancho III. of Castile, and was at several periods associated with the Cistercian monks. Their almost uniform success against the Moors gave rise to rashness, and in 1197 they were defeated and nearly exterminated, the survivors transferring the seat to the castle of Salvatierra. In 1523 the grand-mastership was transferred to the crown by a papal bull, the knights being permitted to marry once by way of compensation for their loss of independence. Since 1808 the body has been continued as an order of merit.

Calaveras, an inland county of California, E. from San Francisco, with a picturesquely varied surface, including hills, cañons, prairies, and forests of oak and pine, besides a grove of mammoth trees that attracts many visitors. The county is rich in granite, quartz, limestone, and slate, and copper and gold are mined. Area, about 900 sq. m.; pop. (1880) 9094.

Calcareous, in Chemistry, is a term applied to substances containing much lime (Lat. *calx*). Thus *Calcareous waters* are those which hold in solution much carbonate and sulphate of lime, and which are generally known as hard waters, and form a deposit in kettles and other vessels when heated therein.—*Calcareous rocks* are those in which lime forms the prevailing element. They may be chemically formed, as in the case of tufas, where a saturated solution of carbonate of lime in water is deposited from evaporation or other causes; but they are generally aqueous rocks, the materials of which are supplied by animal remains. Thus, many rocks, like the mountain-limestone, are composed of shells, corals, and encrinurites; while others, like chalk, consist largely of foraminifera and fragments of other marine organisms. A crystalline structure, varying in degree from the partially crystallised carboniferous limestones to the saccharine statuary marble, is produced in calcareous rocks by metamorphic action. Oolite is a variety of limestone composed of small egg-like grains resembling the roe of fish. The existence of lime in rocks can always be detected by the application of dilute hydrochloric acid, when it effervesces from the liberation of the carbonic acid. Pure lime is obtained from calcareous rocks by calcining them—i.e. by driving off the carbonic acid and other

volatile matter by heat.—*Calcareous soils* are produced from the disintegration of calcareous rocks. When the rocks are perfectly pure, they generally yield barren soils, as in many chalk and limestone districts of Britain; but when the lime is mixed with clay, so as to form marl, and has a little vegetable matter added, it forms an excellent though rather light soil. Calcareous soils are difficult of drainage, owing to the property that soft lime has of retaining water, although it easily yields it up by evaporation. Such soils are consequently soon dry at the surface after rain, but yet rarely suffer severely from drought.

Calcareous Tufa, or CALC-SINTER, consists of carbonate of lime, and is a deposition from springs, streams, or underground water, from which it is precipitated partly by the escape of carbonic acid which acts as a solvent, and partly by evaporation of the water. It is usually white, creamy-white, yellowish, or brownish in colour, but other hues occur, and variegated and mottled varieties are not uncommon. It is of variable texture and consistency; some kinds being rather soft, brittle, and friable, and porous or cellular. These cellular varieties have been deposited from the waters of springs, and often contain vegetable and animal remains, as leaves, twigs, nuts, moss, insects, land and freshwater shells, &c. The so-called 'petrifying springs' of Mortlock afford a good example of the formation of calcareous tufa. In some regions the deposition from calcareous waters is on a very extensive scale, as along the river Arno, at Tivoli, near Rome, where calcareous tufa occurs in masses many feet in thickness. In that district the formation is harder and more compact, and under the name of *travertino* is used as a building stone at Rome. Calcareous tufa is abundantly deposited from thermal springs, as in the Yellowstone Region, North America. The calcareous incrustations so commonly seen in caverns in limestone rocks are varieties of calcareous tufa. They are known as *Stalactites* and *Stalagmites* (q.v.).

Calceolaria (Lat. *calceolus*, 'a little shoe'), a South American genus of Scrophulariaceae (q.v.), ranging along the western slope of the Andes and southwards to the islands. Several species have reached the Falkland Islands, and two reached New Zealand. The species are undershrubs or herbs, mostly perennial, and have terminal panicles or cymes of showy flowers of the familiar two-lipped slipper, or 'fisherman's basket'-like flowers. The colours in this genus vary greatly, and florists have produced innumerable hybrids and varieties since they were introduced about 1830. They are largely cultivated as half-hardy or greenhouse plants, and are easily propagated by cuttings; they grow freely, but require to be well watered. Some of the species are used in South America for dyeing.

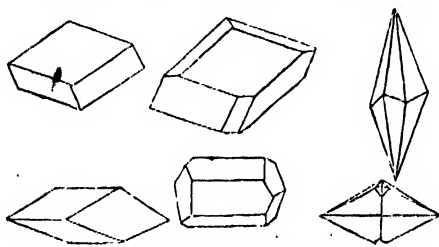
Calchas, the famous soothsayer of the Greeks in the Trojan war, was the son of Thestor and Mycene. He foretold the length of the siege, and when the fleet was detained at Aulis by adverse winds, demanded the sacrifice of Iphigenia. He is said to have died at Colophon, from chagrin at being surpassed in soothsaying by one Mopsus.

Calcareous Epoch, one of the subordinate divisions of the Lower Silurian System of North America. The division is characterised by the presence of calcareous sandstones and limestones. In Scotland a subdivision of the Carboniferous System (q.v.) is known as the Calcareous Sandstone group.

Calcination, or CALCINING (see CALX), is the process of heating or roasting in furnaces or in heaps the various metallic ores. It is resorted to as the first stage in the extraction of the majority

of the common metals from their ores, and is essentially a process of oxidation.

Calcite, CALCAREOUS SPAR, or CALC-SPAR, the name usually given by mineralogists to carbonate of lime, rhombohedral in its crystallisation. It differs from aragonite only in crystallisation (see ARAGONITE). Calcite is one of the commonest minerals. Marble, for example, is composed of small crystalline granules of this mineral. It is abundantly met with in very many rocks as a secondary mineral; that is to say, it is a decomposition-product—the result of the chemical alteration of various rock-constituents, such as the felspars. Thus it frequently occurs in the cracks, fissures, and vesicles of igneous rocks (see AMYGDALOID). It often completely fills cavities in rocks of various origin; and although it has been prevented by want of space from assuming a crystalline form, is readily divided by the knife and hammer into rhomboids, the primary form of its



Calcite: various forms of Crystals.

crystals being a rhomboid, of which the greatest angles are $105^{\circ} 5'$. Its secondary forms are more numerous than those of any other mineral. More than seven hundred have been observed. One of the most common, a rather elongated pyramid, is sometimes called Dog-tooth Spar. Calcite is colourless and transparent, except in consequence of impurities which may be present in it; and when perfectly transparent, it exhibits in a high degree the property of double refraction of light, which was first discovered in it by Bartholinus. The presence of foreign substances frequently renders calcite gray, blue, green, yellow, red, brown, or even black.

The name Iceland Spar has often been given to calcite, at least to the finest colourless and transparent variety, because it is found in Iceland, filling up clefts and cavities in the basalt-rocks of that region. Slate Spar is a lamellar variety, often with a shining, pearly lustre, and a greasy feel, and is found in Wicklow in Ireland, Glen Tilt in Scotland, and Kongsberg in Norway.

Calcium (sym. Ca, atomic weight 40) is the metal present in chalk, stucco, and other compounds of lime. It may be obtained by passing a powerful current of electricity through fused chloride of calcium, CaCl_2 , when the metal separates in minute globules. It is a yellowish-white metal, can be rolled into sheets, and hammered into leaves, and is intermediate between lead and gold in hardness. It has a specific gravity of 1.578; being more than a half denser than water. At ordinary temperatures, it slowly tarnishes by oxidation; and when placed in contact with water, it rapidly decomposes the water, H_2O , forming lime, CaO , whilst hydrogen escapes. To be retained bright, calcium must be kept under the surface of naphtha. At a red heat, it melts and burns with a dazzling white light, accompanied by scintillations.

Calcium is of no value in the arts, but many of its compounds are of the highest importance. When oxidised, either by exposure to air, or by

combustion, it forms an oxide, Lime (q.v.), having the composition of 40 parts of calcium and 16 parts of oxygen. This, when united with water, yields a hydrate, slaked lime.

Sulphate of calcium, CaSO_4 , is Gypsum (q.v.) or plaster of Paris. It is present in most drinking-waters, rendering them *permanently hard*, so called because the sulphate of calcium is not precipitated by boiling the water. Temporary hardness, due to the presence of carbonate of calcium, CaCO_3 , or chalk, is removable by boiling, when the carbonate, which is retained in solution as bicarbonate, is readily decomposed into Carbonic Acid (q.v.), which escapes as gas, and chalk, which falls to the bottom.

The salts of calcium do not seem to possess any medicinal properties characteristic of the metal itself. They are, however, extensively used—e.g. the phosphate, to supply phosphorus for the bones and nerves, the carbonate as an antacid, and so on, with other salts.

Calculating Machines. From early times the necessity of aids to calculation has been felt and has been met by simple contrivances, such as the Abacus, Shwanpan, Napier's Bones, the Vernier, Sliding Rules, and so on. Many of these are very interesting, but they cannot properly be classed with calculating machines. The earliest with which we are acquainted is one invented by Pascal about 1642. The addition of each place of figures was performed separately, and subtraction was effected by the addition of the numerical complements. It is not likely that even Pascal himself found this machine of any practical use. In 1666 Sir T. Moreland invented a machine, about 3 by 4½ inches in size, for adding sums of money. In this machine, as in that of Pascal, the addition of each place or order was made separately by hand. Each place had a pair of wheels unconnected with its neighbours, and the carriages were transferred by hand. The multiplication machine of the same inventor was really nothing more than Napier's Bones on circles instead of strips. Some years later, Leibnitz conceived the idea of an enlarged machine which seems to have been designed for important astronomical calculations, the necessity for which had arisen from the discoveries of Galileo, Kepler, and the other astronomers of that century. He spent many years of his life, and more than 24,000 thalers (£3600) on this project, but all that remains is a model still preserved at Göttingen. In 1775 Viscount Mahon, afterwards Earl Stanhope, invented a machine which performs the four rules of arithmetic. It is about 6 by 10 by 15 inches in size. The operator, using both hands, pushes a frame containing twelve prisms of ten sides each, mounted side by side, to and fro in the line of their axes, performing in one direction addition, and in the other subtraction. Each face of the prism has a rack, which engages a toothed wheel, and turns it as many teeth as there are teeth in the rack—0, 1, 2, &c. as required. There is a simple hand adjustment which works like the 'points' of a railway, and shunts the prisms out of the way on each return motion, during which the carriage is done. The set of prisms can be moved laterally for stepping. Multiplication and division are done by successive addition and subtraction. In 1777 a second machine on the same lines was constructed. In 1779 a German named Halm invented a circular machine; followed in 1784 by another by Müller, likewise circular and worked by a handle at the centre. Subtraction was not done directly, but the arithmetical complement was read off instead of the sum. Stepping was done by shifting the upper plate, multiplication and division by successive addition and subtraction. It was about 12 inches outside diameter.

The next machine invented was one of a very different type. About 1812 Charles Babbage (q.v.), then a student at Cambridge, conceived the idea that logarithmic, trigonometric, and other tables could be calculated by the method of 'differences' by a machine capable of performing only simple addition. An immense range of nautical and astronomical tables lies within these limits, and can be produced by calculating the first few differences, and setting them in the machine. About 1822 he had made a small trial piece, and soon after undertook to superintend, without payment, the construction for the government of a machine to calculate and print such tables. It would have been, when completed, about 6 feet high by 3 broad and 1 deep, and would have had six columns of differences of eighteen or twenty places each. It was never completed, and the design was abandoned in 1842. It is enough here to say that the engagement was to the inventor a disaster, harassing him continually through twenty years; and to government all that remains is a fragment of a beautiful machine which does its work with unerring accuracy, but is useless. It stands in the South Kensington Museum.

About 1850 M. Thomas of Colmar produced a calculating machine of a high degree of excellence, which performs the four rules of arithmetic with surprising speed, and is in extensive use. In this machine, instead of the prism with racks, as in Stanhope's machine, there is a cylinder, on the different sections of which are successively 0, 1, 2, 3, &c. teeth; with each cylinder is a toothed wheel sliding on its axis, and this being brought by a finger-knob opposite the proper section of the cylinder, 0, 1, 2, 3, &c., as required, is added. These cylinders are all moved simultaneously in one direction. The carriage is made afterwards successively. One multiple is produced by each turn of the handle. The stepping is done by raising a long frame or lid on hinges, moving it down one place and letting it fall into the new position. There are very beautiful contrivances for reversing the motion for subtraction, for destroying the momentum of the moving parts, and for locking them, which can only be alluded to here; unfortunately, the whole is complicated and somewhat delicate. It requires careful handling, as indeed do all such machines.

In 1883 Mr J. Edmonson of Halifax patented a circular machine on the general lines of Thomas', but modified to suit the circular arrangement. Besides the beauty and ingenuity of its contrivance, it has several considerable recommendations: the computer is able to deal with one result after another, without the necessity of repeated transfers, every one of which, done by hand, is a fertile source of error. Another machine by Mr Tate follows closely the details of Thomas' machine; but a multitude of minor parts are discarded, and friction is relied on to destroy the momentum of the moving parts the instant the driving power ceases.

The analytical engine of Charles Babbage does not exist except on paper, but is too remarkable to be passed over. There are about 400 detailed drawings to scale; many volumes of notes and rough sketches and elaborate notations. In 1833, when the fragment of the difference engine was put together, Babbage found that several surprising results which had not been anticipated could be easily produced by causing the table to influence the last difference in various ways. Some of these results are used as illustrations in his book, the *Ninth Bridgewater Treatise* (Lond. 1838). He was thus led to the idea of placing the axes round a large central wheel. He called this arrangement 'the engine eating its own tail.' Then came the thought of governing the engine by

quite independent means, and the general idea of the analytical engine was soon complete. Briefly, it may be described as a machine to calculate the numerical value, or values, of any formula, or function, of which the mathematician can indicate the method of solution. It was to be governed by cards very similar to the cards used in Jacquard's loom; these having been supplied would guide the engine to make the right operation, at the right time, on the right quantities. Each function would require its own set of cards, which would make the engine special for the development of that particular function, with any constants that might at any time be desired. It was to be absolutely automatic, the 'slave of the mathematician, and relieving him of the drudgery of computing. It was of course to print the results.

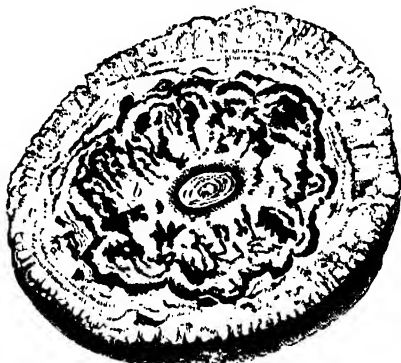
Calculus, or **STONE** (in Medicine), a hard concretion formed within the animal body, in consequence of the deposition in the solid form of matters which usually remain in solution (see **CONCRETION**). The calculi most commonly met with and of most importance are those formed in the kidneys or bladder (*Urinary Calculus*), and those formed in the gall-bladder or biliary ducts (*Biliary Calculus*). Both of these give rise to very painful symptoms, and may even threaten life.

Urinary Calculus is a disease of all ages, but most common in early and in advanced life and in the male sex. It is also very frequent in gouty persons, or among those who pursue sedentary occupations, and live freely. It is rare among those who live much in the open air, or who take much violent exercise, and use little animal food and wine. Among sailors it is peculiarly rare. In certain parts of the country the disease is said to be frequent, as in Norfolk, and perhaps along the east coast of Scotland. In some parts of India, too, where some of the predisposing circumstances mentioned above can hardly be said to prevail, stone is by no means uncommon. It would appear, therefore, that the predisposing causes of calculus are still very imperfectly understood. In its early stages the disease usually presents itself in the form of *Gravel*, shown by the passage of numerous very small portions of gritty concretions, which may be observed in the urine as a deposit like sand, or like small grains of Cayenne pepper. When such deposits occur frequently, especially if they are present at the time of passing the urine, and not merely after it has cooled, there is reason to apprehend the formation of calculus. If, in these circumstances, there are pains of a dull character in the loins, with occasional twinges of sharper suffering, no time should be lost in seeking medical advice. If a fit of very severe pain should occur in a person for some time affected with gravel, if the urine be bloody, if agonising twinges, commencing in the loins, sting downwards into the thigh or the groin, it is probable that a stone has already formed in the kidney, and is being displaced towards the bladder. Calculus in the bladder is at first attended with little suffering, as compared with that caused by the stone in its passage downwards from the kidney; but unless removed or evacuated, the calculus is sure to enlarge, and it then becomes the cause of one of the most painful diseases that afflict humanity. The existence of a stone in the bladder, however, should never be taken for granted without a surgical examination, as all the symptoms are deceptive in certain cases. The most striking, and perhaps the most trustworthy evidence of stone in the bladder, apart from the use of the sound (see **LITHOTOMY**), is smarting and burning pain experienced after the bladder has been emptied, together with occasional presence of blood in the urine. The correct appreciation of

all the symptoms, however, demands considerable familiarity with such cases.

The discovery of the tendency to urinary calculus at an early period of its growth has been greatly aided by the use of the microscope and of chemical tests. Generally speaking, it may be said that whenever the urine, after standing for a few hours, can be observed habitually to contain more sediment than a very slight cloudiness towards the bottom of the vessel, there is room for careful inquiry into the existence of some derangement of the health. But sediments are not all equally apt to determine calculus, nor is the treatment of the different kinds of sediment at all similar; care should therefore be taken to determine, from time to time, whether the character of the sediment may have undergone a change, so that the treatment may be adapted accordingly.

The chief varieties of urinary calculus are—(1) uric acid (red sand) and urate of ammonia; (2) oxalate of lime; and (3) phosphates of ammonia, magnesia, lime, &c. Calculi formed of other substances do occur, but much less frequently. Calculi are sometimes found to be composed of numerous successive layers, having a perfectly distinct chemical composition. Urates and phosphates in particular frequently succeed each other, and form what is called an alternating calculus.



Alternating Calculus :

a, uric acid nucleus; b, oxalate of lime; c, phosphates of lime, and of magnesia and ammonia.

When calculus has once fairly formed in the urinary passages, it seems probable that no absolute cure exists except the removal of it, if possible, from the body (see LITHOTOMY and LITHOTRITY); but in the stage of gravel, and still more in the earlier stages detected by careful examination of the urine, much may be done to check the tendency to this distressing and dangerous malady. The chief remedies consist in careful regulation of the diet and mode of living, together with the use of solvents adapted to the particular form of deposit found to be habitually present. See URINE.

Biliary Calculi or *Gall-stones* almost invariably consist of Cholesterin (q.v.) with a variable proportion of biliary pigments, lime, mucus, &c. They are generally formed in the gall-bladder, and while they remain there often give rise to no inconvenience. Their presence is usually first revealed by their passing from the gall-bladder into the cystic duct (see BILE, LIVER), and giving rise to the train of symptoms known as *biliary colic*. Severe pain, either sudden or gradual in its onset, is felt just below the ribs on the right side, and radiating in various directions, but most commonly upwards. It is almost always accompanied by vomiting. When the calculus reaches the common bile-duct it closes it for the time, and if it does not pass

onward into the intestine within a few hours, leads to jaundice. The pain in a severe case is probably the most intense of all known forms of suffering. Happily the attack rarely lasts beyond a few days at most; but, as gall-stones seldom occur singly, is very likely to be repeated at some subsequent period. During such an attack copious draughts of hot water containing bicarbonate of soda in solution often give relief; but large doses of morphia or opium are generally required to control the pain. When the calculus has reached the intestine it is passed onwards and voided with the faeces.

Though in the majority of cases gall-stones are thus harmlessly discharged, they may give rise to inflammation, ulceration, or other dangerous complications at any part of their course—in the gall-bladder, the bile-ducts, or the intestines.

The cause of their formation is obscure. They are more common in the female sex, and rare before the age of thirty. Regular habits, plenty of exercise, and simple diet are believed to be the most important means of preventing their formation.

During the last ten years the gall-bladder has frequently been opened with success for the removal of gall-stones which were causing serious symptoms; and this operation (cholecystotomy) has now a recognised place in surgery.

Calculus, DIFFERENTIAL and INTEGRAL, sometimes called the Infinitesimal Calculus. The scope of the calculus ranges over the whole field of applied mathematics, and an account of its development would involve an account of the chief difficulties that have been overcome in the problems offered by astronomy, mechanics, engineering, and physical science generally. The following is a sketch of the origin, notions, and method of the calculus.

The invention of the calculus culminated with Leibnitz and Newton in the latter half of the 17th century. There need be no surprise at the joint discovery, for after the work of Archimedes, Cavalieri, Roberval, Fermat, Barrow, Wallis, and others, matters were ripe for the generalisation attained by Leibnitz and Newton. The calculus as propounded by these two mathematicians showed considerable diversity of detail. As a basis for the theory, Newton took his methods of *prime and ultimate ratios* and *fluents* (see FLUXIONS) both fundamentally the same idea, and developed from the ancient notion of *Exhaustions*, while Leibnitz employed his method of *Infinitesimals* (see INFINITE) developed from the *Indivisibles* of Cavalieri as used by Wallis and others. The notations adopted were quite different; and of the two notations that of Leibnitz has proved itself the better, although in Britain Newton's did not give way till well into the 19th century.

After considerable fluctuation of opinion as to the proper foundation for the theory of the calculus, the method of *Limits*, a modification of Newton's methods, is now almost universally adopted. Besides those mentioned, the only other method ever received with favour was Lagrange's method of *Derived Functions*.

In the calculus all quantities except mere constants are regarded as changing from one value to another by continuous growth or according to Leibnitz by infinitesimal differences or *differentials*; and it will help to the understanding of the subject if we divide such quantities into three groups, a classification which is convenient for our present purpose rather than mathematically essential.

(1) The quantity, or quantities, in which the growth originates—i.e. quantities which vary independently of each other and of all other quantities, and which are hence called the *independent variables*.

(2) The quantities whose value depends on the

value of the independent variables, and which are variously named *dependent variables*, or *functions* of the independent variables (see FUNCTION), or, with special reference to the quantities of group 3, *primitive functions*. The quantities of groups 1 and 2 were called *fluents* by Newton. Taking x as the independent variable we have functions of x such as (i.) x^2 , (ii.) $\frac{1}{2}x^3 + C$, (iii.) e^x , (iv.) $\tan x$, (v.) $F(x)$, where F is a sign denoting some function of x not specified. It is often convenient to use a single letter (as y) to denote such functions and then we have the relations $y = x^2$, $y = \frac{1}{2}x^3 + C$, $y = F(x)$, &c., where y is called the dependent variable.

(3) The third group of quantities is what distinguishes the calculus from ordinary algebra, which deals only with the other two, and the discovery by Leibnitz and Newton of the fundamental importance of this group may be said to constitute the discovery of the calculus. These quantities, which are in general, like group 2, functions of the independent variables, are derived in a peculiar way from groups 1 and 2. They express the *rate of change of a function with respect to its independent variable or variables*. Such a rate is called a *derived function* (denoted by $f'(x)$ if the primitive function be for example $y = f(x)$) or a *differential co-efficient* (denoted by $\frac{df(x)}{dx}$ or $\frac{dy}{dx}$). Group 3, as here defined, corresponds very nearly to what Newton called *fluxions*. The derived functions of the first four primitive functions given as examples of group 2, are (i.) $2x$, (ii.) x^2 , (iii.) e^x , and (iv.) $\sec^2 x$.

Also since $f'(x)$ or dy/dx is in general a function of x , its rate of change with respect to x may be considered, and we thus get a second derived function ($f''(x)$), or second differential co-efficient (d^2y/dx^2). Similarly $f''(x)$ may be treated, and so on.

And now we are in a position to indicate the distinction (from the point of view of pure mathematics at least) between the Differential Calculus and the Integral Calculus. The differential calculus seeks to find the derived function when the primitive function is given, while the integral calculus seeks conversely to find the primitive function when the derived function is given.

The treatment of derived functions involves peculiar difficulties, to overcome which various schemes, as already indicated, have been proposed. We shall try to give a clear idea of the meaning of a Limit, and shall then show how this notion meets the case.

Definition.—If there be a fixed magnitude to which a variable magnitude can be made as nearly equal as we please, and if it be impossible that the variable magnitude can ever be exactly equal to this fixed magnitude, the fixed magnitude is called the limit of the variable magnitude.

Fundamental Proposition.—If two variable magnitudes be always equal to one another while each approaches its limit, then their limits are equal to one another. (An indirect proof of this is easy.)

Example: To prove that a circle is equal in area to the triangle whose base is equal to the circumference, and whose height is equal to the radius of the circle. About the circle describe any regular polygon ABCDEF. Make a triangle whose base $A'A''$ is equal to the perimeter of the polygon, and whose height is equal to the radius of the circle. In the line $A'A''$ suppose $A'P$ equal to the circumference of the circle. Then by increasing the number of sides of the polygon, we can make its area as nearly equal to the area of the circle as we please, but never quite equal to the area of the circle; hence by our definition the area of the circle is the limit of the area of the polygon.

Similarly the triangle $O'A'P'$ is the limit of the triangle $O'A'A''$. Now, the polygon (a varying magnitude) is always equal to the triangle $O'A'A''$.

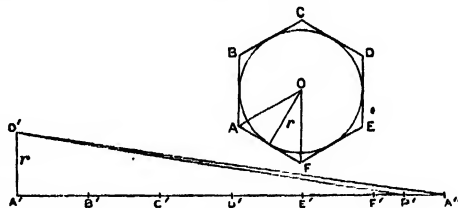


Fig. 1.

(a varying magnitude), therefore, by our fundamental proposition, the limits of these varying magnitudes—i.e. the circle and the triangle $O'A'P'$, must be equal to one another.

In the foregoing geometrical illustration of the use of limits, it will be observed that it is the limits themselves that are all-important, the polygon and the triangle $O'A'A''$ being mere auxiliaries; and so it is always. We shall now take a typical example from the calculus to show the use of limits in the finding of a rate.

Suppose x to be an independent variable, and $y = x^2$ the function under consideration, let us seek to find (1) the average rate of change of x^2 with respect to the independent variable when the independent variable changes from x to $x + \Delta x$, and (2) the limit (if there be one) of this average rate as the interval Δx is diminished.

We take Δx to indicate the change made on x ; let us take Δy to indicate the resulting change in y .

We have $y + \Delta y = (x + \Delta x)^2$
 $\therefore x^2 + 2x\Delta x + (\Delta x)^2$;
 and $y = x^2$
 $\therefore \Delta y = 2x\Delta x + (\Delta x)^2$. (1)

Now $\Delta y/\Delta x$ is the measure of the average rate we seek, and from (1) we have

$$\Delta y/\Delta x = 2x + \Delta x, \quad (2)$$

which is the answer to the first part of our question. For the rest, we remark that by diminishing Δx we can make $2x + \Delta x$ as nearly equal to $2x$ as we please, but never quite equal to $2x$; hence $2x$ is, by our definition of a limit, the limit of $\Delta y/\Delta x$.

This limit is denoted by $\frac{dy}{dx}$. It might be denoted by a/β or any other symbol, only the presence and position of y and x in the symbol $\frac{dy}{dx}$ serve conveniently to show of what ratio $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is the limit.

dy/dx is called, as has been said, the differential coefficient of y with respect to x , and it may be interesting to get an indication of the origin of this inconveniently lengthy title. In the expansion of $(x + \Delta x)^2$ above, Δx , taken 'infinitely small' by Leibnitz, was called a differential, and $2x$, which turns out to be $= dy/dx$, is the coefficient of the differential; hence the name. The notation of the calculus, being as already stated Leibnitz's, naturally fits best to the infinitesimal theory, but even in quarters where the infinitesimal theory is rejected, the language as well as the notation is often retained for its practical convenience, just as the language of the 'two fluid' theory is kept up in electricity, though the two fluid theory is superseded.

The purely mathematical part of the calculus is concerned largely with the devices for finding the limits of all sorts of functions, as in the above example; and it is only when the calculus is to

be applied to an actual problem, that the use of these limits becomes apparent. We will apply the foregoing result to a problem in mechanics.

Problem.—To find the speed at the end of x seconds of a body which, starting from rest, passes over x^2 feet in x seconds.

Consider the speed at the end of x seconds in relation to the average speed during an immediately succeeding interval. Evidently the speed at the end of x seconds is the limit of the average speed in question, for the average speed can be made as nearly equal as we please to the speed at the beginning of the interval by taking the interval short enough, and the average speed during the interval can never be quite equal to the speed at the beginning. Now the average speed is measured by the length described, divided by the time taken, and is therefore equal to what we denoted by $\Delta y / \Delta x$, hence by our fundamental proposition in limits, the actual speed at the end of x seconds is equal to $\frac{dy}{dx}$ —i.e. is $2x$ feet per second.

Any trouble that has arisen in accepting limits as the basis of the calculus has been due to the adoption (too frequent unfortunately) of a vicious form of the fundamental proposition, which, for the sake of warning, we shall give here. It is as follows:

Suppose A and B to be equal varying quantities, and L/A , L/B to be their limits.

Since $A = L/A + q$ where q is an 'infinitely small' or 'infinitely small' quantity, let us say

$A = L/A$ ultimately (and make an indefinitely small error). (1)

Similarly $B = L/B$ ultimately (another indefinitely small error). (2)

Now $A = B$ (by supposition).

Therefore $L/A = L/B$. (By 'compensation of errors' as explained by Berkeley and Carnot.) This argument is not logical, and it is not necessary. Moreover, as equation (1) is usually adopted in the purely mathematical part of the calculus, while equation (2) is adopted in some application probably long after the student has passed equation (1), the compensation of errors is not seen by him, and he feels as if he were always going a little wrong.

The following example is a type of a large class of problems to which the integral calculus is applied.

The curve TPC is traced out by the point P moving so that

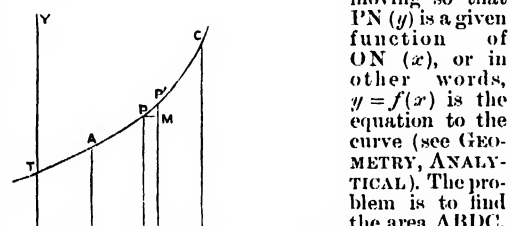


Fig. 2.

PN (y) is a given function of ON (x), or in other words, $y = f(x)$ is the equation to the curve (see GEOMETRY, ANALYTICAL). The problem is to find the area $ABDC$. The area $TONP$ (call it A for brevity) is evidently a function of ON—i.e. of x . Suppose x to change to $x + \Delta x$ —i.e. suppose ON to become ON + NN'. Then A becomes $A + \Delta A$ where

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta A &= PNN'P' \\ &= PNN'M + MP'P \\ &= y \times \Delta x + MP'P \\ &= f(x) \times \Delta x + MP'P \\ \therefore \Delta A / \Delta x &= f(x) + MP'P / \Delta x.\end{aligned}$$

Now it can be shown that the limit of

$f(x) + MP'P / \Delta x$, as Δx is diminished, is $f(x)$, hence equating the two limits, we have

$$\frac{dA}{dx} = f(x).$$

The area $TONP$, therefore, is such a function of x that its derived function is $f(x)$; and the question arises what is the primitive function of which $f(x)$ is the derivative?

If $f(x)$ were for example x^2 , the primitive, or as it is called in this connection the *integral*, would be $\frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$ where C is a constant quantity. In this case the area

$$\begin{aligned}ABDC &= TODC - TOBA \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{3}OD^3 + C\right) - \left(\frac{1}{3}OB^3 + C\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{3}(OD^3 - OB^3);\end{aligned}$$

a result which is expressed as follows:

$$\int_{OB}^{OD} x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}(OD^3 - OB^3).$$

The integral calculus is constantly getting into difficulties through the occurrence in applications of it of functions to be integrated that have never been turned out as results of differentiation, while many of the functions that can be integrated have to undergo tedious transformations to bring them under the form of known derived functions.

The CALCULUS OF VARIATIONS has to take account of changes of *form* as well as of magnitude in the functions mentioned in group 2 above, while the differential and integral calculus, of which the calculus of variations is an offshoot, deals only with changes in magnitude. Such problems as the following fall under its treatment: (1) To find the curve of quickest descent ('brachistochrone') from one given curve to another given curve. It was a special case of this problem proposed in 1696 that gave rise to the calculus of variation. (2) Given the surface of a solid of revolution, to find its form, that the solid contents may be a maximum. (The result of the first problem is a cycloid, of the second a sphere.) Histories of the calculus of variations have been written by Woodhouse (1810) and Todhunter (1861). For CALCULUS OF FINITE DIFFERENCES and CALCULUS OF FUNCTIONS, see the articles DIFFERENCE and FUNCTIONS.

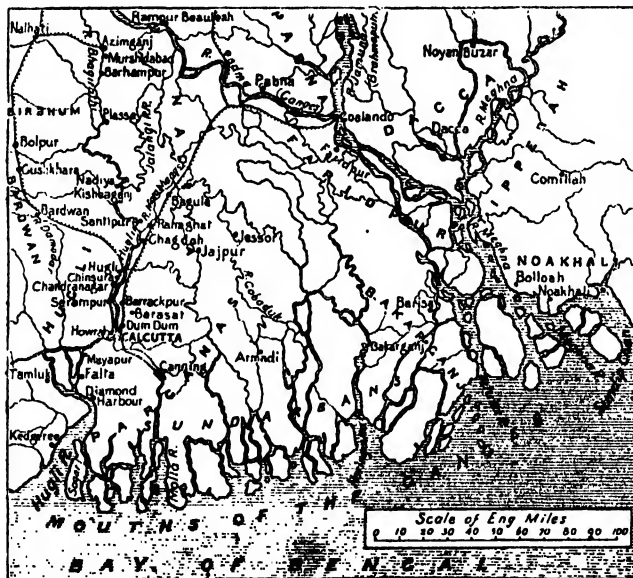
Calcutta, the capital of the province of Bengal, and metropolis of British India, is situated on the left bank of the Húgli (Hooghly), an arm of the Ganges, in 22° 34' N. lat., and 88° 24' E. long., about 80 miles from the sea by the river. Calcutta was founded by Governor Charnock in 1686, by the removal hither from Húgli of the factories of the East India Company. In 1700 three villages surrounding the factories having been conferred upon the company by the Emperor Aurungzebe, in recognition of a present made to his son, Prince Azim, they were forthwith fortified, and received the name of Fort William, in honour of William III. Calcutta is the Anglicised form of Kalikata, as this again is the Moslemised form (1596) of Kali-ghat, a famous shrine of the goddess Kali, which still exists to the south of the city. In 1707 Calcutta had acquired some importance as a town, and was made the seat of a presidency. In 1756, however, a great misfortune befell the rising town; it was unexpectedly attacked by Suraj-ud-Daula (Surajah Dowlah), the Nawáb of Bengal, and yielding after a two days' siege, was the scene of the tragedy of the 'Black Hole' (q.v.). The city remained in the hands of the enemy until seven months afterwards, when Clive and Admiral Watson recaptured it, and afterwards concluded a peace with the Nawáb. Soon after this, and subsequent to the important victory of Plassey, the possessions of the East India Company were greatly extended by grants made

by the emperor of Delhi. In 1772 it superseded Murshidabad as seat of the central government in India; in 1852 it was erected into a municipality. In 1837 the population of the town proper amounted to 229,700; in 1876 it had increased to 409,036, in 1881 to 401,671, or, with port and suburbs, but exclusive of Howrah 684,658—with Howrah, 789,864. Besides these, thousands of the three and a half millions who sleep at night in the surrounding districts of Húgli and the twenty-four Parganas, flock during the day to Calcutta, on foot, by boat, or by railway, to their daily toil. Of the inhabitants 62 per cent. are Hindus, 32·2 Mohammedans, and 4·4 Christians. About 20,000 are Europeans; 20,000 Eurasians; and there are a good many Armenians, Greeks, Jews, Parsees, Chinese, and negroes.

The city extends for about five miles along the river, and is somewhat less than two miles in breadth at its broadest part, the area being nearly 8 sq. m. (30 with suburbs), and is comprised for the most part between the river and the Circular Road, a spacious roadway which marks the landward boundary of the city proper. Howrah and other villages on the opposite side of the river contain the government warehouses, large ironworks and timber-yards, a number of the principal jute-

its armoury contains 80,000 stands of small-arms. Facing the Esplanade, among other fine buildings, is the Government House, a magnificent palace erected (1799-1804) by the Marquis of Wellesley. Beyond this, extending northwards along the river-bank, is the Strand, two miles in length, and 40 feet above low-water, with various ghats or landing-places. It is adorned by many fine buildings, including the custom-house, the new mint, and other government offices, and is lined by a splendid series of jetties for ocean steamers. Among other places of interest are the High Court, the Bengal Government Offices, St Paul's Cathedral, the Scotch kirk (St Andrew's), the Imperial Museum, the town-hall, Bank of Bengal, Jesuits' College, Medical College, university, the domed post-office, and the Treasury. Calcutta has three theatres, several large European hotels, two fine clubs—the Bengal and United Service, four daily English newspapers, and a number of monuments throughout the city, the most noticeable being those to the Marquis of Wellesley, Sir James Outram, and Sir David Ochterlony, the last a column 165 feet high.

Although the European quarter of the town is distinguished for its fine public buildings and commodious dwelling-houses, the quarters occupied by the natives present a very different appearance, their houses being in most instances built of mud or bamboo and mats, and the streets narrow and unpaved. Great havoc was done here by the cyclone of 1864, which destroyed 40,700 native houses; and those of 1867 and 1870 were likewise very destructive. Considerable improvements have now been effected; new and wider streets have been opened through crowded quarters; brick houses are fast replacing the huts, and an extensive system of drainage has been carried out to the no small advantage of the inhabitants. A new municipal bill, with large sanitary provisions, was passed by the Bengal Council in May 1888. The water-supply of Calcutta has been very much improved. Formerly, the water was kept in large tanks, interspersed throughout the city, whence it was borne by water-carriers or *husties* in large leather bags. But since 1865 a supply of excellent water has been obtained from the Húgli, about 15 miles above Calcutta, where it is filtered and sent down by pipes in the



mills, and the great terminus of the East Indian Railway. The appearance of the city as it is approached by the river is very striking; on the left are the Botanical Gardens, destroyed by the cyclones of 1867 and 1870, but since replanted; and the Bishop's College, a handsome Gothic edifice, erected by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and now used as an engineering college; on the right is the suburb of Garden Reach, with the palace in which the ex-king of Oudh resided from the time of the annexation of his territory till his death in 1887; farther on are the government dockyards and the arsenal; beyond these is the Maidan Esplanade, which has been termed the Hyde Park of India, being the favorite place of resort of the *élite* of Calcutta for their evening drive. Here, near the river, lies Fort William, the largest fortress in India, constructed (1757-73) at a cost of £2,000,000, and occupying, with the outworks, an area of 2 sq. m. It is garrisoned by European and native soldiers, mounts 619 guns, and

usual way. In 1888 large new works were under construction, by means of which the daily supply of filtered water is to be raised to 16 million gallons. The result of this has been a marked improvement in the health of the city. Gas has now taken the place of the oil-lamps which were formerly in general use for lighting the streets at night. Tramways have been extensively introduced, and steam tramways run to some of the suburbs. A canal girds a part of the city beyond the Circular Road. A pontoon bridge (1874) connects Calcutta with Howrah, and a project is on foot to substitute a fixed bridge.

The communications of Calcutta afford great facilities for its extensive commerce. There are several lines of railway to various parts of India; the East Indian to Benares, Delhi, &c.; the Eastern Bengal to Culindu; the Calcutta and South-eastern to the mouth of the Ganges; and the Bengal-Nagpur to Bombay. Calcutta is also the headquarters of the Indian Telegraph Depart-

ment. Uninterrupted communication is kept up with Great Britain by numerous and well-appointed steamers and sailing-vessels. Navigation on the Hugli has been greatly improved, and an extensive scheme of docks is in course of construction at Kidderpurr, at an estimated cost of 2½ millions sterling, to be completed in 1895. The river, adjacent to the city, varies in breadth from a quarter of a mile to nearly a mile. Ships of 5000 tons ascend to Calcutta in the usual course, the main difficulty to shipping being the James and Mary shoal, half-way down the river.

The learned societies are mainly of European origin, but several have a considerable native membership. The principal bodies are the Bengal Asiatic Society, founded in 1784 by Sir W. Jones, possessing a fine library; the Dalhousie Institute, for the literary and social improvement of young tradesmen; the Public Health Society; the Microscopical Society; the Photographic Society. The university of Calcutta was founded in 1857, on the same basis as the London University, and exercises functions over Bengal, the North-west Provinces, Oudh, and the Central Provinces. Educational institutions are numerous in Calcutta. Among the principal are the institutions of the Established and Free Churches of Scotland, the Doveton College, the Martinière College, St Xavier's College, and the four government colleges—namely, the Presidency College, the Sanskrit College, the Madrasa or Mohammedan College, and the Bethune Girls' School. The last-named has passed several pupils at the Calcutta University examination for the B.A. degree. There are also a medical college, a school of art, and an engineering college; while in medical hospitals and charities Calcutta is as well endowed as any European city.

Calcutta may be regarded as the great commercial centre of Asia. In 1886-87 the sea-borne trade of the province, including treasure, amounted to £73,191,028, as compared with £68,721,602 in 1885-86, and £73,625,638 in 1883-84. About 95½ per cent. of this trade belongs to Calcutta, the returns in 1886-87 being swollen by an increase in the import of cotton goods to the capital amounting, as compared with the previous year, to 2½ millions sterling. The total cotton imports of Calcutta were thus raised to 13½ millions sterling, the highest recorded up to 1888. Of the total value of Indian produce exported in 1886-87, Calcutta contributed 17½ per cent. in opium, 15 per cent. in jute, 14 per cent. in grains and pulses, 13½ per cent. in tea, 11½ per cent. in oil-seeds, 7½ per cent. in indigo, 7½ per cent. in hides and skins, 4½ per cent. in raw cotton, and 2 per cent. in raw and manufactured silk; while other exports, of which lac, saltpetre, and castor-oil are the most important, made up the balance. Calcutta exported 64 million gunny-bags, valued at £1,040,287; 77,409,796 lb. of tea, valued at £4,622,299; and 7,035,276 cwt. of wheat, valued at £2,028,163. In 1887 the port was entered by 349 sailing-vessels, of 507,862 gross tonnage, and by 676 steamers of 1,646,677 gross tonnage, the latter having an average burden of 2435 tons. As a great central depot for the richest parts of India, including the Ganges valley and Assam, Calcutta has an extensive inland trade. In 1887 the imports by rail, steamer, and country boat, amounted to £60,955,973, and the exports to £24,942,353. An attempt was made by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce in 1888 to ascertain definitely the comparative trade status of Calcutta and Bombay, but it was found that the widely different character of the trade of the two ports, and the fact that the government of India statistics were compiled on a basis altogether different from that adopted by the Customs, made a comparison impossible. At the utmost, how-

ever, Bombay has not more than two-thirds of the trade of Calcutta. As a place of residence Calcutta is perhaps the pleasantest city in India. The mean temperatures of December and May, the coldest and hottest months, are 68°0' and 86°1' respectively. The cost of living is expensive for India, and the shops (many branches of London firms) are very fine.

Caldecott, RANDOLPH, artist, was born at Chester on the 22d of March 1846, and was a clerk in a bank, first at Whitechurch (1861-67) and then at Manchester (1867-72). Having developed a great talent for art at an early age, he was encouraged by his success in the London illustrated papers to remove to the metropolis. His health, however, soon gave way, and, after vain attempts to restore it by trips abroad, he died at St Augustine, in Florida, on the 12th of February 1886. Randolph Caldecott was without an equal as the exponent of the humours of animal life and the joys of the country-house and hunting-field. Although his heart was not in journalistic work, he contributed frequently to *Punch* and the *Graphic*, and occasionally exhibited at the Royal Academy, the Dudley, and the Grosvenor Galleries. In 1882 he became a member of the Institute of Painters in Water-colours. Randolph Caldecott will chiefly be remembered by the admirable *Caldecott's Picture-books*, which began in 1878 with *John Gilpin* and *The House that Jack Built*. He also illustrated Washington Irving's *Old Christmas* (1875), and *Bracebridge Hall* (1877); Mrs Comyns Carr's *North Italian Folk* (1878); Mr Blackburn's *Breton Folk* (1880); and Mrs Ewing's *Daddy Darwin's Dovecote and Jackanapes* (1884). See his *Personal Memoir* by Mr Blackburn (1886).

Calderon, PHILIP HERMOGENES, R.A., painter, born at Poitiers of Spanish parentage in 1833, studied in London and Paris, and regularly contributed to the Royal Academy from 1853, his subjects being chiefly historical or imaginative. He was elected an Associate in 1864, and an Academician in 1867. He exhibited at the Paris International Exhibitions of 1867 and 1878, receiving at the former the first medal awarded to English art, and at the latter a first-class medal and the Legion of Honour. In 1887 he was appointed keeper of the Royal Academy.

Calderon de la Barca, PEDRO, Spain's greatest dramatist, was born of a good old family at Madrid, 17th January 1600, and, after four years' schooling under the Jesuits, from 1613 to 1619 studied law and philosophy at Salamanca. Already in 1614 he had written his first play, and at the poetical contests of 1620 and 1622 had won Lope de Vega's praises, when in 1625 he chose the profession of arms, and, during ten years' service in the Milanese and in Flanders, saw much of men and manners that he afterwards utilised. Nor meanwhile did he neglect the muse, but wrote many dramas which were acted with great applause; so that, on Lope's death in 1635, he was summoned by Philip IV. to Madrid, appointed a sort of master of the revels, and made, two years later, a knight of the order of Santiago. In 1640 the rebellion in Catalonia roused him once more to take the field; but in 1651 he entered, like Lope, the priesthood, and in 1653 withdrew to the 'chantry of the new kings' at Toledo. Ten years went by, and he was recalled to court, to the resumption of his dramatic labours, receiving, with other preferments, the post of chaplain of honour to Philip, whose death, in 1665, deprived him of a generous *Mecenas*. Yet still he continued to write for the court, the church, and the public theatres, till, on 25th May 1681, in the words of his friend, De Solis, 'he died, as they say the swan dies, singing.' His remains, already

translated from their first resting-place in 1841, in 1860 were finally laid in Spain's new pantheon, the former convent of St Francis in Madrid. A bronze statue of him was unveiled in 1880; and his bicentenary was celebrated with great splendour in the May of the following year.

Castilian and Catholic to the backbone, Calderon wrote for his contemporaries, his fellow-countrymen, his co-religionists, not for posterity or the outer world. Hence, though his plays still hold their own in Spain, to that outer world he must ever be *caviare*. It cannot rightly appreciate his perfect fidelity to the Spanish thought and manners of his age; his passion seems to it bombast, his nice points of honour fantastic, and his plots, with their matchless *coups de théâtre*, a very labyrinth for intricacy. This, though Schlegel pronounced him 'the fourth in a mighty quaternion, with Homer, Dante, and Shakespeare.' This, too, in spite of the many fine English versions of his masterpieces; and in spite of the verdict of a great English critic, that, 'though inferior to Shakespeare in knowledge of humanity and in power of developing his characters from within, to Æschylus in solemn passion, to Sophocles in the structure of his plays and in statuesque power of grouping, to Goethe in metaphysical subtlety—yet in pure poetry Calderon is the equal of them all, and second to none of them as a master of stage effect.' His *autos sacramentales*, outdoor plays for the festival of Corpus Christi, number 72, and have been divided into seven classes—biblical, classical, ethical, and so forth; the finest of them is *El Divino Orfeo*. Of his regular dramas 118 are extant. There are the religious plays (such as the Faust-like *Mágico Prodigioso* and *El Purgatorio de San Patricio*); the historical (*El Príncipe Constante*—Prince Ferdinand of Portugal); and the philosophic (*La Vida es Sueño*). There are the 'cloak and sword' plays (*La Dama Duende*, 'The Fairy Lady'), and the dramas of passion (*El Médico de su Honra*, *El Pintor de su Deshonra*, and *El Mayor Mostruo los Celos*, 'No monster like jealousy'). There are many others; but classification becomes tedious and difficult; and it is these eight plays, with a dozen more, that are best known to English readers through the renderings of one or more of the following translators: Shelley (a fine fragment from *The Magician*); Denis McCarthy (10 plays, 4 vols. 1853-73); Edward Fitzgerald (8 plays, 3 vols. 1853, *et seq.*); Archbishop Trench (2 plays, with essay on 'Life and Genius,' 1856; 2d ed. 1880); and N. MacColl (4 plays, 1888).

The best edition of the *autos* is that of Apontes (6 vols. Madrid, 1759-60), and there is a good German translation of them by Lorinser (18 vols. 2d ed. 1882); the best editions of the plays are by Hartzenbusch (4 vols. Madrid, 1848-50), and García Ramón (Madrid, 1882). See the German works of Schack (1846), Fr. Schmidt (1857), and Fastenrath (1881-82); vol. ii. of Ticknor's *Spanish Literature* (1849); Lasso de la Vega's *Estudio de las Obras de Calderon* (1881); and Miss Hasell's *Calderon* ('Foreign Classics Series,' 1879).

Calderwood, DAVID, an eminent Scottish divine and ecclesiastical historian, was born in 1575, it is thought at Dalkeith, and after studying at the university of Edinburgh, was in 1604 ordained minister of Crailing, Roxburghshire. Opposed to the designs of James VI. for the establishment of Episcopacy, in 1617 he joined in a protest against a bill, then before the Scots parliament, for granting the power of making new laws for the church to an ecclesiastical council appointed by the king, and in consequence he was summoned before the High Commission at St Andrews, committed to prison for contumacy, and then banished the kingdom. He retired to Holland, and in 1623 published there, under the anagrammatic

pseudonym of 'Edwardus Didoclavius,' his celebrated controversial work, *Altare Damascenum*, in which he rigorously examined the origin and authority of Episcopacy. After King James's death in 1625, he returned to Scotland, and for some years was engaged collecting all the memorials relating to the ecclesiastical affairs of Scotland, from the beginning of the Reformation there to the death of James VI. In 1640 he became minister of Pencatland, Haddingtonshire; and in 1643 was appointed one of the committee for drawing up the *Directory for Public Worship in Scotland*. He died at Jedburgh in 1650. From the original MS. of his *History of the Kirk of Scotland*, preserved in the British Museum, an edition was printed for the Wodrow Society (8 vols. Edin. 1842-45).

Caledonia, the name applied by the Romans to the country north of the Wall of Antoninus, which ran between the Firths of Forth and Clyde. First occurring in Lucan (1st century A.D.), it was probably, like *Britannia*, a Latin coinage from a native name—*Calido*. The 'Caledonian Forest' (Lat. *Caledonius Saltus* or *Silva Caledonia*; Welsh *Cofed Celyddon*; the *Kaledonius Drums* of Ptolemy) was a thick wood of birch and hazel extending from the west of the district of Menteith to Dunkeld (Gaelic *Dumcalden* or *Dunchallann*, 'town or stronghold of the Caledonians'). By Scott and others the name *Caledonia* has been poetically applied to the whole of Scotland. See Rhys's *Celtic Britain* (2d. ed. 1884), and article SCOTLAND.

Caledonian Canal, a chain of natural lakes united by artificial canals, running straight across the north of Scotland in a south-westerly line from the North Sea to the Atlantic, through Glenmore, or the Great Glen of Allin, in Inverness-shire, and touching Argyllshire at its southern extremity. The sea and fresh-water lochs in this line are the Moray Firth and Lochs Dochfour, Ness, Oich, Lochy, and Linnhe. The canal was formed to avoid the dangerous and tedious navigation of ships, especially coasting-vessels, round by the Pentland Firth, Cape Wrath, and the Hebrides; the distance between Kinnaird's Head and the Sound of Mull by this route being 500 miles, but by the canal only 250, with an average saving of 9½ days for sailing-vessels. From the head of the Moray Firth to that of Loch Linnhe, the length of the canal is 60½ miles, 37½ miles being through natural lochs or lakes, and 23 miles by artificial cuts. Each cut is 120 feet broad at surface, and 50 at bottom, and 17 deep. The highest part is Loch Oich, 105 feet above sea-level; and there are in all 28 locks. The practicability of this great work was first shown by James Watt's government survey in 1773; but it was not till 1803 that it was begun under Telford. The whole line was opened for ships in 1823; and after three years of repair, it was reopened in 1847, the total cost up to 1849 being £1,311,270. Ships of 500 to 600 tons can pass through the canal. The annual expenditure exceeds as a rule the income, each ranging between £6000 and £11,000. The scenery is romantic on both sides of the canal, and has many other objects of interest, such as Fort William, Ben Nevis, Inverlochy Castle, Tor Castle (the ancient seat of Cameron of Lochiel), Glen Spean, Glen Roy with its Parallel Roads, Fort Augustus with its monastery, the Fall of Foyers, and Inverness.

Calendar (from *Calends*), the mode of adjusting the natural divisions of time with respect to each other for the purposes of civil life. For the measurement of time, as for the measurement of any other magnitude, some standard must be adopted. The earliest standard interval was the day, marked out by the alternation of light and darkness, and determined by the rotation of the

earth on its axis. For longer periods, the lunar month, from new moon to new moon, an interval of about 29½ days, was the standard next fixed upon; and finally the recurrence of the seasons suggested the year. The duration of the year was determined in various ways by the nations of antiquity, one of the earliest ways being to make it include a certain number of lunar months. Twelve lunar months, giving a year of 354 days, were taken as a near approach to a course of the seasons. In process of time, however, it was discovered that with this rough approximation to the true value of a year the seasons did not correspond to the same months, and it was necessary, in order to prevent them gradually making the round of the whole year, to make some adjustment. For this purpose the Jews and the Greeks employed much the same expedients; they intercalated a month from time to time, the former 7 times in a cycle of 19 years, the latter 3 times in a cycle of 8. The Romans are said, and the statement is confirmed by what is known of their sacred rites and customs, to have had originally a year of 10 months, beginning with March and ending with December, which means 'tenth' period. Early in their history, however, they adopted, from their belief in the luck attendant on odd numbers, a lunar year of 355 days, and added two new months, January and February. But, like the Greeks, they were compelled, in order to accommodate their lunar year to the solar year, to make occasional intercalations. The making of these intercalations was in the hands of the pontiffs, who had sole charge of the calendar, and they used this power unscrupulously for the gratification of their friends or the annoyance of their enemies. They lengthened or curtailed the year, often in order that a magistrate or farmer of the taxes might enjoy a longer or shorter lease of office than was permitted by law, and without regard to the unsettlement of the seasons, and at the time when Julius Cæsar became dictator, the spring festivals occurred in the nominally summer months. To clear away all this confusion, Cæsar, with the help of Sosigenes, an Alexandrian astronomer, undertook a thorough reform of the calendar. He effected it by making the year now called 46 B.C., 'the year of confusion,' consist of 445 days, and the succeeding years of 365 days, with the exception of every fourth year, which was to consist of 366. This method of adjusting the days to the year is called the Julian calendar. The number of days in the months from January to December before Cæsar's time had been respectively 29, 28, 31, 29, 31, 29, 31, 29, 29, 31, 29, 29. These numbers Cæsar changed to 31 and 30 alternately, with the exception of February, which was to have 29 in ordinary years and 30 in leap-years. In honour of himself he also changed to July the name of the month which followed June. In the application of the Julian correction to the calendar the pontiffs again went wrong, by inserting the leap-years once in every three instead of every four years. This mistake of theirs continued till the year now called 8 B.C., when three leap-years too many had been reckoned, and Augustus ordained that there should be no leap-year for 12 years, which, according to the Roman way of counting, would make leap-year occur in 4 A.D. At the same time Augustus gave his own name to the month following July, added one day to it which he took away from February, and that there might not be three consecutive months of 31 days each, he made September, October, November, December consist of 30, 31, 30, 31 days, instead of 31, 30, 31, 30.

The Julian calendar assumes the length of the solar year to be 365½ days, whereas it is 11 minutes and a few seconds less. This annual

error, a small one doubtless, accumulated as years rolled on, and began to be fully recognised about the beginning of the 16th century. Some proposals, such as that of Stöffler in 1518 and of Pitatus of Verona in 1537, were made to rectify the error, but the matter was not taken up in earnest till 1577, by Pope Gregory XIII. As in 1582 the vernal equinox occurred at a date (11th March) 10 days earlier than it did at the time of the Council of Nice in 325 A.D., Gregory published a bull, dated 1st March 1582, annulling 10 days, so that what would have been reckoned the 5th October 1582 was to be reckoned the 15th October. In order also that the displacement might not recur, it was further ordained that three of the leap-years which occur in 400 years should be considered common years. The three leap-years selected to be reduced to common years were those which close the centuries (i.e. which end with 00) and are not divisible by 400. Thus, 1600 was leap-year, 1700 and 1800 were common years, 1900 will be a common year, 2000 will be leap-year, and so on. This method of adjusting the days to the year is called the Gregorian calendar, or the new style. The new style was adopted exactly according to the mandate of the pope in Spain, Portugal, and part of Italy; in France and some of the provinces of the Low Countries it was adopted in the same year by calling the 10th of December the 20th, and the 15th of December the 25th; and by continental Catholics generally before the end of the 16th century. Scotland adopted the new reckoning in 1600. Most Protestants, however, were then too much inflamed against Catholicism in all its relations to receive even a purely scientific improvement from such hands, and it was more than a century before they abandoned the old style. In England a bill to this effect was brought before parliament in 1585, but did not get beyond a second reading in the House of Lords; and it was not till 1751 that an act was passed (24 Geo. II.) 'for regulating the commencement of the year, and for correcting the calendar now in use.' It was then enacted that 11 days should be omitted after the 2d of September 1752, so that the ensuing day should be the 14th. The enactment was not carried out without provoking discontent among uneducated people, many of whom imagined that they were defrauded of the omitted days, and assailed unpopular statesmen with the cry, 'Give us back our 11 days.' The reason for the omission of the additional day is that according to the old style 1600 and 1700 were both considered leap-years; according to the new style 1700 was a common year. At present, since 1800 was a leap-year according to old style, and a common year according to new style, there is a difference of 12 days between the styles. Russia, Greece, and the smaller states, such as Servia, belonging to the Greek Church, are now the only countries which still adhere to the old style. The same act which introduced the new reckoning in 1752 shortened by nearly three months the year 1751. For it had been the practice to commence the year with the 25th of March, the Feast of the Annunciation, and the year 1751 so commenced, but the year 1752 and all subsequent years began with the 1st of January. In the national accounts of the United Kingdom, the financial year ends 31st March, and thus closely corresponds still with the old practice.

In 1793 the National Convention of the first French republic decreed that the common era should be abolished in all civil affairs, and that a new era should commence from the foundation of the republic, 22d September 1792. The year was to be divided into 12 months of 30 days each, with 5 complementary days at the end, which were

to be celebrated as festivals, and were dedicated to Virtue, Genius, Labour, Opinion, Rewards. Every fourth or 'Olympic' year was to have a sixth complementary day to be called 'revolution day,' and every period of four years was to be called a Franciade. The first, second, and third centurial years--viz. 100, 200, 300 were to be common years, the fourth centurial year 400 was to be a leap-year, and this was to continue till the fortieth centurial year 4000, which was to be a common year. The months were to be divided into three parts of 10 days each, called decades. The names of the months and the days of the Gregorian calendar to which they corresponded were as follows:

Vendémiaire (Vintage).....	Sept. 22 to Oct. 21.
Brumaire (Foggy).....	Oct. 22 to Nov. 20.
Frimaire (Sleety).....	Nov. 21 to Dec. 20.
Nivose (Snowy).....	Dec. 21 to Jan. 19.
Pluviose (Rainy).....	Jan. 20 to Feb. 18.
Ventose (Windy).....	Feb. 19 to Mar. 20.
Germinal (Budding).....	Mar. 21 to Apr. 19.
Floréal (Flowery).....	Apr. 20 to May 19.
Prairial (Pasture).....	May 20 to June 18.
Messidor (Harvest).....	June 19 to July 18.
Thermidor (Heat).....	July 19 to Aug. 17.
Fructidor (Fruit).....	Aug. 18 to Sept. 16.

By Napoleon's command this new system was abolished, and the use of the Gregorian calendar resumed on January 1, 1806.

In the Jewish calendar, whose reckoning counts the years downwards from the Creation, the year is luni-solar and may be ordinary or embolismic. An ordinary year has 12 months (354 days), an embolismic year 13 months (384 days). The names of the months are Tisri, Hesvan, Kislev, Tebet, Sebat, Adar (with Veadar in embolismic years), Nisan, Iyar, Sivan, Tamuz, Ab, Elul; the New Year (1st Tisri), which falls between 5th September and 5th October, fell in the Jewish year 5649 on 6th September 1888. For the Mohammedan calendar, see HEGIRA. Other information as to differences in the method of time-reckoning will be found at CHRONOLOGY. The Ecclesiastical calendar will be treated at EASTER, SAINTS, and other articles; for the Positivist calendar, see POSITIVISM; see also MONTH, YEAR.

Calender is a Persian word (meaning 'greater') used somewhat loosely for dervishes in Persia and Central Asia. See DERVISH.

Calendering is the term applied to the process of finishing by pressure the surface of linen, cotton, and other textile fabrics, as well as paper. It is usually done by passing the fabric between cylinders pressed together with great force. The familiar domestic processes of starching and ironing afford the simplest illustrations of the object and result of calendering. The patent domestic mangle effects the same object as the flat iron, and somewhat resembles the simpler calendering engines of the manufacturer.

In Beetling (q.v.), the cloth is beaten in a way which produces a supple, leathery finish; but in calendering, the pressure is applied continually across the whole width of the fabric, which stiffens it and gives it a finish more like paper.

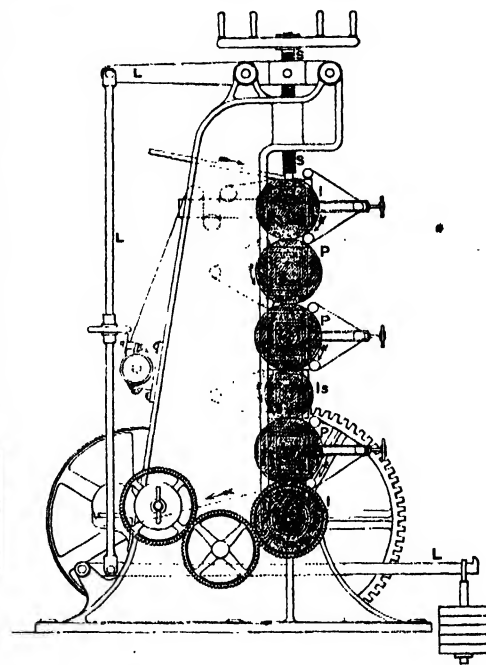
Calenders are made with from 3 to 12 cylinders, usually called bowls, but the number of these does not commonly exceed six. There are always one or more of the bowls made of paper or cotton pressed into a solid mass by hydraulic apparatus. These have a hard yet considerably elastic surface, and are not liable to warp like wood. They require to be turned very accurately. The other bowls, where wood is not employed, are of steel, chilled cast-iron, or brass. One or more of the metal cylinders are made so that they can be heated with steam, gas, or hot iron bars.

Printed calicoes, after being starched, are usually smoothed by passing them between bowls or

cylinders of hardwood and one of brass under considerable pressure. This is called mangling. What is called the Swiss finish for cotton fabrics is done by a similar process in which greater pressure is employed, but it is termed calendering. In the simplest machine three bowls are used, two of paper or cotton, and one of polished iron. A still higher gloss or glaze is put upon cloth by a friction calender in which the metal roller is driven at a slightly greater speed than the paper ones. Either hot or cold calendering may be employed for these fabrics, which are usually damped previously.

Jute and strong linen cloth are subjected to heavy calendering, the pressure being applied to the cylinders either by levers or hydraulic power. One kind of hydraulic calender for these goods works under a total pressure of eighty-five tons.

Calenders are now used at most paper-mills for putting a smooth finish, or it may be a high glaze, upon paper. The annexed figure shows one with six bowls. The three bowls, P, P, P, are made of



compressed paper or cotton, and the other three, I, I, Is, are of chilled cast-iron. The bowl, Is, is heated with steam, and the care required in using this cylinder is shown by the fact that it must be turned on the inside as well as on the outside to insure a uniform temperature on the surface. This calender is 11 feet high, is driven by a steam-engine of 20 horse-power, and the maximum pressure applied does not exceed 10 tons. As the figure shows, the pressure is regulated by screws, S, and compound levers, L, one of each being attached to each of the two end frames. The arrows show the direction the paper takes over the cylinders.

Some calenders used for the swissing, or ordinary calendering, of calico have the same number of bowls as shown in the figure, but in them the paper and the metal ones are arranged alternately. Such calenders have the same arrangement of screws and compound levers. Machines similar in construction to the one above described, but with all the rollers of iron, and also called calenders, are used for rolling india-rubber into sheets for coats, shoes, &c.

Calends (Lat. *Kalendæ*), the first day of each Roman month, which was divided into *Calends*, *Nones*, and *Ides*. The Calends always fell upon the first of the month; in March, May, July, and October, the Nones on the 7th, and the Ides on the 15th; and in the remaining months, the Nones on the 5th, and the Ides on the 13th. The Calends meant originally the day on which the order of days was proclaimed; the Nones were so called from being the *ninth* day before the Ides, reckoning inclusively; and the Ides probably from an Etruscan verb signifying to divide, because they nearly halved the month. This threefold division also determined the reckoning of the days, which were not distinguished as with us by the ordinal numbers *first, second, third, &c.*, but as follows: Those between the Calends and the Nones were termed *the days before the Nones*; those between the Nones and the Ides, *the days before the Ides*; and the remainder, *the days before the Calends* of the next month. Thus, the Ides of January happening on the 13th of that month, the next day would not be termed by a Latin writer the 14th, but *the 19th before the Calends of February*, reckoning inclusively—i.e. reckoning both the 14th of January and the 1st of February, and so on to the last, which was termed *pridie Calendas*.

Ad Kalendus Grævas was a Roman proverbial saying, practically equivalent to 'never.' The Roman Calends were the usual days for payment of rent, interest, &c.; but as the Greeks did not use that mode of reckoning, a postponement of payment 'to the Greek Calends' simply meant a refusal to pay altogether. It is said that the Emperor Augustus frequently used the phrase, which afterwards became a proverb.

Calenture, an old term of Spanish origin for a species of temporary delirium or fever occurring on board ship in hot climates, and probably due to the effect of exposure to the direct rays of the sun. The descriptions of the disease are rather fanciful and contradictory, but it seems often to have been accompanied with delirious fancies.

Calgary, a town of the North-west Territory of Canada, with station on the Canadian Pacific Railway, 2262 miles W. of Montreal. It stands 3380 feet above sea-level, in a broad and level valley between the Bow and Elbow rivers, has numerous stores, and is a trading centre for a wide district, much of which is taken up for cattle-ranching. It dates from 1884. Pop. (1886) 1500. —There is a bay of this name on the north-west coast of the island of Mull in Scotland.

Calhoun, JOHN CALDWELL, an American statesman, was born in Abbeville District (now county), South Carolina, March 18, 1782. He was of Irish Presbyterian descent. He graduated at Yale College in 1804 with honours, and became a successful lawyer. Entering congress as a representative from his native state in 1811, he at once took a prominent place before the country as a supporter of the measures which led to the war of 1812-15 with Great Britain. In 1816 he supported a bill for establishing a protective tariff, and reported to congress a measure for the creation of a national bank. In 1817 he joined Monroe's cabinet as Secretary of War, and in 1819, at the request of congress, submitted a plan for an extensive system of internal improvements. His labours in the reorganisation of the war department were of extreme value to the country. He was vice-president of the United States under the presidency of John Q. Adams (1825-29), and under that of General Jackson from 1829 to 1832, when he resigned the office. He prepared the first draft of

the *South Carolina Exposition* of 1820, a document of 56 printed pages, which distinctly marks the commencement of a new stage in Mr Calhoun's career. In this paper he announced the doctrine that a state can nullify unconstitutional laws, the principal reason set forth for the proposed exercise of this alleged right being the differing interests of different sections of the country, free trade being regarded as highly advantageous to the more southern states, and a protective tariff being conceded to be no less desirable for other parts of the country. The breach in his personal friendship for President Jackson (1830) completely freed him from old party affiliations, and left him free for a new political career. His *Address to the People of South Carolina* (1831) set forth with great force his newly developed theory of state rights. The passage by South Carolina in 1832 of the nullification ordinance was the occasion of his resignation of the vice-presidency, and of his entering the United States senate. Mr Calhoun accepted the compromise tariff of 1833. The remainder of his political career was that of a leader of the states-rights movement, and a champion of the real or supposed interests of the slave-holding states. More clearly than almost any other man in the country he understood the radical differences then existing between the social and industrial systems of the northern and southern states, and foresaw the bloody consequences which might sooner or later result from those differences. He left the senate in 1843, and in the following year became Secretary of State under President Tyler, in which capacity he signed a treaty by which it was proposed that Texas should be annexed to the Union. In 1845 he resumed his place in the senate. He strenuously opposed the war of 1846-47 with Mexico. He died at Washington of pulmonary disease, combined with a cardiac affection, March 31, 1850. Mr Calhoun, though not a man of great learning, possessed high intellectual power, fine logical ability, enormous capacity for labour, keen political foresight, and strong will; and his personal integrity and moral purity were never called in question. *The Life of Calhoun*, by R. S. Jenkins (1851), contains most of the accessible details of his personal career. See also his collected works (6 vols. 1853-54), with a Life by R. K. Crallé, and H. von Holst's *John C. Calhoun* (1882). The latter book discusses the leading events of Calhoun's career as viewed from an anti-slavery standpoint. With Henry Clay and Daniel Webster he formed 'the great triumvirate' of American political leaders, which was not a triumvirate in the sense of a close political union, for the three great orators were never closely associated, and were often in antagonism. Mr Calhoun seriously regarded slavery as a blessing to all concerned with it; and the systematic defence of that institution was the main purpose of almost all his public acts during the later half of his life. Mr Calhoun was tall and slender, with a thin, deeply lined and angular face. His bright and expressive eyes when he was speaking in public added much to the effect of his impassioned oratory. He was a brilliant talker, and had a large following of warm personal friends.

Call (SANTIAGO DE), a town of Colombia, on a tributary of the Rio Cauca, 3300 feet above the sea, about 50 miles S.E. of Buenaventura by rail; has a considerable trade with that port. Pop. 13,000.

Calibre, or CALIBRE, is a technical name for the diameter of the bore of a firearm, whether a piece of ordnance or a small-arm. If the weapon is rifled its calibre is measured, not from the bottom of the grooves, but from the smooth surface between

them, technically called the 'lands.' Ordnance firing solid shot were formerly denoted by the weight of each shot, as 24-pounder, 68-pounder, &c.; mortars and shell-guns by their calibre, as 13-inch mortar, 10-inch shell-gun, &c.; but now that all guns fire shell, this rule is not always observed. It has become usual to designate guns heavier than the 80-pounder, together with all howitzers and mortars, by their calibre, and lighter natures by the weight of the shell; but in every case the weight of the gun itself is also specified, as the 17·8-inch gun of 100 tons, the 80-pounder of 5 tons. Machine Guns (q.v.) and rifles are always classified by their calibres.

Calico-printing. In its widest sense this is the art of imprinting colours on textile surfaces, but the term is almost restricted to the printing of coloured patterns on cotton cloth or calico. The art, doubtless, arose from the inherent love of man for ornament, for we find savage races rudely decorating, with pigments or with charred patterns, their dresses formed of such materials as the bark of trees or skins of animals. Fig. 1 represents a

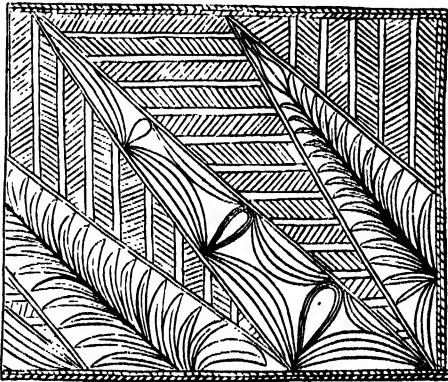


Fig. 1.

portion of a primitive frame made of the leaves of a species of *Pandanus*, and used in the Fiji Islands for printing a pattern on cloth formed of the bark of the paper mulberry. Between a mode of printing fabrics like this, or even by the Indian method with carved hand blocks, and the art as now practised in England and other parts of Europe, there is a great and striking contrast, since the wonderful results now obtained in our calico-printing require the application of the highest chemical and mechanical skill along with the aid of trained designers for the patterns.

Except in the use of steam printing-machines, with engraved rollers and other modern improvements, the ancient Egyptians printed colours upon cloth in much the same way as it is done at the present day. Calico-printing is also a very ancient art in India, Persia, and China. Calico derives its English name from Calicut, a town in the Indian district of Malabar, where cotton-printing was formerly carried on extensively. The art seems to have been practised for centuries in Asia Minor and the Levant before we first hear of it as an industry in Holland, at Hamburg, and at Augsburg. There are some bits of block-printed silk stuff known, which experts consider to be Sicilian work of the 13th century. About the close of the 17th century Augsburg had become celebrated for its printed cotton and linen fabrics, and by that time the art had also been introduced into Switzerland and Alsace. The first calico print-work in England was established near Richmond, about the year 1676, by a Frenchman.

Printing Blocks and Rollers.—In the process of textile printing the first step is the drawing out of a design. The workmen of Eastern nations then cut this out on a block of wood if the pattern is simple, or on a series of blocks if it is complex, a different block being used for each colour. But in Western Europe, where the printing requires to be done with great accuracy and speed, engraved copper rollers are used. Block-printing is, however, sometimes employed in England to fill in additional colours on a print mainly produced by engraved cylinders, and special patterns are to a small extent entirely obtained from blocks. Some ingenious processes are in use for producing the patterns on the copper rollers. Sometimes these are engraved by a peculiar method, sometimes they are punched, but most frequently perhaps they are put upon the copper by the mill-and-die process. The die is a small cylinder of soft steel, about an inch in diameter, upon which a pattern is cut. It is then hardened and used to impress a reverse upon another cylinder called the mill, which in turn is hardened and used to impress the pattern upon the printing roller. The use of these copper cylinders or rollers involves a large outlay, the stock of them in some large calico print-works exceeding in value a hundred thousand pounds. For some patterns, such as spots upon handkerchiefs, produced by discharging the colour, perforated plates are used.

Printing-machines.—The principle of a calico-printing machine will be understood by the annexed diagram (fig. 2), which shows in cross section the arrangement of rollers and colour-boxes for producing a pattern in three colours. D is the large central drum, which is thickly cushioned with some soft material. Round this drum revolves an endless blanket, E, which serves to guide the calico, P. Each of the three engraved copper cylinders, B, B, B, prints a portion of the pattern. These are placed against the drum, over which the calico moves to receive the impression from them. W, W, W are wood rollers covered with cloth, and dip into colour-boxes, C, C, C, as they revolve, each imparting its colour to its own cylinder. Two long blades called the 'lint doctor' and the 'colour doctor' act upon these cylinders, the one removing loose fibre, the other superfluous colour. Fig. 3 gives a view of a complete machine for printing ten colours, the arrangements in it being much the same as for a smaller number. It shows that the iron mandrils which support the printing-cylinders rest in bearings on side frames, and that these cylinders revolve by toothed wheels working in the teeth of a large spur wheel. The small wheels are fixed on the iron mandrils, and there is a system of screws, levers, and weights for pressing the copper cylinders against the central drum. These cylinders require to be adjusted with mathematical precision in order to print accurately. Fig. 3 represents a machine made by Messrs Mather & Platt, Salford, illustrated in the *Textile Manufacturer* for 1887. When roller-printing was introduced, nearly a hundred years ago, only one colour was printed at a time, the machines having but one printing-cylinder.

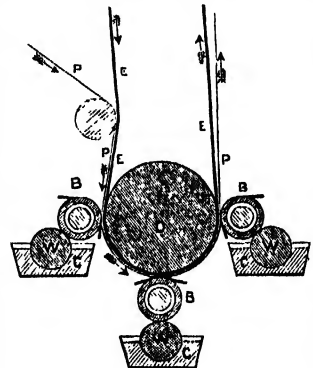


Fig. 2.

Machines are now made to print as many as sixteen colours at one operation.

Cotton or linen can very seldom be permanently dyed by merely immersing it in a dyeing solution.

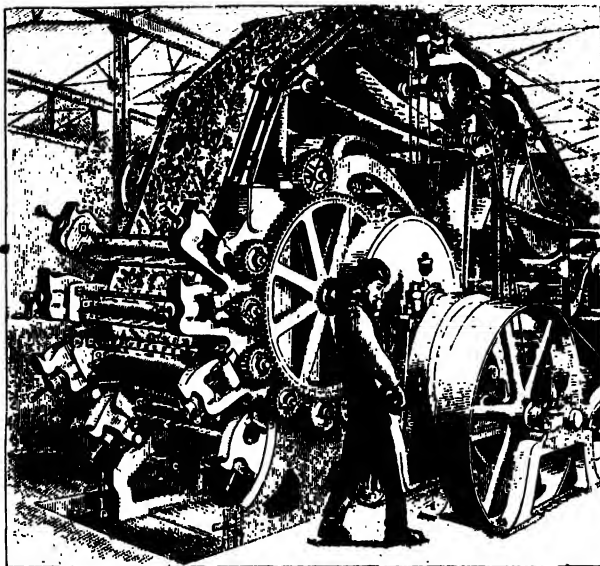


Fig. 3.

But to get an idea of one or two very simple ways of producing a pattern on calico, let us suppose that it can. If we print dots or stars in wax upon calico and immerse it in some dye, the wax acts as a resist which can afterwards be removed, and we get a white pattern on a coloured ground. The same result can be obtained by chemically discharging the colour in the form of dots or stars after the fabric is dyed. Still more simple is the plan of printing a device in one colour on a white ground.

Mordants.—The production of patterns upon calico is, however, of no service unless the dye can be fixed upon the cotton fibre. What is called a 'mordant' is required for this purpose. A mordant has been figuratively described as an agent with two hands, one of which grasps the cloth and the other the dye. It must have the double property of adhering to the fibre and of forming an insoluble compound with the dye. Among the mordants commonly used are solutions of acetate of alumina or 'red liquor,' acetate of iron or 'black liquor,' and salts of tin. The mordant is usually applied to the cloth before the dye, but sometimes they are printed on together. Flour, starch, dextrin, and other substances are used to thicken mordants in order to bring them to a proper consistency for printing. It is important to keep in mind that the machine most frequently prints only mordants, not colours. As these have usually little or no colour, some of a fugitive character is added in order to 'sighten' the pattern. This enables the printer to see that the pattern is being uniformly printed on the cloth. The sightening colour disappears in the dunging process previous to dyeing. The same mordant may be printed of different degrees of strength on the same piece of calico; so also may different kinds of mordants.

Aging.—When alumina and iron mordants are printed by themselves (i.e. not mixed with dye) on the calico they require to be 'aged' in order to dissipate the acetic acid by which they are held in solution and fix the oxides of aluminium and iron

within the cotton fibre. The aging was formerly effected by hanging the cloth up for days in a warm moist room. It is now accomplished much more quickly by passing it slowly but continuously through a chamber heated to a temperature of from 80° to 120° F., the air being moistened nearly to saturation by jets of steam.

Dunging.—The calico requires to be next passed through a mixture of hot water and cow-dung in order to remove any undecomposed mordant remaining in the fibre. Instead of cow-dung, solutions of phosphate, silicate, or arseniate of soda, have been largely used in recent years. The cloth is washed once or twice after the dunging, and is then ready for the dyeing process. The aging and dunging processes described here, apply only to the madder style and its modifications.

Various Styles of Printing.—There are several methods of producing coloured patterns upon calico. These are called styles. Thus the process of dyeing a mordanted pattern with madder is called the madder style; that of dyeing cloth over an entire mordanted surface, upon which a pattern is often produced by afterwards locally discharging the colour, is called the padding style; that of topically printing insoluble colours is called the pigment style; and that of producing a pattern by printing a mixture of mordants and dyes to be fixed by steam is

called the steam style. Prints in which indigo and aniline black, termed oxidation colours, are used, receive a peculiar treatment.

Madder Style.—One of the dyes which has been used from a remote period is Madder (q.v.). Since the remarkable discovery in 1869 of a method of artificially preparing Alizarin (q.v.), its chief colouring principle, the artificial product has gradually come to be much more largely used than the dye from madder roots. But the process for printing alizarin is practically the same as that for madder.

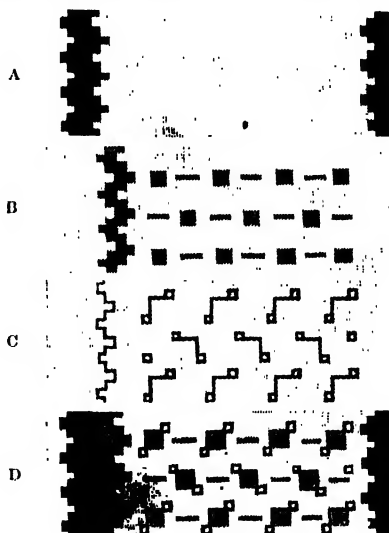


Fig. 4.

Suppose that a pattern in three colours is required, it can be produced in this way by using only madder or alizarin as the dye. Three mordants are

employed in printing on the pattern. One of these is 'red liquor,' another is 'black or iron liquor,' and the third is a mixture of these two. A separate roller and colour-box (really, in this case, a mordant-box) is used for each of these in the printing-machine. When the cloth is printed, aged, dunged, and dyed, the result is that, with the same solution of alizarin, the alumina (red liquor) mordant has produced a red, the iron mordant a purple, and the mixed mordant a chocolate colour. The accompanying woodcuts represent a pattern thus produced. Fig. 4, A, shows the chocolate portion from the first roller, B the purple portion from the second roller, C the red portion from the third roller, and D the complete pattern made up of all three colours. The impression from each roller is shown separately in these, but the full pattern is printed at one operation in the machine. If a design is required with each of these colours in two shades, then each mordant is prepared of two strengths, and six rollers are necessary to print the pattern, one dye-bath being used as before.

The dyeing consists in passing the mordanted calico through a solution of alizarin in a dye-beck or cistern heated by steam, over which is supported a winch, which serves to draw the cloth in a continuous manner through the dye until it is saturated with the colour. The operation of 'clearing' follows the dyeing, and this is effected by boiling the cloth in soap and water. Clearing removes any dye from the unmordanted portions of the calico, leaving the pattern sharp and distinct.

Padding Style.—When a mordant is applied, not to any particular part, but to the whole surface of the calico, by the padding-machine, it is said to be padded. The mordant is generally either red or black liquor, or a mixture of both. The machine consists of a pair of cylinders over a trough containing the solution, through which and between the rollers the cloth is made to pass. It is then dried in a long heated chamber, and the design printed upon it in an acid discharge, such as citric acid and a salt of potash. When the calico is dunged and dyed in alizarin and other solutions, a white pattern is produced on a coloured ground, because the dye does not attach itself to the parts where the acid mixture has been printed. A pattern may also be printed in a stronger mordant than that used for the padded ground, so that we can have, for example, a dark purple, as well as a white device, on a pale purple ground. The white device may be afterwards wholly or partly filled with colour, and in this way designs in numerous shades or colours are produced.

Indigo Dyeing and Printing.—Owing to its chemical peculiarities this substance is unlike other colouring matters in ordinary use. The blue Indigo (q.v.) of commerce is insoluble in water, dilute acids, and alkalis, and therefore not adapted for the work of the calico-printer. But this insoluble indigo can be changed by deoxidation into soluble white indigo, which is capable of penetrating cotton fibre; and when calico is 'dipped' into white indigo and exposed to air, it becomes blue by absorption of oxygen. In practice a stone cistern or vat is used for the dipping. It is nearly filled with water, and then blue indigo, sulphate of iron (copperas), and lime are added. In the vat protoxide of iron is separated by the lime from the copperas and changed into the peroxide by absorbing oxygen from the indigo, thus reducing it to white indigo. For light blues the calico only requires to be immersed a couple of minutes, but for darker shades repeated dippings into indigo solutions of various strengths are necessary. There is an arrangement by which the calico, which is hooked upon frames, is exposed to the air after each dipping for the absorption of oxygen.

When a white pattern is to be produced on an indigo-blue ground, it is printed in resist-paste on the calico before it is dyed. This paste varies in composition, one kind being made up with sulphate of zinc, nitrate of copper, and soap, thickened with gum. On the resist being removed after dyeing, the white device appears. Clearer whites can, however, be obtained by printing a pattern in some discharging medium on the dyed cloth. Chromate of potash and oxalic acid separately applied—that is, either being printed on and passed through the other—will effect the discharge of the blue colour.

Since 1883 a process has been to some extent employed for printing patterns in indigo, which for this purpose is made into a thick paste with caustic soda and Indian-corn starch, and then printed upon calico previously padded in a solution of glucose (q.v.). In the presence of alkalis and in contact with steam, glucose is an energetic reducing agent. In this process the ordinary blue indigo is also reduced to white indigo, and is immediately fixed on the cotton fibre. It then becomes blue in contact with air.

Artificial indigo (see INDIGO), which was first made in 1878, is, owing to its high price, not much employed in printing, but in some cases it is useful, such as with light shades and small designs.

Chrome Yellow.—This is chromate of lead, which, when prepared as a pigment, is largely used by house-painters. In calico-printing it is obtained by two operations. A mixture of acetate and nitrate of lead is first printed on the cloth as a mordant and fixed by dilute sulphuric acid, or, if the nature of the pattern requires it, by other agents. The calico is then worked in a warm solution of bichromate of potash, which produces a yellow colour, and if caustic soda or milk of lime be added to the solution, this is deepened into an orange. Chrome yellow is a permanent colour upon cotton.

Indigo Blue and Chrome Orange.—The production of an orange pattern on a blue ground has been a very successful style in the hands of some calico-printers. After what has been said it will be easily understood that before dyeing in the indigo vat a resist can be printed with a lead basis, which can be eventually changed to orange. By means of resists and acids this style can be varied so as to have in the same design orange, yellow, white, and two shades of blue, together with green, if Prussian blue be added to the yellow.

Catechu is a substance used in both dyeing and tanning (see CATECHU). It is the source of numerous shades of brown, fawn, gray, and drab, which are fast, and can be combined with the colours obtained from madder. Catechu fixes readily upon cotton fibre, but its colouring principle requires to be oxidised by such agents as lime-water, bichromate of potash, or a salt of copper.

Logwood.—In calico-printing logwood is used with iron, alumina, and chromium mordants. It is employed for black and chocolate colours.

Pigment Style.—Formerly this style was almost confined to printing with artificial ultramarine, but it has been much developed of late years. Other colours, as vermilion, cadmium yellow, chrome yellow, Guignet's (chromium) green, ochres, and umbers, are now printed as pigments on cloth. These colours are not soluble, as is the case with those used in other styles, but must be ground to fine powder and mixed with albumen before being printed. The calico is afterwards exposed in a close chamber to steam, which coagulates the albumen and fixes the pigment. Either white of egg or blood albumen is employed, and some of the colours so printed have great brilliancy.

Steam Style.—What are technically called steam-

colours are fixed upon cotton by the agency of steam. For these the calico is first 'prepared' by a padding with stannate of soda, and souring with dilute sulphuric acid, for the purpose of depositing oxide of tin in the fibre. In this style the mordants and colours are mixed together and printed on the cloth. When, for example, alizarin is applied in this way, a mixture is made of the dye with the acetate of alumina, or acetate of lime, along with some thickening body such as starch. The printed stuff is either at once steamed in a suitable chamber or piece of apparatus, or it is first exposed for some hours to the air, and then steamed for from half an hour to more than twice as long. Alizarin colours are not quite so beautiful when produced in this way as when dyed upon mordants by the old madder process above described; but this steam process has the great advantage of enabling them to be used in combination with pigments and other colouring matters, thickened with albumen, since the steam also fixes the latter, as explained in the last paragraph. By the old way, if these pigment-colours are used in the same design with madder, they require to be put in with hand-blocks. Among the 'steam-colours' which have been in use for some length of time are those from Brazil-wood and other dyewoods, the yellow from Persian berries, cochineal red, and Prussian blue.

Spirit Style.—In this, as in the steam style, the made-up colours are applied topically. Such dyes as those from Persian berries and sapanwood are compounded with oxymuriate of tin and other substances, and printed on the calico. They are not steamed after printing, but simply dried at a moderate temperature, aged for a short time, and washed. The colours are bright but not permanent. The name has arisen from the tin compounds used being called 'spirits.'

Aniline Black.—This is not merely the only permanent colour from aniline, but it is one of the fastest colours known. One of the mixtures used to produce it is composed of chloride of aniline, sulphide of copper, chloride of ammonium, and chloride of potash, thickened with starch. More recently vanadium salts have been substituted for sulphide of copper, but both mixtures are used. The calico is nearly colourless when newly printed, but it gradually darkens by oxidation when hung up in warm and moist air.

Other Aniline Colours.—With the exception of black, the colours from Aniline (q.v.), although fairly durable on silk and wool, are fugitive upon cotton. Since the discovery of aniline mauve by Perkin in 1856, the number of patents taken out for aniline colours is about two hundred. The brilliancy of some of these, especially the purples, is great. Methyline blue, saffranine (red), methyl green, auramine (yellow), Bismark brown, and several other aniline colours, are a good deal used in calico-printing. They are fixed by various mordants, such as red liquor with arsenic, stannic oxide with tannin, and tannin with tartar emetic; or they may be printed on the cloth with albumen as pigments. Most aniline colours are steamed after they are printed. Some of the best known do not harmonise well with other colours, but they are much used for cheap prints.

Seats of the Industry.—Calico-printing in Great Britain is carried on chiefly about Manchester and Glasgow, where some very large factories exist. The amount of work which these can produce may be imagined when it is stated that one of them, possessing forty-five printing-machines, has the power of printing annually 25,000 miles of calico. The distribution of calico-printing machines throughout the world in 1882 was: England 640, Scotland 280, Ireland 22, America 500, Russia 150, Germany, including Mulhouse (Mülhausen), 100, France 50,

Austria 25, Switzerland 24, Portugal 15, and Holland 5.

Patterns.—The great strides which calico-printing has made during the past fifty years have been in the science of the art. The artistic merit of the patterns printed has made comparatively little progress. In 1840 Mr Thomson of Clitheroe said, before a parliamentary committee, 'that while the printing of calico had become one of the most refined of the chemical arts, the art of designing patterns had retrograded.' In 1851 Mr Redgrave, R.A., referring to the want of excellence in the designs of European garment fabrics, said: 'If we look at the details of Indian patterns, we shall be surprised at their extreme simplicity, and be led to wonder at their rich and satisfactory effect.' Up to the present time the patterns on many Indian and Persian calicoes are still unmatched for beauty by the best European designs. It cannot be denied, however, that a considerable number of the patterns printed on the Continent and in England from French designs are very meritorious.

Calicut, a seaport of Malabar, Madras presidency, 6 miles N. of Beypur terminus, and 566 SSE. of Bombay. It was the first spot in India visited by Covilham (1486) and Vasco da Gama (1498), being then the chief emporium on the coast, with stately dwellings and magnificent pagodas. So populous and powerful was it, that it twice repulsed the Portuguese, slaying their commander in 1509, and expelling Albuquerque himself, after a momentary success on his part, in 1510. In 1792, when it fell into the hands of the English, owing to the ravages of war, the city was little better than a ruin. Since then it has made considerable progress in trade and population. It is the headquarters of the Malabar district, and has a custom-house, salt dépôt, barracks; the anchorage is an open roadstead. The French have a *comptoir* or factory here, and the right of flying their flag. The cotton cloth at first exported hence was called 'calico' by the English, and 'calicute' by the Portuguese. Pop. (1881) 57,085. See Logan's *Malabar* (Madras, 1887).

Calif (also spelt *Caliph* and *Khalif*) was the title borne by the successor of Mohammed in temporal and religious authority (Arab. sing. *Khalifah*; fully *Khalifat Rasûl Illâh*, successor of the Apostle of God).

The First Four Califs.—The Prophet leaving no son, the wise and good ABU-BEKR, father of his favourite wife Ayesha, was elected by an assembly of the faithful (632 A.D.). On Omar's death (644) a council of six appointed as third calif, OTHMAN, the Prophet's secretary and son-in-law. He fixed the text of the Koran, and prevented disputes by burning all previous copies. His weak government raised complaints and insurrection on all sides. But in his reign Persia was finally subdued. By the capture of Herat, Merv, and Balkh, Othman's hold on the country between that gulf and the Oxus was completed. He was besieged in Medina and murdered (656).

On Abu-bekr's accession, Mohammed's prophetic rival, Mosailima, was defeated and killed by Khalid, 'the Sword of God,' and the Arabs were united in faith and in the holy war which the calif immediately declared against Syria. Khalid routed the Persians in several battles; a Roman imperial army was severely defeated; Damascus capitulated; Hama and Emesa fell. Abu-bekr at his death (634) nominated the intrepid, severe, and virtuous OMAR, another father-in-law. Under him the war was continued. Jerusalem after a sharp conflict surrendered (637), and Omar rode thither from Medina with all his provisions and baggage on a camel to ratify the terms. This only time did

one of the first three califs step beyond the domestic care of religion and justice. Aleppo was surprised; Antioch yielded without a blow; Tripoli and Tyre were betrayed. By the end of 638 Abu Obeidah and Khalid had given all Syria to the califate. Meanwhile the little Arab Christian kingdom of Hira had been destroyed (632). Persia also fell. With the national banner, she lost all hope at the four days' battle of Kadesia by the Tigris, 100 miles above Ctesiphon (636). Three months after the battle, Ctesiphon, the Persian capital, was taken and sacked, and, Kufa being founded instead west from the Euphrates, it soon disappeared. Now Basra was founded. The 'victory of victories' at Nehavend permitted one army to reduce Ecbatana and Media, then to help the army of Syria* to subdue Mesopotamia and part of Armenia; and permitted another army with Saïd to conquer as far as the east end of the Persian Gulf. Egypt was next subdued. From Syria Amr broke into Egypt by Pelusium and took Memphis. The native monothelite Christians helped him to expel the orthodox Greeks. Alexandria fell in 641, after 17 months' siege, and after costing the lives of 23,000 Saracens; and Egypt submitted. Omar it was who began the use of the Hegira (Hijra or Hedjra), the Prophet's retreat from Mecca (622), as the Mohammedan era, and took the title Emir-ul-Mumini'n, 'Commander of the Faithful.' Othman's lieutenant Abdallah fought many battles in the North African provinces of Tripoli and Cyrene, and gathered much tribute, but effected no settlement.

Omar was stabbed by a Persian slave in 644. Othman was succeeded by the heroic Ali, poet, soldier, and saint, husband of Fâtima, and son of the Prophet's uncle Abu Taleb. Ayesha, fomenting rebellion, he defeated near Basra on the 'Day of the Camel,' in the first battle of the first Moslem civil war. She was taken on her camel and sent into retirement in Medina, for Ali had transferred the seat of government to Kufa. Moawiya, governor of Syria, son of that Abu Sufiân, who as Mohammed's enemy had been beaten at Bedr, and had helped to beat him at Uhud, claimed to succeed his cousin Othman, and seduced or subdued Syria, Egypt, Yemen, and Persia. On Ali's murder by a fanatic he negotiated the abdication of Ali's son Hassan, and becoming calif in 'the year of union' 661, made the title hereditary.

The califate arose in the most degenerate period of Persians, Romans, and European barbarians. An explanation of its progress is found in the exhaustion of the empire and Persia in their mutual wars; the real valour of the Arabs, enormously enhanced by their religious enthusiasm and greed of spoil; in their comparative moderation towards the conquered; and in their elsewhere unknown principle of comparative toleration in religion. Christian sects were bitter against one another. In Christian nations imperial centralisation, extortion, and tyranny, and ecclesiastical tyranny and persecution, had almost extinguished patriotism. The invaders were regarded with indifference or welcome, though few except Arabs yet preferred Islam to tribute or the sword. The difficulty for the Saracens, headed by a calif accountable only to God, his own conscience, and the patience of his subjects, was not to conquer, but to govern, and so to keep.

The Omniads.—MOAWIYA (661-79) was the first calif of the line called Omniads, from one of his forefathers. Their seat was Damascus. The conquest of Syria had now provided harbours, men, and materials for fleets; yet in naval warfare the Saracens acknowledged the superiority of the Greeks. As archers and horsemen they had no superiors, but in the scientific part of warfare they

never attained eminence. Moawiya had captured Rhodes in 653. In 672 he began a siege of Constantinople by sea and land which lasted seven years. None of the army and little of the fleet returned. In Africa, conquest was resumed in 661, when, the emperors having imposed an additional assessment equal to the tribute that Africa had yielded to the Saracens, Moawiya was asked for aid by the province, groaning under the civil and military tyranny of the Patriarch of Carthage. Ooba subdued the open country until he spurred his horse into the Atlantic Ocean. In 669 about 180,000 captives were carried by the Saracens from North Africa. In 670 Ooba planted Kairwan, 50 miles south of Carthage and inland; but thereafter he lost much ground and afterward his life. In 698 Hassan the governor took Carthage, and destroyed it so that it disappeared. It was a barbarous trait of Saracen policy to unwall great cities, and to build instead other cities not to defend, but to dominate the land. The Greek empire being thus expelled, the mixed population preferred the califate to Moorish anarchy. Musa achieved comparative quietness. Fifty years after the fall of Carthage, Christianity was nearly extinct in North Africa, which is the only land wherein Christianity after a perfect settlement has disappeared. Donatists, Vandals, Moors, and Saracens have alike contributed to this result. The whole califate was now giving proof that it was a worse master than the Roman empire. Moderation it had unlearned; legislation and government it never learned. Islam spread by converting barbarous heathen, but also by expelling Christians. In blood as in religion, the Berbers coalesced with the Saracens.

In 711 Count Julian, governor on both sides of the strait, betrayed Ceuta to Musa, and admitted a Moslem army to Gebel et Tarik (Gibraltar), so called from the leader's name. The battle of Xeres de la Frontera cost the Gothic king Roderick his kingdom and his life. In a few months, amid the indifference of the people, the persecuted Jews giving considerable help, Spain was added to the califate. Gothic patriotism still defended itself in Asturias and the Pyrenees. Further conquest was soon attempted in southern France. Abdurrahman, rounding the east end of the Pyrenees, carried victory to the Loire; but Charles Martel destroyed him and his enormous army between Tours and Poitiers in 732. Narbonne and the rest of Septimania the Saracens lost (752-59) when the Franks aided the revolted Goths and carried the Frank empire to the East Pyrenees.

Moawiya was a statesman; the rest of his line were neither statesmen nor saints. His son Yezid I. (679-83) succeeded him. Ali's son Hussein (Hosain) had fought well at Constantinople under the father, but the son's right he would not own. Splendid promises lured him from Medina to lead a rebellion in Irak; but ere he arrived Obeidullah, governor of Kufa, had crushed his cause in the bud. On the plain of Kerbela he was slain in battle, but Yezid spared his kindred. Ali, Hassan, and Hosain, and Hosain's lineal descendants to the ninth generation, are the only twelve Imâns or spiritual heads recognised by the Shiïte creed. The twelfth, the Mahdi, is not yet dead, but will appear before the judgment day. The tomb of Ali, the first calif recognised by the Shiïtes, and whose name is the watchword of undying hatred between Turk and Persian, is at Mesjid Ali, the ancient Hira, south of Kufa. All the Imâns' tombs are centres of Shiïte pilgrimage. Hosain's martyrdom marks one of the holiest Shiïah celebrations.

Yezid I. was followed by MOAWIYA II. (683); and he by MERWÂN I. (murdered 685). ABDUL-MÂLIK's troubled reign lasted till 705. He encour-

aged scholars to translate Persian literature into Arabic, and gave the califate a coinage of its own. He negotiated with Justinian II. in 686 the removal of the Mardaites, who in Lebanon, round Byblos their port and nucleus, had been a most willing and useful barrier to Saracen conquest. But they were monothelite Christians. They were scattered over the empire. In 692, to support his wars, he imposed the Haratch or capitation tax on all Christian men, one of the deadliest blights of the Saracen and Turkish empires.

The glorious reign of the inactive WALID I. (705-15) saw the califate extended at one end by the addition of Spain, and at the other end Sogdiana, between the Oxus, the Jaxartes, and the Caspian Sea, taken from the Turks by Kuteibah, and the califate extended to the mouth of the Indus. SULEIMÂN I. (died 717) sent a magnificent army and fleet under his brother Mūslemah against Constantinople; but next year (718) both perished almost utterly. The newly invented Greek fire had immensely aided the city in this siege and the former. To Constantinople belongs the honour of having been the first and strongest bridle of the Saracens. Good OMAR II.'s reign was ended with poison (720). YEZID II. died 724. HISHÂM died 743. WALID II. was killed in an insurrection (744). YEZID III. died 744. IBRAHIM was dethroned by MERWÂN II., governor of Armenia (745).

The character of the Omniades had not made them popular, and the mode of their elevation encouraged civil war, whereof they had continual experience. At last three brothers arose, descended from Abbas, uncle of the Prophet. Abu Moslem, who boasted ere he died that he had killed 600,000 of his enemies, took Merv, and soon occupied Khorasan for them. The whole land between the Indus and Euphrates was convulsed with the struggle between white Omniades and black Abbasides. Merwân was defeated near the Zab, pursued into Egypt, and there fell in battle near Busîr west of the Nile (750). Abdallah, uncle of the claimants, invited eighty of the Omniades to a conference and a feast at Damascus, and murdered them. So the Abbasides succeeded.

The Abbasides.—The first Omniade united the califate; the first Abbaside divided it. One Omniade, Abdurrahman, escaped from the massacre by Abdallah, and, crossing the strait into Spain, founded after a struggle the Omniade califate of Spain or Cordova.

ABDŪL ABBAS (750-54), called also Saffah, 'the shedder' of his enemies' blood, was followed by his brother ABU JAAFAR ALMANSŪR (754-75), who founded Bagdad for the seat of empire. The £30,000,000 sterling left by him, his son ALMAHDĪ (775-85) and grandson ALHĀDĪ (785-86) vainly squandered. Alhādī's brother, HARŪN AR RASHĪD, 'The Just' (Haroun al Raschid) (786-809), owes his fame to the interested praise of orthodox and literary men. He persecuted the Christians, and made eight destructive attacks on the Greek empire in Asia Minor, but rather as a brigand and slaver than as a conqueror. His three sons, instead of accepting his partition of the empire, fought for supremacy. AMĪN, the calif, was defeated and slain (813); ALMAMŪN, his brother (813-33), aided the culmination of Saracen culture.

What now makes men colonists united Normans or Saracens of middle and higher rank in the 9th century into bands of pirates or robbers strong enough to defy civil governments. Saracens had turned naturally to piracy, and had long and terribly ravaged all the Mediterranean coasts. In 823 a band of Saracen pirates from Spain captured Crete, which they valiantly held till 961. In 827 Saracens from Africa entered Sicily, like Crete

almost entirely inhabited by Greeks, and on the fall of Syracuse in 878 it was lost to the empire. Both these conquests owed much to popular sympathy. Rome was attacked in 846 and 850, and had to ransom herself in 871. Greek and Roman Italy freed herself with Frankish help, but not till Normans had made themselves helpful where they were soon to rule.

MUTASSEM (833-42), following his brother, maintained the desolating indecisive wars in Asia Minor. With him departed the glory of the Abbasides. Afraid to arm or to trust his own subjects, he left Bagdad for Samarra, 100 miles up the Tigris, and surrounded himself with 50,000 Turks. Civil and military administration was soon in their hands. Their steadier valour and strength compensated the decayed religious enthusiasm of the Arabs. Thereafter the califs held power and life by the grace of the Turks.

Before the Abbasides, religion and conquest were the ends of Saracen power. The Abbasides strove after science and refinement. Yet of wars they had no end. Rebellion hardly ever ceased. ALMANSŪR had to quell his uncle Abdallah, formerly so useful to him, and afterwards a nephew. Sectarian persecution was the bane of ALWĀTHEK's reign (842-47) and MUTAWAKKIL's (847-61). His son, MŪSTASIR, conspired with the Turks against him and slew him, and reigned 861-62. ALMUSTAİN reigned 862-70; ALMUHTADI, 870-71; ALMŪTAMĪD, 871-93; ALMŪTADHĪD, 893-903; ALMŪKTAFĪ, 903-8; ALMŪKTADIR, 908-32; KĀHIR, 932-34; RADHĪ, 934-40, was the last calif that like a true Imām and calif preached to the people. MUTAKKĪ died 944; MUSTAKFĪ, his successor, had no temporal power beyond the walls of Bagdad.

Another blow to the califate was the rise of the Karmathian heresy preached by a new prophet at Kufa (890), and spread by the swords of Abu Saïd and his son Abu Taher. In Bahrein and Omān, where the sect is still numerous, their temporal power began. Basra was taken; Mecca was taken with great slaughter (930), and the black stone (see KĀĀBA) was carried away by those despisers of pilgrimages and other formalities. In a few years the Karmathian power melted away under the swords of the orthodox.

Still greater mischief resulted from the size of the califate itself. Emirs everywhere became hereditary by favour of the calif, then without it; then instead of men and revenue were sent complimentary gifts—an elephant, a jewel, a few slaves. Then came independence. The Aglabides, one of whom, Ziyādat Allāh, was governor of North Africa, while his brother led the expedition against Sicily, reigned over these two regions till 909. Their seat was Kairwān. EDRIS, of Hassan's and Ali's blood, was proclaimed king in West Africa in 788, and established the kingdom of Fez; he built the city (806). He was poisoned by an emissary of Haroun al Raschid. His descendants reigned till 967. With Berber aid Fatimides overthrew the Aglabides and Edrisides, and (969-70) possessed themselves of Egypt, which had been independent since 935. Thence they quickly subdued Syria. This they lost to the Crusaders. They gradually became merely phantasmal califs under their vezirs, who even became sultans, till in 1171 Saladin, a Kurd, founded the line of Ayūbide sultans of Egypt. That country thereafter always recognised the califs of Bagdad as the Commanders of the Faithful. ALMAMŪN's great general, Taher, and his children, to the fourth generation, reigned in Chorasan.

In 917 three Persian brothers, Bowides, usurped dominion from the Caspian Sea to the Persian Gulf. The califs, miserable slaves of the Turks, called in the Bowide sultan, who in 946 took

Bagdad and became the lieutenant or commander of the Commander of the Faithful, leaving him merely a spiritual superiority." In 963-75 Nicephorus Phocas and John Zimisces swept everything but the impregnable Tripoli before them, from Cappadocia to the walls of Bagdad, retaining the oft-contested Cilician cities and Antioch and Cyprus for the empire. From the Bowide, who then and at other times proved himself a tyrannical master but a weak protector, the calif had to appeal to the Turkish Seljuk's grandson, Toghrul Beg. He, pushing towards India the Gaznaide Turkish princes who reigned from the Caspian Sea to the Indus, had planted himself in Ecbatana (Hamadân). Marching thence he destroyed the Bowide dynasty, took Bagdad (1050), and became Defender of the Faith and protector of the calif. When the Seljuks, running the usual round of Asiatic dynasties—valour, greatness, discord, degeneracy, decay—had succumbed to Genghis Khân, the califs recovered the civil rule of Bagdad and Irak Arabi. But Hulagu prosecuting his grandfather's conquests, laid siege to Bagdad (1258). The calif Mustasem, from among his seven hundred concubines, exhorted him to repent; but after two months the city was taken and pillaged with fearful slaughter, and Hulagu pronounced sentence of death on the last of Mohammed's temporal successors.

Mustasem's representative was found in Egypt in 1517, when the Turks seized that country. On his death in 1538 the sultan of Turkey assumed the title of calif. It is little recognised but among his own subjects.

Ommiades of Spain.—ABDURRAHMAN I. (755-87), on accepting the Spanish throne which was offered him by the Arab chiefs, assumed the titles of *Calif* and *Emir-ul-Muminin*, and in spite of numerous revolts, strengthened and extended his power in Spain, till, with the exception of Asturias and the country north of the Ebro, his authority was everywhere acknowledged. He built (786) the great mosque of Cordova, now the cathedral. He divided his kingdom into six provinces, whose rulers, with the *walis* of the twelve principal towns, formed a sort of national diet. His successors, HASHEM I. (787-96) and AL-HAKEM I. (796-821), were much troubled with internal revolts, under cover of which Charlemagne planted at the east end of the Pyrenees the state called the Spanish March or county of Barcelona, and at the west end the Gascon March, afterwards called the kingdom of Navarre. ABDURRAHMAN II. (821-52) re-established internal quiet, and occupied his subjects with incessant wars against the Christians. These conflicts developed among the Arabs that chivalrous heroism which is found nowhere else in the Mohammedan world. Abdurrahman, himself a man of learning, greatly encouraged the arts and sciences, and diffused information among his people; he also attempted, by regulating the laws of succession to property, to constitute his kingdom on a basis analogous to that of other European nations. During his reign Mohammedan Spain was the best-governed country in Europe. His successors, MOHAMMED I. (852-80), MONDHAR (880-82), and ABDALLAH (882-912), followed in his footsteps. ABDURRAHMAN III. (912-61), after suppressing some dangerous revolts which had gathered head during his minority, conquered the kingdom of Fez from the Edrisides, and brought a long and exhausting war with the power of Asturias and Leon to a victorious conclusion. This period is justly termed the golden age of the Arab domination in Spain, for at no other period was their power so consolidated and their prosperity so flourishing. Abdurrahman, like his predecessors, was a great encourager of learning, and a poet of

no mean ability. He founded schools which far surpassed those in other parts of Europe. His son, AL-HAKEM II. (961-76), was in every way worthy to be his successor, but his premature death was the cause of the downfall of the Ommiades in Spain. HASHEM II. (976-about 1013), a child of eight years, now occupied the throne; but fortunately his mother, Soheila, possessed the abilities necessary for such an emergency, and appointed as her son's vizier Mohammed ben Abdallah, surnamed Almansôr, 'the victorious,' who had originally been a peasant. This remarkable man gained the affections of all ranks by his pleasing manners and great abilities; his administration was equally just and judicious, and his encouragement of literature, science, and art alike liberal and discriminating. But it is as a warrior that he is chiefly remembered; he had vowed eternal enmity to the Christians, and in all his numerous expeditions fortune seemed linked with his standard. The lost provinces were recovered; Castile, Leon, and Barcelona were conquered; and Navarre was on the point of sharing the same fate, when a rebellion in Fez compelled him to detach a portion of his force for service in Africa, and the combined armies of the four Christian monarchies, seizing this opportunity, inflicted upon the Arabs a sanguinary defeat in 1001, at Calacanzar, on the Leon and Castile frontier. Mohammed's spirit was completely broken by this blow, and he died a few days afterwards. With him the star of the house of Ommeyyah set for ever. The rest of Hashem's reign was a scene of disorder and civil war. Pretenders to the califate arose, while the 'walis' of the various provinces set up as independent rulers, and the invasions of the Christians added to the confusion. Hashem finally, after having been supposed dead for several years, resigned the throne about 1013; and, with the exception of the brief reign of HASHEM III. (1027-31), from this time the family of Ommeyyah, which had for more than two centuries so happily and brilliantly governed the greater part of Spain, disappears from history. One remarkable feature of their rule deserves mention, as it contrasts them so favourably with the contemporary and subsequent rulers of Spain, even to the present time, and that is their universal toleration in religious matters. See SHITES, SUNNITES, the articles on MOHAMMED, HAROUN, and on the more important califs; as also MOHAMMEDANISM, and the works there quoted.

California, a state of the American Union, bounded N. by Oregon, E. by Nevada and Arizona, S. by the Mexican territory of Lower or Old California, and W. by the Pacific Ocean. The parallels of 32° 28' and 42° N. lat. respectively mark its S. and N. limits. The name California was given by the Spanish discoverers to the peninsular or Mexican territory, being transferred by them from Montalvo's *Las Sergas de Esplandian* (a continuation of his *Amadis*, q.v., 1508), in which it occurs as the name of an island full of gold and precious stones. The state has an area (according to the United States census of 1880) of 155,980 sq. m. It is thus larger than any other state except Texas, and larger than any territory except Alaska. It is larger than Italy, or Prussia, or Hungary, and more than a fourth larger than the whole of the United Kingdom.

The aspect of the country is extremely various, yet everywhere very different from that of the Atlantic and central states of the Union. Along the eastern border of the state, throughout the greater part of its length, extend the ranges of the Sierra Nevada (of which there is, however, in general, one main range), having a breadth of from 75 to 100 miles from east to west. In

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the extreme north the Sierra Nevada narrows and falls off in height; but by a relatively low ridge it connects with the Cascade Range (q.v.), which is both geographically and geologically its northward extension. The scenery in this part of the state is generally attractive, and often (as in the wonderful Yosemite and Hetch-Hetchy valleys) it is very striking. There are ten peaks which exceed 10,000 feet in height; Mount Whitney (14,886 feet) being higher than any other in the United States outside of Alaska. Several peaks have perpetual snow on their crests, and some small glaciers exist in the range. West of the Sierra Nevada lies the central valley of California, drained by the Sacramento River from the north, and the San Joaquin from the south, the two rivers having a common delta, and discharging their waters into the bay of San Francisco, through a shallow expanse called Suisun Bay. The eastern slope of the great valley is very gradual, while the opposite side of the Sierras has a sharp and precipitous descent towards the great basin of Nevada. The Coast Mountains do not form any very clearly defined range, but consist of a number of ill-defined ridges. In the north they are blended with the mountains of the eastern system; but to the north of the state limits the two systems again separate. To the south of the San Joaquin Valley a transverse ridge connects the coast-ranges with the Sierra, or its southern extension, separating to some extent Southern California from the rest of the state. This southern region occupies nearly one-fourth of the area of the state. Geologically, the coast-ranges are in general of much more recent date than the Sierra proper. The coast-line is mostly high and rocky, with only a few bays and harbours.

Extending more than 700 miles from north to south, and having great variations in respect of height, California presents a great variety of climatic conditions. In the north-west the rainfall is excessive, and in the north the winters are rather severe than mild; the coast region of the northern half of the state is damp, with cool or cold nights, even in summer. But Southern California, in temperature and productions, has a semi-tropical character; and the serenity of its climate has made it famous as a winter-resort and as a place of residence for invalids. In the south the scanty rainfall and the extreme summer heat detract from an otherwise perfect climate. In general it may be said that the winters in California are mild, and the summers dry, and not intensely hot, though often very dusty. There are practically but two seasons—a more or less rainy winter, and a nearly rainless summer. Extremes of temperature are much less marked than in the states east of the Rocky Mountains. The mean temperature in winter at Humboldt Bay is 43° 5', in summer 57° 5'; at Fort Yuma the winter mean is 57°, while the summer mean is 90°. In the interior the thermometer sometimes reaches 120° in summer.

Besides the San Joaquin and Sacramento and their tributaries, the principal rivers are the Rio Colorado, which forms the boundary between this state and Arizona; the Klamath River and its tributary the Trinity; the Mad, Smith, Eel, and other rivers, mostly small and flowing to the Pacific. Some of the interior streams flow to lakes and 'sinks' with no outlet to the sea. The principal lakes are Tulare Lake, which at high-water pours its surplus into the San Joaquin River; Clear Lake, noted for its beauty; Lakes Klamath and Rhett (or Tule) on the Oregon boundary; the great lakes of Modoc county, which have no outlets; the high mountain lake Tahoe, noted for its fine scenery; and the strongly alkaline and saline Mono and Owens lakes, which occupy ancient craters. Some of the dried-up lakes of the south-east have left basins lower than the sea-level.

The geology of the state presents some difficult problems, though its general features are simple. It would appear that a large part of the rock-formation was deposited by extinct rivers flowing seaward during the Palaeozoic era, throughout a great part of which time the ocean seems to have washed the western shores of the Rocky Mountain chain. The Sierra Nevada is to a great extent an upheaval dating from about the end of the Jurassic period. To the northward there are abundant evidences of much more recent volcanic action, such as the great lava beds of the north-east; and earthquakes, usually slight, are still frequent. The Sierra Nevadas in their turn suffered great denudation, and the wash from their sides forming an off-shore deposit, was at length slowly upheaved into the coast mountains. They may be assumed to date from near the end of the Miocene period. The richest finds of gold have been in detached Jurassic and Triassic fields along the slope of the Sierras, or at their base. The gold production of the state, at one time enormous, for many years declined, but has of late again increased. In the years 1848-64 the annual production was \$56,000,000; the total production in 1848-82 was \$1,185,000,000. The out-turn in 1887 is put at \$20,000,000. The ores at present worked are chiefly the abundant low-grade and lean ores, such as, if worked by the processes which prevailed a few years ago, would not afford a fair profit. Three-fourths of the annual product in bullion is now obtained from quartz; the rest mainly by hydraulic and drift mining. Quick-silver, lead, and silver ore are also largely obtained. Among the valuable minerals obtainable are borax, rock-salt, marbles, asphalt, potash-salts, native soda, sulphur, kaolin, and many others. California ranks as the third state of the Union in the product of petroleum. Natural gas, suitable for fuel, is reported to be found at various points. The coals of California are low-grade lignites, and are not extensively wrought. Copper, iron, chromium, antimony, and other metals abound.

But the metallic and mineral wealth of the state is not more remarkable than the range and magnitude of its agricultural resources. Wheat is the cereal most cultivated, and next to that barley. Oats do well, and maize grows in certain districts. The ordinary root-crops and garden vegetables flourish well, except potatoes, which, however, do well locally. Alfalfa, or lucerne, is a leading forage-crop. Experiments have shown that cotton, sugarcane, and rice can be grown throughout a large part of the interior valley. Nearly all the valuable fruits of the temperate zone flourish admirably, as well as the orange, lemon, fig, olive, almond, and pomegranate. Vast amounts of dried and otherwise preserved fruits are exported. The culture of semi-tropical fruits has latterly had a great extension in the central valley. The European grape-vine thrives finely here, and in general culture it replaces the native American species. The raisins of California are of high excellence and are abundantly produced; and brandy and wine are largely exported. The breeding of sheep and cattle is extensively carried on, wool especially being a staple product. Silk-growing is conducted on a moderate scale. Bee-keeping is a pursuit of great importance, some of the honey-farms ranking among the largest in the world. Dairy-farming is locally important. In many sections extensive systems of irrigation have been put in operation to facilitate agriculture. Irrigation is carried on by the network of flumes or ditches left by the placer system of mining for gold, as also by pumping and by artesian wells sunk through the dry and porous alluvial soil to the gravel beneath.

The native flora of California is very distinct from that of the country east of the Rocky Moun-

tains. Mention should be made of the 'big trees' (*Sequoia gigantea*; in Britain commonly known as *Wellingtonia*), noteworthy for their enormous size; also of the valuable redwood (*Sequoia sempervirens*), which forms extensive forests in the north. The country has a large number of interesting native shrubs and flowering plants. Several species of Eucalyptus and of other Australian trees have been introduced, and thrive remarkably. In the extreme south palm-trees and other subtropical plants locally occur. The forests, especially to the north, afford great amounts of timber, and the manufacture and shipment of lumber constitute an important industrial feature. Other leading branches of manufacture are the distillation of brandy, sugar-refining, the drying and preserving of fruits, shipbuilding, and the packing of meats. Many other manufacturing interests are in course of development. California blankets have a wide reputation for excellence. The fisheries are large and of growing importance. A considerable proportion of the product of the Alaska fisheries is marketed by way of San Francisco, and the ocean traffic of the state is chiefly centred at that port. The principal exports are wheat, barley, wool, wines, brandy, honey, hops, timber, provisions, metals, ores, borax, and other minerals; fish and furs, largely from Alaska; dried, preserved, and green fruits, including oranges, prunes, raisins, and almonds. The rapid and still progressing development of agricultural interests has already much reduced the business of grazing so long dominant in this state.

The university of California is at Berkeley. The famous Lick observatory, claiming to possess the largest telescope in the world, is at Mount Hamilton, 50 miles south of San Francisco, but belongs to the state university. Pop. (1850) 92,597; (1860) 379,994; (1870) 560,247; (1880) 804,694, of whom 6018 were coloured persons, 16,277 Indians, and 75,218 Chinese. The immigration of Chinese attained an enormous maximum in 1882, but has been almost wholly stopped by restrictive legislation. Amongst the Chinese the males outnumber females as 12 to 1; amongst the other population as 3 to 2.

The principal cities and towns are San Francisco (q.v.), the largest city on the Pacific slope of North America; Los Angeles, the metropolis of Southern California; San Diego, in the extreme south, which has the only commodious harbour in the state, excepting that of San Francisco; Oakland, Alameda, and Berkeley, which may be considered suburbs of San Francisco; Bakersfield and Fresno City, in the south part of the central valley; Napa City; the gold-mining towns of Nevada City and Grass Valley; Sacramento, the capital of the state; San Bernardino, in the south; Stockton, near the centre; San Buenaventura, Santa Cruz, and Santa Barbara on the coast; San Jose and Monterey, each formerly the state capital; Santa Rosa and Marysville.

History.—The peninsular (and still Mexican) territory of Old California was visited by Spaniards as early as 1534; and Cortez himself is believed to have surveyed the Gulf of California in 1536. Sir Francis Drake visited the coast in 1578. The early missions of what is now the state of California were under Franciscan control, and for many years thrived wonderfully. With the rest of Mexico, California became independent of Spain in 1822. This region was chiefly important for its export of hides and skins until after the war of 1847 between the United States and Mexico, one of the results of which was the transfer of Upper California (vastly more extensive than the present state) to the flag of the United States. The discovery of gold in 1848 was followed by an enormous excitement and

an inrush of gold-seekers. California was admitted to the Union in 1850. The administrative organisation was too weak to keep in order the wild lawless spirits who abounded amongst the new comers. Crimes of violence were frequent and were apt to go unpunished. Lynch Law (q.v.) became inevitable, and was had recourse to; soon after 1851, vigilance committees were established in the chief towns, and arrested, summarily tried, and hanged convicted thieves and murderers. The singular conditions of society that prevailed, in which gambling of all kinds was very conspicuous, is reflected in a considerable literature, of which Bret Harte is the best-known representative. Gradually a more regularly ordered state of things was established, and the development of the country has since been steady and rapid. In 1886 the state had 3286 miles of railway. See SAN FRANCISCO, YOSEMITE; histories of California by Capron (1854), Hittell (1886), Royce (1886), Soule, and H. H. Bancroft; and other works on the state by Cronise (1878) and Nordhoff (1882).

LOWER or OLD CALIFORNIA is a peninsula and a territory of Mexico, continuous southward from the state of California, and is detached by the Gulf of California and the lower reaches of the Rio Colorado from the rest of Mexico. Its reported area is 61,562 sq. m., or more than half the extent of Great Britain and Ireland. The climate is exceedingly dry, and excepting in some of the valleys, agriculture is hardly practicable. The surface of the country is mostly covered with mountains, often rough and broken, but nowhere very high. The whale-fishery on the west coast, and the pearl-fishery of the gulf, are of some value. Mining enterprises have been undertaken at various points, with but moderate success at the best. Since 1880 over 400 mines have been reported as being wrought. Salt is obtained from the Gulf Coast, and chiefly from Carmen Island, and orell is brought from the dry interior. Sugar is produced in a rude way in some of the fertile valleys. The vintage of El Patroncio is highly esteemed. The capital is La Paz, on one of the bays of the gulf. Pop. of territory, 30,198.

THE GULF OF CALIFORNIA, an arm of the Pacific Ocean, which divides the peninsula above described from the rest of Mexico, was originally known as the Sea of Cortez, by whom it was explored. It is 700 miles in length, and varies in width from 40 to 100 miles. At its northern extremity, where it receives the Colorado, it almost touches the territory of the United States.

Caligula, CAIUS CÆSAR AUGUSTUS GERMANICUS, Roman emperor (37-41 A.D.), the youngest son of Germanicus and Agrippina, was born August 31, 12 A.D., at Antium, and was educated in the camp, where the soldiers gave him the nickname Caligula, from the soldier's boots (*caliga*) which he wore. He ingratiated himself with Tiberius, and on the death of the latter (37 A.D.)—an event which there can be little doubt was either caused or accelerated by him—it was found that he had been appointed co-heir along with the emperor's grandson; but the senate conferred imperial power on Caligula alone. In the beginning of his reign he appeared little likely to fulfil the threat of Tiberius, who had talked of educating him 'for the destruction of the Roman people.' He was to appearance lavishly generous and merciful, pardoning even those who had been the instruments of cruelty against his own family. But this ostentatious magnanimity was itself a disease, an unwholesome affectation, and co-existed with the most savage voluptuousness and lust. Consequently, when illness, the result of his vicious life, had weakened his faculties, the lower qualities of his nature obtained the complete mastery. In

addition to the senseless prodigality with which he commenced his career, expending in one year the enormous wealth left by Tiberius (£5,625,000), he began to manifest the most barbarous propensities. He banished or murdered his relatives, excepting his uncle Claudius and sister Drusilla (with whom he carried on incestuous intercourse); filled Rome with executions, confiscating the estates of his victims; amused himself while dining by having victims tortured and slain in his presence; and uttered the hideous wish that all the Roman people had but one neck, that he might strike it off at a blow! To vie with Xerxes, he constructed a bridge of ships between Baia and Puteoli (three miles across), upon which he built houses, and celebrated the exploit by a costly banquet on the middle of the bridge, concluding the entertainment by throwing a great number of his guests into the sea. His favourite horse he made a member of the college of priests, and afterwards raised to the consulship. Finally, he declared himself a god, and had temples erected and sacrifices offered to himself. To gratify his insane desires he shrank from no infamy; he robbed, plundered, and taxed his subjects to a degree which seems almost incredible; and when even these means proved insufficient, he established a brothel in his own palace, and sent out his slaves to solicit the public patronage for it. At length a conspiracy was formed against him, and four months after his return from a plundering expedition into Gaul, he was assassinated, January 24, 41 A.D.

Caliph. See CALIF.

Calippic Cycle. See PERIOD.

Calisaya Bark. See CINCHONA.

Calisthenes, or CALLISTHENES (Gr. *kalos*, 'beautiful,' and *sthenos*, 'strength'), is a name for exercises for promoting gracefulness and strength, and comprises the more gentle forms of gymnastics, especially for girls.

Calixtines were the more moderate section of the *Hussites*, or followers of John Huss. They took their name from their contending for the giving of the cup (Lat. *calix*) in communion to the laity. For their history, see HUSS.

Calixtus, the name of three popes: CALIXTUS I. (properly *Callistus*), Bishop of Rome under Heliogabalus and Alexander Severus. According to Hippolytus, his bitter opponent, he was originally a slave, and had twice undergone severe punishment for his crimes before he became a priest under Zephyrinus, whom he succeeded, and who, while Calixtus was yet a deacon, gave him the charge of the *Cemeterium* on the Appian Way which has ever since borne his name. He was vigorously attacked by Hippolytus (q.v.) for his Patripassian views and the laxity of his discipline. —CALIXTUS II., formerly Guido, Archbishop of Vienne, was elected pope at Clugny 2d February 1119. In 1121 he overcame the antipope Burdinus (Gregory VIII.), who was supported by the emperor Henry V., and in 1122 concluded with the emperor the concordat of Worms, which settled the Investiture Controversy. He died on the 13th or 14th of December 1124. —CALIXTUS III., formerly Alfonso de Borja (Ital. *Borgia*), born at Jativa, near Valencia in Spain, was successively counsellor to Alfonso V. of Aragon, Bishop of Valencia, cardinal, and (from April 8, 1455) pope. He laboured in vain to organise a crusade against the Turks, raised to the cardinalate his nephew, Rodrigo Borgia (afterwards Pope Alexander VI.), and died August 6, 1458 (see ALEXANDER VI.). —The name Calixtus III. was also assumed by an antipope whom the emperor Frederick Barbarossa

set up in 1168 in opposition to Alexander III., and supported for nine years.

Calixtus, GEORG (properly *Callisen*), an eminent theologian of the Lutheran Church, born 14th December 1586, at Medelbye in Sleswick, studied philosophy and theology at Helmstedt from 1603 to 1609, and, after travelling for four years in Germany, Belgium, England, and France, became professor of theology in that university in 1614. His genius, the depth of his knowledge, and the large experience of the world and of men which he had acquired in his travels, developed in him a spirit of great tolerance towards all who held their religious opinions honestly, whatever these might be. Although acknowledged by learned Catholics to be one of the ablest of their opponents, he was, on account of some statements in his work *De Præcipuis Religionis Christianæ Capitibus* (1613) which seemed favourable to Catholic dogmas, and of others in his *Epitome Theologiæ Moralis* (1634) and *De Tolerantia Reformationum* (1658) which approached too near to the Reformed or Calvinistic standpoint, declared guilty of abominable heresy by the orthodox and dogmatically rigid Lutherans. Calixtus felt keenly that the polemical harshness of Lutheranism was a serious obstacle in the way of a great Catholic Christianity, and that Protestantism must assume another form before it could hope to become the religion of Europe. Under this conviction, Calixtus endeavoured to show that the oldest and most fundamental articles of the Christian faith—viz. the facts embodied in the 'Apostles' Creed'—were common to all Christian sects. Having stated in subsequent dissertations that the doctrine of the Trinity was less distinctly taught in the Old than in the New Testament, and that good works were necessary to salvation; and finally, at the religious conference of Thorn, in 1645, whither he was sent as a mediator by the Elector of Brandenburg, having been on more intimate terms with the Calvinistic than the Lutheran theologians, Calixtus was accused of apostasy. His friends in Brunswick, however, stood firmly by him, and he retained his professorial chair till his death on 19th March 1656. See Henke, *Georg Calixtus und seine Zeit* (1853-60).

Calkin, JAMES, composer, was born in London in 1786, was organist for thirty years to the Regent Square Church, and died in London in 1862. He composed a symphony, an overture, string quartets, pianoforte music, and madrigals.

Calla, an aquatic or marsh-loving genus of Araceæ (q.v.), with beautiful white spathes, cordate leaves, flowers crowded up to the extremity of the spadix, and red berries. *Calla palustris* is widely distributed through the marshes of palæarctic and nearctic regions, and acquires some economic importance in Lapland and parts of Russia (Vitebsk) from the fact that its root-stock, like that of so many other members of the same order, is a wholesome source of starchy



Calla palustris.

matter, used in bread-making, after its acrid and poisonous properties have been removed by washing and cooking. The well-known and beautiful *Richardia athiopica*, often popularly called 'Lily of the Nile,' was formerly included in this genus, and is often still called Calla.

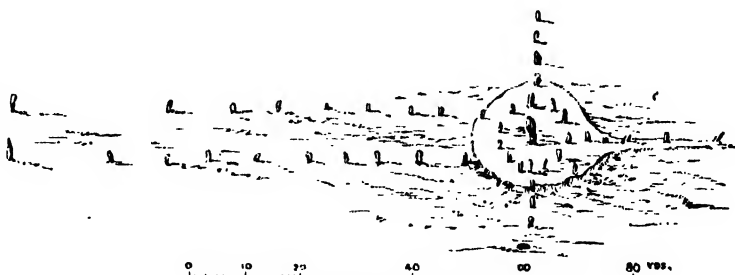
Callander, a Perthshire village on the left bank of the Teith, 16 miles NW. of Stirling by rail. It lies in a beautiful and romantic situation described in Scott's *Lady of the Lake*, and is surrounded by high mountains and Highland lakes. Hence it is much frequented by tourists, who make it a centre to visit Loch Lubnaig, Ben-Ledi, the Trossachs, and Loch Katrine. Pop. 1522.

Callao, the port of Lima, Peru, lies 7 miles SW. of Lima by rail, on a small bay. The streets generally are narrow and the buildings unimportant. The town possesses a floating-dock, while fine harbour-works, embracing an area of 520 acres, with extensive pier and dock accommodation, were completed in 1875; and the spacious roadstead, sheltered by the island of San Lorenzo, is one of the safest in the world. The huge old Spanish fortress is used for custom-house offices. There are sugar-refineries, ironworks, and sawmills; but the place depends chiefly for its prosperity on its trade. The exports are wool, sugar, specie, copper, cotton, bark, hides, guano, and cubic nitre. Pop. (1876) 33,502. The present Callao dates only from 1744, when the original city, a short distance to the south, was destroyed by an earthquake and an invasion of the sea. Callao was bombarded in 1880 during the war between Chili and Peru, and the annexation by the former of the guano-producing islands materially decreased the exports of this manure; cubic nitre (a government monopoly) and wool come next in importance. By the completion of a direct cable between this port and Mollendo, telegraphic communication was established with the United States.

Callcott, JOHN WALL, composer, was born at Kensington in 1766, and abandoning medicine for music, in 1785 was made Bachelor, in 1800 Doctor, of Music at Oxford. In 1806 he published his *Musical Grammar*; the year after, his mind gave way. He recovered in 1812, but only for four years, when he relapsed, and continued insane till his death near Bristol, 15th May 1821. He was one of the most eminent composers belonging to the British school of music, and especially celebrated for his glees. The best of these were published in 1824, with a memoir by his son-in-law, W. Horsley. —His brother, SIR AUGUSTUS WALL CALLCOTT, landscape-painter, was born at Kensington in 1779, and for six years was a chorister at Westminster. In 1799 he exhibited a portrait at the Academy, and from 1804 devoted himself to landscape-painting. He became an A.R.A. in 1806, an R.A. in 1810, was knighted in 1837, and died 25th November 1844. His landscapes are remarkable for their beauty, clear definition of objects, good drawing, and truthful natural colouring. See Dufforne's *Pictures by Callcott* (1875). His wife, Lady Maria Callcott (1785-1842), was author of *Little Arthur's History of England*, and fourteen less-known works.

Callernish, a district on the west coast of the island of Lewis, 16 miles from Stornoway, remark-

able for its stone circles. There are four at no great distance from one another, but without any visible relation. The principal one, of which the figure gives a bird's-eye view, is of a more than



Callernish Circle.

usually elaborate design. Two lines of upright stones run parallel to each other in a northerly direction, while a single line of similar stones is projected from the south, east, and west points, thus giving a cruciform figure to the structure, whose extreme dimensions are 408 by 130 feet. A larger stone than any of the others, being 17 feet high, and 5½ feet broad at the base, occupies the centre of the circle, which circle is 42 feet in diameter. The stones themselves are not columnar or shaped into any form; they are simply broad, flat blocks of gneiss—the all-prevailing rock from the Butt of Lewis to Barra Head. There are 13 stones in the circle, including the centre one, 19 in the avenue, 4 in each of the east and west, and 5 in the south arm. The pent, which in the lapse of centuries had accumulated around the base of the stones to a depth of 5 feet, was removed in 1858, when a chambered cairn was discovered within the circle. See Dr Joseph Anderson's *Scotland in Pagan Times* (1886).

Callichthys (Gr. *kalos*, 'beautiful'; *ichthys*, 'a fish'), a genus of physostomatous bony fishes of the family Siluridae (q.v.), having the body almost entirely covered by four rows of large, hard, narrow, scaly plates. The head is also protected by bony plates. The mouth is small; the teeth are very minute or even absent; two long barbules hang from each angle of the mouth. The twelve species of this fresh-water genus are natives of South America. When the streams or pools which they inhabit dry up, they are said to make their way across the land to some other piece of water. They may also bury themselves in the mud of wet meadows, out of which they are dug. A still more interesting habit is that of making regular nests, generally of leaves, in which they deposit their eggs, near the margin of the water, at the beginning of the rainy season. The male and female unite in watching the nests until the young are hatched. These habits are shared by the species of the allied genus *Doras*, in which the lateral plates are broader, keeled, and spiny.

Calligonum, a genus of leafless Polygonaceæ (q.v.), with large four-winged nuts or achenes. *C. Pallasia* is a succulent shrub common on sandy steppes near the Caspian, where its acid shoots and fruits often serve to allay thirst. A nutritious gum is prepared from its root.

Callimachus, an eminent poet, grammarian, and critic of the Alexandrian period, flourished about the middle of the 3d century B.C. He was born of a distinguished family at Cyrene in Libya; taught grammar and belles-lettres in Alexandria; was a favourite of Ptolemy Philadelphus, and his successor, Ptolemy Euergetes; and was made prin-

cial librarian of the Alexandrian Library. He is said to have written as many as eight hundred works on the most various subjects, but of these the merest fragments are extant, only six hymns and sixty-four epigrams being complete. His elegies were much admired by the Roman poets Catullus, Propertius, and Ovid. The remains we possess are enough to show that art and learning, rather than genius, characterised his poetry. The largest of his lost poems were *Aitia* ('Causes'), in four books, on the origin of mythical stories, and an epic *Hekale*. The best edition of the remains is that of O. Schneider (2 vols. 1870-73); of the Hymns and Epigrams, those of Meineke (1861) and Wilamowitz (1882).

Callionymus. See DRAGONET.

• **Calliopé** ('the sweet-voiced'), the muse of epic poetry and of knowledge in general. She was the mother of Orpheus. See MUSES.

Callipers, a kind of compasses with curved legs, used by turners and other workmen for measuring the diameters of cylindrical, spherical, and other curved work.

Callirrhoe, daughter of Achelous and wife of Alceon (q.v.).

Callisthenes OF OLYNTHUS, a kinsman and pupil of Aristotle, devoted himself to the study of natural and political history, and accompanied Alexander the Great in his expedition to India. His bold outspoken ways, and his especial displeasure at the adoption of oriental habits and the intended assumption of divine honours, brought him under the king's displeasure, and led to his being put to death on a pretended charge of treason, 328 B.C. Only a few fragments of his historic works remain, and these are not valuable. The *History of Alexander* ascribed to him is evidently a production of the 2d or 3d century A.D., and much more romance than history. See ALEXANDER; and Westernmann, *De Callisthene* (Leip. 1838-42).

Callistratus, an Athenian orator, whose eloquence is said to have fired the imagination of the youthful Demosthenes. For his Spartan sympathies he was condemned to death by the Athenians in 361, and on his return from exile in Macedonia, was actually executed. Another Callistratus was a grammarian and critic.

Callosities. See CORNS; also MONKEYS.

Callot, JACQUES, engraver, was born at Nancy in 1594, and early devoted himself to art in opposition to his father's wishes. A boy of twelve, he attached himself to a band of Gypsies, and wandered with them to Florence; thence a gentleman sent him on to Rome, where, however, some Nancy merchants recognised him, and induced him to return home. He twice revisited Italy, and the second time (about 1612) became Thomassin's pupil at Rome in drawing and engraving; afterwards he repaired to Florence, where, by numerous spirited etchings, he gained great fame, and engraved for Cosmo II., Grand-duke of Tuscany, a series of plates of court festivals, &c. On his patron's death (1621), Callot returned to Nancy, there to be favourably received by the Duke of Lorraine, and to increase his reputation by a copious series of etchings, including six plates of the siege of Breda. For Louis XIII., who invited him to Paris, he executed etchings of the siege of Rochelle; but he refused to commemorate the capture of his native town, and, declining a pension offered by the king, returned to Nancy, where he died, 28th March 1635. His activity as an artist was marvellous. His realistic engravings, some 1600 in number, are invaluable from the vivid light they cast on the manners of the 17th century. His 'Miseries of War,' a series of eighteen plates,

and his 'Gypsies,' are especially celebrated. See the works on him by Thausing (Vienna, 1881), Meunier (2 vols. Nancy, 1860), Dumast (Nancy, 1875), and Houssaye (Paris, 1875).

Callovian, a division of the Jurassic System (q.v.) on the Continent, represented in England by the Kellaways Rock.

Callus, a term employed in old surgical works and still used popularly to indicate the exuded material by which fractures of bones are consolidated together. See FRACTURE.

Calmet, AUGUSTINE, a learned Benedictine, was born at Mesnil-la-Horgue, near Commercy, February 26, 1672. Entering the order of Benedictines in 1689, he was successively appointed teacher of philosophy and theology in the Abbey Moyen-Moutier (1698), sub-prior at Münster in Alsace (1704), prior at Lay (1715), abbot of St Leopold (1718), and abbot of Senones in Lorraine (1728). He died at Paris, October 25, 1757. His exegetical writings have been commended by both Roman Catholics and Protestants. The *Commentary on the Bible* (23 vols. Paris, 1707-16), though marred by the author's defective knowledge of the oriental languages, contains valuable researches in biblical antiquities. His *Historical and Critical Dictionary of the Bible* (4 vols. 1722-28)—the first work of its kind—was translated into English, German, and other languages, and has passed through many editions. Of Calmet's other works, a *History of the Bible and of the Jews* (2 vols. 1718) and a *Universal History* (17 vols. 1735-71) are mere compilations; but his *History of Lorraine* (4 vols. 1728) is founded on original researches. See LIVES of him by Digot (Nancy, 1861), and Guillaume (*ib.* 1875).

Calms, or CALM LATITUDES, are those tracts of the ocean on the confines of the trade-winds (see WINDS) which are subject to total absence of wind for long periods together. Their northern limit varies from 5° to 12° N., and their southern limit from 1° to 3° N. lat.

Calmucks. See KALMUCKS.

Calne, an old-fashioned market-town of Wiltshire, 6 miles ESE. of Chippenham by a branch line (1863). It has a town-hall (1882), a free grammar-school (1660), and a large bacon-curing industry. From the 14th century till 1885 Calne was a parliamentary borough. At a synod held here by St Dunstan in 977, relative to the celibacy of the clergy, the floor of the room gave way, precipitating all but St Dunstan to the ground. Pop. (1851) 2544; (1881) 2474. Bowood, 2 miles south-west, the seat of the Marquis of Lansdowne, is an Italian edifice by Adam; at Cherhill, 3 miles east, is the spirited figure of a White Horse, 157 feet long, cut out in the chalk in 1780, and visible 50 miles off.

Caloce, another name for Boehmeria (q.v.).

Calomar'de, DON FRANCISCO TADEO, DUKE, a Spanish statesman, was born in 1775 at Villal in Aragon, and becoming Minister of Justice under Ferdinand VII., persecuted the Liberals with cold-blooded cruelty, recalled the Jesuits, reopened the monasteries, and closed the universities. He also secretly favoured the party of Don Carlos, and in 1832, when Ferdinand was supposed to be on his death-bed, prevailed on the king to reintroduce the Salic Law, by which Christina was excluded from the throne. This excited the hatred of the nation; and Ferdinand, recovering, abolished the law. To avoid imprisonment, Calomar'de fled to France, where he died at Toulouse in 1842.

Calomel is the popular name of one of the compounds of mercury, Hg, and chlorine, Cl, known to chemists as the subchloride of mercury or mercurous chloride, HgCl. It is prepared by taking two

equal portions of mercury, dissolving one portion in hot concentrated sulphuric acid, H_2SO_4 , which forms sulphate of mercury, $HgSO_4$, thereafter adding the second part of the metal, and triturating the whole in a mortar till the metal becomes incorporated with the sulphate of mercury. This mixture is then added to about one-third of its weight of common salt, $NaCl$, and heated in a retort, when calomel sublimes, and condenses in the cool part of the receiver as a fine white powder. A minute portion of corrosive sublimate which accompanies it is removed by washing with water. Calomel is very dense. It is not soluble in water, and sparingly so in acids. It turns black on the addition of lime-water, potash, soda, or ammonia; and when heated in an iron spoon, or on a knife, it does not char, but rises in vapour, sublimes unaltered, and readily condenses again on any cool surface held near it. By these tests it may be readily distinguished from flour. Although calomel has been more used in British practice than any other preparation of mercury, it is not known to have been employed before the 17th century. It is the most valuable of the mercurial preparations, possessing, in addition to their general properties (see MERCURY), those of a vermifuge and purgative.

Calonne, CHARLES ALEXANDRE DE, Controller-general of Finance in France under Louis XVI., was born at Douay in 1734. He studied law, and having filled successively various offices, was made in 1783 Controller-general of the Treasury. In this capacity he soon gained favour among the courtiers, who had complained of the parsimony of Turgot and Necker. His plan was a simple one; he generously showered on the courtiers and people of influence sums which he obtained by borrowing and increased taxation. This could only last for a time; embarrassments grew on him till the inevitable crisis came; and in 1786, when the people could bear the extraordinary taxation no longer, Calonne advised the king to convoke the Assembly of the Notables, and proposed to abolish many of the privileges of the nobles, such as their exemption from taxes, and to distribute the burden of taxation more equally. The people and the aristocracy demanded a convocation of the States-general, instead of the Assembly of the Notables; but Calonne boldly proceeded with his plan, opened the Assembly of the Notables in 1787, and in a pleasant and florid oration described the general prosperity of French industry and commerce, and brought his speech to a climax by confessing that the annual deficit of the treasury had risen to 115 millions of francs, and that during the time from 1776 to 1786 the government had borrowed no less a sum than about 1250 millions! The Notables, instead of proceeding with Calonne's plan of reorganisation, demanded from him a statement of accounts. Not being able to give this satisfactorily, he was stripped of his dignities and banished to Lorraine. After this, Calonne resided chiefly in England, until in 1802 he obtained from Bonaparte permission to return to France, where, on 30th October, he died in very embarrassed circumstances.

Calophyllum (Gr., 'beautiful leaf'), an important genus of Guttifera (q.v.). Some yield valuable timber—e.g. *C. angustifolium* of Penang—and are also a source of valuable resins, *C. inophyllum* supplying Tacamahaca (q.v.). *C. Calaba* of the West Indies yields oil from its seeds, and is also a serviceable timber-tree. See POON-WOOD.

Caloric, a term given to a supposed imponderable fluid which was the cause of Heat (q.v.); and used loosely for heat. For Caloric Engine, see AIR-ENGINE.

Calorimeter is an instrument for measuring the specific heat of a body; the determination

being effected by ascertaining the quantity of ice at zero which is turned into water by the transference to it of heat from the body (at a known temperature) under examination. See HEAT.

Calotropis. See MUDAR.

Calottistes (*Le Régiment de la Calotte*), a society of witty and satirical men in the time of Louis XIV., who were headed by two officers in the king's bodyguard, named Torsac and Aimon. Their name was taken from the word *calotte* (a 'small cap,' worn by monks over the tonsure), and their amusement consisted in sending to any public character who had exposed himself to ridicule, a 'patent,' authorising him to wear the *calotte*, as a covering for the weak part of his head. As the society became audacious, and did not spare even royalty itself, it was dissolved by the minister Fleury. The *Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de la Calotte* (Basel, 1725) is an amusing little book. After the Restoration, the title *Régime de la Calotte* was applied to the priestly administration of affairs.

Calotype (Gr. *kalos*, 'beautiful'; *typos*, 'impression') was the name given in 1840 by Dr Fox Talbot to the method of photographing by the action of light on nitrate of silver, invented by him about that date. See PHOTOGRAPHY.

Calovius, ABRAHAM (originally *Kalan*), the chief representative of controversial Lutheran orthodoxy in the 17th century, born 16th April 1612 at Mohrungen in East Prussia, was successively professor at Königsberg (1637), preacher at Danzig (1643), and professor at Wittenberg (1650). He waged war incessantly on Arminian, Socinian, Reformed, and Catholic doctrines, and with the greatest bitterness against Calixtus. 'He was,' says Tholuck, 'formed by nature for a grand inquisitor: hard features, powerful under-jaw, staring eyes.' He was six times married, the last time in his seventy-second year to a young daughter of his colleague Quenstedt. He died at Wittenberg, 25th February 1686. Calovius' chief writings are his *Systema Locorum Theologicorum* (12 vols. 1635-77), *Historia Syncretistica* (1682), and *Biblia Illustrata* (4 vols. 1672).

Caloyers (mod. Gr. *kaloyeri*, 'good old men'), a general name for the monks of the Greek Church.

Calpe, one of the Pillars of Hercules (q.v.), identified with Gibraltar.

Caltabelotta, a town of Sicily, 10 miles NE. of Sciacca, most picturesquely situated around an ancient castle, which crowns a steep rock overhanging a stream. Caltabelotta was long a Saracen town, and its name is said to be derived from *Kalaat-el-Ballât* ('the castle of the cork-trees'). Pop. (1881) 6178.

Caltagirone, a city of Sicily, 38 miles SW. of Catania, is built upon two hills (2013 feet). It has wide streets, and several palaces and fine public buildings. Its most notable manufactures are pottery and statuettes of clay. Pop. (1881) 28,119.

Caltanissetta, a fortified town of Sicily, 83 miles SE. of Palermo by rail. It has a cathedral, mineral springs, and extensive sulphur-works. Pop. (1881) 25,027.

Caltha. See MARSH MARI-GOLD.

Caltrop, a four-pronged piece of iron, each prong about four inches in length, formerly thrown down in warfare to check the approach of the enemy's cavalry over a plain, or of besiegers in the ditch of a fortification.



Caltrop.

Calumba, or COLOMBO, used in medicine, is the root of *Jateorhiza palmata*, a Menispermaceous climber of Eastern Africa, which has been introduced into India. Sliced and dried, it has a greenish-yellow tint, a very bitter taste, and a faint aromatic odour. Its bitterness and other properties are ascribed to the presence of columbin, berberin, and columbic acid. It is a useful mild tonic and stomachic. — **AMERICAN CALUMBA ROOT** is obtained from *Fraseria Walteri*, a gentianaceous biennial, and has properties like those of gentian.

Calumet, the 'peace-pipe' of the North American Indians, is a tobacco-pipe having a stem of reed or painted wood about two feet and a half long, decorated with feathers, with a large bowl, usually of red soapstone. After a treaty has been signed, the Indians fill the calumet with the best tobacco, and present it to the representatives of the party with whom they have been entering into alliance, themselves smoking out of it afterwards. The presentation of it to strangers is a mark of hospitality, and to refuse it would be considered an act of hostility. Originally *calumet* was merely the Norman name for a shepherd's pipe (Fr. *chalumeau*, Lat. *calumnus*), which the early French settlers applied to the native pipe from its resemblance; and we find it thus applied by Pere Marquette (1673), and in the earlier 'Jesuit Relations' of 1638.

Calumet, a mining town of Houghton county, Michigan, on a peninsula of Lake Superior, 42 miles N. of L'Anse by rail. The Calumet and Hecla copper mine here is said to be the richest in the world; its annual produce ranging from 31,675,239 lb. in 1880, to 50,518,222 lb. in 1886. Pop. 5000.

Calumny, LAW AS TO. See LIBEL, SLANDER.

Calvados, a French maritime department of Normandy. The principal rivers are the Tonques, Orne, Dives, Seulles, Aure, and Vire. The coast, which has few bays or inlets, is partly formed by bold ridges, and partly by sand-downs, cliffs, and reefs; the dangerous reef extending for 16 miles between the mouths of the Orne and the Vire was called Calvados, after the *Salvador*, one of the vessels in the Spanish Armada shipwrecked here, and from it the department takes its name. The soil is generally fertile, especially in the valleys, supplying rich pasturage for horned cattle, sheep, horses, and swine, which constitute the principal wealth of Calvados. The climate is moist, but healthy. Iron, marble, granite, and coal are found. The chief towns are Caen (the capital), Bayeux, Falais, Honfleur, Lisieux, and Trouville. Area, 2130 sq. m.; pop. (1861) 480,992; (1886) 437,267.

Calvaert, DENIS, called also DIONISIO FLAMMINGO, painter, was born at Antwerp about 1540, and settled at Bologna. There he opened a school, which numbered among its students the celebrated Guido Reni, Domenichino, and Albani, who afterwards, however, were pupils of the Caracci. Many excellent pictures by him are still preserved at Bologna. He died in 1619.

Calvary, the Anglicised form of the Vulgate *calvaria*, which was the Latin rendering of the Greek *kranion*, as that again of the Hebrew *golgotha* or *gulgatha*, all three words meaning 'a skull.' Why the scene of the Crucifixion was called 'the place of a skull' has been keenly debated, whether from the skulls of criminals lying about there, or from its being a round, bare, skull-like hillock. The latter is probably the true explanation; though none of the Evangelists offers any warranty for the current phrase, 'Mount Cal-

vary.' It lay beyond but nigh to the city, and by Captain Conder is identified with 'the old "House of Stoning," or place of public execution according to the law of Moses, on the top of the remarkable knoll outside the Damascus gate, on the north side of Jerusalem. It was from this cliff that the criminal used to be flung before being stoned (according to the Talmud), and on it his body was afterwards crucified; for the spot commands a view all over the city; and from the slopes round it the whole population might easily witness the execution' (see JERUSALEM). — In Catholic countries the term Calvary is applied to an eminence crowned with one or three crosses bearing life-sized figures of Christ and the thieves, and surrounded sometimes by a number of figures, representing the various personages who took part in the crucifixion. Along the approach to such a Calvary—the *Via Dolorosa*, the Way of the Cross—are sculptured representations of the Stations (q.v.) of the Cross.

Calverley, CHARLES STUART, the prince of modern English parodists, was the son of the Rev. Henry Blayds, who in 1852 took the name of Calverley, and was born on 22d December 1831. From Harrow he passed to Balliol College, Oxford, whence after a brief period he migrated to Christ's College, Cambridge, where he graduated as second classic in 1856. Within two years he was elected a fellow of his college. In 1865 he was called to the bar, and settled in London, but a fall on the ice in the winter of 1866-67 put an end to what might have been an exceptionally brilliant career. He died at Folkestone on the 17th of February 1884. One of the most gifted men of his time, and unrivalled as a humorist, Calverley will be remembered by his two little volumes, *Verses and Translations* (1862) and *Fly Leaves* (1872). His parodies, particularly that of Jean Ingelow, are the best that have appeared since the *Rejected Addresses*, and the delicacy of his scholarship finds admirable expression in his numerous renderings from Latin into English, and from English into Latin. The translation of Theocritus (1869) shows at once his ripe scholarship and his facile mastery of English verse. His *Literary Remains*, with a memoir by Mr W. J. Sendall, were published in 1885.

Calvert, FREDERICK CRACE, chemist, born in London in 1819, resided in France (1836-46), and settled as a consulting chemist in Manchester, where he died 24th October 1873. His researches in applied chemistry produced valuable results, and he was largely instrumental in introducing carbolic acid as a disinfectant. Besides numerous scientific papers, he published a work on *Dyeing and Calico-printing* (new ed. 1878).

Calvert, GEORGE HENRY, a many-sided American author, great-grandson of Lord Baltimore (q.v.), was born in Maryland in 1803, and studied at Harvard and Göttingen. His works, which exhibit considerable purity of style and originality of thought, embrace poems, tragedies, comedies, essays, translations from the German, and studies of Goethe (1872), Wordsworth (1878), Shakespeare (1879), and Coleridge, Shelley, and Goethe (1880). He has lived since 1843 at Newport, Rhode Island.

Calves-head Club was the name assumed by an association instituted (and named) in express contempt of the memory of Charles I., and holding its principal meeting on the 30th January, the anniversary of that king's execution. After the Restoration this club met in secret and under difficulties, but seems to have continued in existence till 1734, when popular ill-will against some outrageous toasts proposed led to a serious riot. The club seems after this to have decayed.

Calvi, a fortified seaport of Corsica, on a peninsula in the Gulf of Calvi, 38 miles WSW. of Bastia.

Calvi was captured by the English in 1704, after a siege of fifty-one days, during which Nelson lost an eye; it was retaken by the Corsicans in the following year. Pop. 1987.

Calvin, JOHN, was born at Noyon, in Picardy, on the 10th of July 1509. His father, Gérard Calvin or Canvin, was procureur-fiscal of the district of Noyon, and secretary of the diocese. He was one of six children—four sons and two daughters. All the three sons who survived were bred ecclesiastics; and the reformer himself, while still only twelve years of age, was appointed to a chaplaincy in the cathedral church of Noyon. Calvin was educated in circumstances of ease, and even affluence. The noble family of De Montmor, in the neighbourhood, invited him to share in the studies of their children; he was in some measure adopted by them; and when the family went to Paris, in his fourteenth year, he accompanied them. He was entered as a pupil in the Collège de la Marche, under the regency of Mathurin Cordier, better remembered, perhaps, by his Latin name of Corderius. It was under this distinguished master that Calvin laid the foundation of his own wonderful mastery of the Latin language. During this early period, he was distinguished by the great activity of his mental powers, and the grave severity of his manners. His companions, it is said, surnamed him the 'Aconative.'

For a while his attention was directed to the study of law, and his father sent him to the university of Orléans, then adorned by Pierre de l'Étoile, one of the most famous jurists of his day. At Orléans, he continued the same life of rigorous temperance and earnest studiousness for which he was already noted. It was while a law-student in Orléans that he became acquainted with the Scriptures, and received his first impulse to the theological studies which have made his name so distinguished. A relative of his own, Pierre Robert Olivetan, was there engaged in a translation of the Scriptures; and this had the effect of drawing Calvin's attention, and awakening within him the religious instinct which was soon to prove the master-principle of his life. The seeds of the new faith were now beyond doubt sown in his heart, and from this time, although he still continued for a while longer to pursue his legal studies, his main interests appear to have been religious and theological. From Orléans he went to Bourges, where he acquired the knowledge of Greek, under the tuition of a learned German, Melchior Wolmar. He began here to preach the reformed doctrines, and passed over into the ranks of Protestantism, under the slow but sure growth of his new convictions, rather than under the agitation of any violent feeling. Here, as everywhere, his life presents a marked contrast to that of Luther.

He proceeded to Paris in 1533, which at this date had become a centre of the 'new learning,' under the teaching of Lefèvre and Farel, and the influence of the queen of Navarre, sister of Francis I. The Sorbonne itself had not escaped the infection. There was a growing religious excitement in the university, in the court, and even among the bishops. This, however, was not to last. The king was soon stirred up to take active measures to quell this rising spirit; and the result was that Calvin and others were obliged to flee for their lives. After this he repaired for a short time to his native place, resigned the preferment he held in the Roman Catholic Church, and for a year or two led a wandering life, sheltered in various places. We find him at Saintonge; at Nerae, the residence of the queen of Navarre; at Angoulême, with his friend Louis du Tillet; then for a brief while at Paris again. Persecution against the Protestants at this time raged so hotly, that Calvin was no

longer safe in France; and he betook himself to Basel, whence he issued, in the year 1536, the first edition of his *Christianæ Religionis Institutio*, with the famous preface addressed to Francis I. The concentrated vigour and intensity of feeling of this address, rising into indignant remonstrance, and at times into pathetic and powerful eloquence, make it one of the most memorable documents in connection with the Reformation. After completing this great service to the cause of Protestantism, he made a short visit to Italy, to Renée the Duchess of Ferrara. Finally, he revisited his native town; sold the paternal estate, which had devolved to him on the death of his eldest brother; and, bidding Noyon adieu, set out in company with his younger brother and sister on his way to Strasburg. The direct road being rendered dangerous by the armies of Charles V., which had penetrated into France; he sought a circuitous route through Savoy and Geneva.

The result of this journey was memorable for the cause of the Reformation. Arrived in Geneva in the autumn of 1536, he met there his friend, Louis du Tillet, who communicated the fact of his arrival to Farel, then in the very midst of his struggle to promote the Reformation. Farel hastened to see him, and urge upon him the duty of remaining where he was, and undertaking his share of the work of God. Calvin did not at first respond to the call. He was given, he himself says, to his 'own intense thoughts and private studies.' He wished to devote himself to the service of the reformed churches generally, rather than to the care of any particular church. By some strange insight, however, Farel penetrated to the higher fitness of the young stranger who stood before him, and he ventured to lay the curse of God upon him and his studies if he refused his aid to the church of Geneva in her time of need. 'It was,' Calvin said, 'as if God had seized me by his awful hand from heaven.' He abandoned his intention of pursuing his journey, and joined eagerly with Farel in the work of reformation.

Having entered upon his task, he soon infused an energy into it which crowned the struggling efforts of Farel with success. The hierarchical authority was already overturned before his arrival; the citizens had asserted their independence against the Duke of Savoy. The magistrates and people eagerly joined with the reformers in the first heat of their freedom and zeal. A Protestant Confession of Faith was drawn out, approved of by the Council of Two Hundred, and then proclaimed in the cathedral church of St Peter's. Great and marvellous changes were wrought in a short time upon the manners of the people; where license and frivolity had reigned, a strict moral severity began to characterise the whole aspect of society. The strain, however, was too sudden and too extreme. A spirit of rebellion against the rule of Calvin and Farel broke forth; but they refused to yield to the wishes of a party animated by a more easy and liberal spirit than themselves, and known in the history of Geneva under the nickname of Libertines; and the consequence was, that they were both expelled from the city after less than two years' residence.

Calvin retreated to Strasburg, and devoted himself to theological study, especially to his critical labours on the New Testament. Here, in October 1539, he married the widow of a converted Anabaptist.

The Gènevans found, after a short time, that they could not well get on without Calvin. His rule might be rigid; but an authority even such as his was better than no settled authority at all; and the Libertine party seem to have been unable to construct any efficient and beneficent form of

government. Accordingly, they invited Calvin to return; and after some delay on his part, in order to test the spirit in which they were acting, he acceded to their invitation, and in the autumn of 1541, after three years' absence, once more made his entry into Geneva.

Now at length he succeeded in establishing his plan of church-government. By his College of Pastors and Doctors, and his Consistorial Court of Discipline, he founded a theocracy, which aimed virtually to direct all the affairs of the city, and to control and modify both the social and individual life of the citizens. The Libertines still remained a strong party, which was even augmented, after Calvin's return, by men such as Ami Perrin, who had strongly concurred in the invitation to Calvin, but who were afterwards alienated from him by the high hand with which he pursued his designs, as well as by their own schemes of ambition. The struggle with this party lasted with various fortune for no less a period than fifteen years, and was only terminated in 1555, after a somewhat ridiculous *émeute* in the streets. Ami Perrin and others, driven from the city, were executed in effigy; and the reformer's authority from this date was confirmed into an absolute supremacy. During the long struggle with the Libertines occurred also Calvin's controversies with Sebastian Castellio, Jerome Bolsec, and, above all, Michael Servetus.

Calvin had become acquainted with Castellio at Strasburg. They entertained at first a warm friendship for each other, and Calvin showed great zeal in assisting Castellio, whose poverty and learning had attracted his sympathy. When he returned to Geneva, he invited Castellio to join him there, and procured for him the title of regent or tutor in the gymnasium of the city. There was little similarity, however, in the characters of the two men, and the diversity of their tastes and views soon became apparent. The learning of Castellio was intensely humanistic; and, as soon as he began to apply himself to theology, he came into conflict with Calvin. In a letter to Farel in 1542 we find Calvin speaking of the freaks of 'our friend Sebastian, which may raise both your bile and your laughter at the same time.' These freaks relate to Castellio's notions of scriptural translation, and his refusal of Calvin's offer to revise the version which he had made of certain parts of Scripture. Then, two years later, when Castellio desired to enter into the ministry, Calvin dissuaded the council from accepting him, on account of some peculiar opinions which he held. These were certain rationalistic views as to the authenticity and character of the Song of Solomon, the descent of Christ into hell, and the doctrine of election. After this Castellio left Geneva for a while; but, soon returning, he attacked the views of Calvin openly. After a violent scene in church, which is painted in Calvin's letters very strongly, he was forced to leave the city. The two old friends, now declared enemies, did not spare each other henceforth. The fate of Servetus drew forth an anonymous publication, attacking with keen logic and covert and ingenious sarcasm the Genevan doctrines. This publication was attributed by both Calvin and Beza to Castellio, and they replied to him in no measured terms, stigmatising him as a 'deceiver and vessel of Satan.'

The controversy with Bolsec belongs to the year 1551. Jerome Bolsec was originally a Carmelite monk, but he had thrown aside the habit, and betaken himself to the practice of medicine in Geneva. He was led to attack Calvin's doctrine of predestination. As soon as Calvin heard of this, he led him to understand that he was not at liberty to question the Genevan doctrine. He and the other clergy dealt with him; but after repeated

disputations Bolsec was found incorrigible, and was sentenced to banishment from the city. He ultimately rejoined the Roman Catholic Church, and revenged himself on Calvin by writing his life in a spirit of detraction and slander.

Of all these contests, however, the most memorable is that with Servetus. A melancholy interest encircles the name of this great heretic, which the criminal tragedy of his death keeps always fresh and vivid in the minds of all who hate intolerance, and who love truth rather than dogmatism. The character of Servetus himself has little to do with this interest. He seems to have been more of a vain, restless, and enthusiastic dreamer than of a calm and patient inquirer. In his very dreams, however, and the vague audacities of his speculation there is a kind of simplicity and unconscious earnestness that wins sympathy. He had entered into various connections with Calvin, even from the time of his early residence in Paris; particularly, he had sent him various documents containing the views fully developed in his work subsequently published under the title of *Restitutio Christianismi* (1553). Calvin never concealed his abhorrence of these views; and in a letter to Farel as early as 1546 he threatens that if Servetus should come to Geneva, he would do what he could to bring him to condign punishment: *Nam si euenit, modo valeat mea auctoritas, eivum carere nunquam patiar*. The history of his seizure and condemnation at Vienna by the Catholic authorities, and especially of Calvin's share in the correspondence which led to his seizure, is very complicated and obscure. It has been maintained that Calvin was the instigator, through a creature of his own of the name of Trye, of the whole transaction; it is *certain* that he forwarded to the authorities, through Trye, private documents which Servetus had intrusted to him, with a view to the heretic's identification, and as materials for his condemnation. Servetus was sentenced to be burned, but effected his escape, and, after several months' wandering, he was found at Geneva. It was his intention to proceed to Italy, where he hoped his opinions might meet with some degree of toleration, and he arrived at Geneva on his way. This is the explanation of an event otherwise unaccountable. Having ventured to church, according to the common account, he was recognised, apprehended, and conveyed to prison by Calvin's order, just as he was about to leave the city. The trial lasted, with various interruptions, for two months. He attacked Calvin with the most foul epithets, and Calvin retorted with a virulence and foulness quite equal to his own. At length, on the 26th of October 1553, sentence was passed upon Servetus, condemning him to death by fire. Calvin used his influence to have the mode of death alleviated, but without success. On the very next morning, the sentence was put into execution. On an eminence at some distance from the city, Servetus was fastened to a stake surrounded by heaps of oak-wood and leaves, with his condemned book and the MS. he had sent to Calvin attached to his girdle; and amid his agonising cries the fire was kindled, and the wretched man expiated his heresy in the flames. Whatever apologies may be urged for this memorable crime, it must remain a mournful and scandalous blot on the history of the Reformation. The disgrace of it has particularly attached to Calvin, but most of the Reformers are no less implicated in it. The wise Bullinger defended it, and even the gentle Melancthon could only see cause for gratitude in the hideous tragedy.

After the execution of Servetus, and the expulsion of the Libertines two years later, Calvin's power in Geneva was firmly established, and he used it vigorously and beneficently for the defence

of Protestantism throughout Europe. By the mediation of Beza he made his influence felt in France in the great struggle that was there going on between the hierarchical party, with the Guises at its head, and the Protestants, led by Condé and Coligny. In 1561 his energies began to fail. He had been long suffering from bad health, though his strength of will and buoyancy of intellect sustained him; but his health grew very much worse, and, although he survived for more than two years, he never regained any vigour. He died on the 27th of May 1564.

Very different estimates have been formed of Calvin's character. None, however, can dispute his intellectual greatness, or the powerful services which he rendered to the cause of Protestantism. Stern in spirit and unyielding in will, he is never selfish or petty in his motives. Nowhere amiable, he is everywhere strong. Arbitrary and cruel when it suits him, he is yet heroic in his aims, and beneficent in the scope of his ambition. His moral purpose is always clear and definite—to live a life of duty, to shape circumstances to such divine ends as he apprehended, and, in whatever sphere he might be placed, to work out the glory of God.

He rendered a double service to Protestantism, which, apart from anything else, would have made his name illustrious: he *systematised its doctrine*, and he *organised its ecclesiastical discipline*. He was at once the great theologian of the Reformation, and the founder of a new church polity, which did more than all other influences together to consolidate the scattered forces of the Reformation, and give them an enduring strength. As a religious teacher, as a social legislator, and as a writer, especially of the French language, whose modern prose style was then in process of formation, his fame is second to none in his age, and must always conspicuously adorn the history of civilisation.

His famous *Institutio* entitles Calvin to the foremost place among the dogmatic theologians of the Reformed Church. This masterpiece of luminous argument presents a complete system of Christian faith, based on the Protestant principle that the Scriptures are the source of Christian truth. 'Two things there are,' says Hooker in the preface to the *Ecclesiastical Polity*, 'which have deservedly procured him honour throughout the world: the one, his exceeding pains in composing the *Institutions of the Christian Religion*; the other, his no less industrious travails for exposition of Holy Scripture.' His commentaries embrace the greater part of the Old Testament and the whole of the New except the Revelation, and place him in the front rank of expositors of Scripture. The first collected edition of Calvin's works is that of Geneva (1617), in 12 vols. folio; the second that of Amsterdam (1671), in 9 vols. folio. These have been superseded by a complete critical edition by Bann, Cunitz, and Reuss, which began to appear at Brunswick in 1863, and of which the 36th vol. was published in 1888. By the 'Calvin Translation Society' in Edinburgh, his works have been collected, translated into English, and issued in 52 vols. (1844-56).

The question as to the first edition of Calvin's *Institutes* is finally settled in the Prolegomena to the Brunswick edition of his works. It was published in Latin in the year 1536, and is now extremely rare. The work was revised and extended by Calvin in numerous later editions, both Latin and French. That of Robert Stephens, in 1559, containing Calvin's latest corrections, was reprinted by Tholuck (Berl. 1835; 2d ed. 1846), who also edited his *Commentarii in Novum Testamentum* (7 vols. Berl. 1833-34; 4th ed., 4 parts, 1864). His letters were published by Bonnet (2 vols. Paris, 1854); in an English translation by Constable and Gilchrist (1855 *et seq.*); and more fully in vols. 10-15 of the Brunswick edition. The libraries of Geneva and Zurich contain the MSS. of about 3000 unprinted sermons and other short

writings by Calvin. Beza's biography of Calvin first appeared in French in 1564 (2d ed., extended, 1565); the Latin edition is shorter (Geneva, 1576; new ed. in French, by Franklin, 1864). There are lives of Calvin by Bolesee (1577; new ed. by Chastel, 1875), by Jacques E. May (1657; new ed. 1835), and by Audin (1840; 6th ed. 2 vols. 1873)—all from the Catholic standpoint; also by T. H. Dyer (1850), Bungener (2d ed. 1863; Eng. trans. 1863), Pressel (1864), Vigout and Tissot (*Calvin d'après Calvin*, 1864), Guizot (Paris, 1873), and Goguel (2d ed. 1878); and in Germany by Paul Henry (1835-44; Eng. trans. by Stebbing, 2 vols. Lond. 1849), and by Stähelin (1863). Kampschulte, Catholic professor of History at Bonn, left incomplete at his death his valuable *Johann Calvin, seine Kirche und sein Staat in Genf* (vol. i. 1869). There is a large literature on Servetus and Calvin, as the works of Porter (1854) and Willis (1877). Much light has been thrown on the history of Calvin and Geneva during his time, by Galiffé's *Quelques pages d'Histoire exacte, soit les Procès intentés à Genève en 1547-59* (1862), and *Nouvelles pages d'Histoire exacte, &c.* (1876); Roget's *L'Eglise et l'Etat à Genève du vivant de Calvin* (1867), and *Histoire du Peuple de Genève depuis la Réformation* (4 vols. 1875-77); and Schmidt's *Les Libertins Spirituels* (1876). Noteworthy also are Lobstein, *Die Ethik Calvins* (Straßburg, 1877), and Pierson, *Nieuwe Studien over Joh. Kalrijn, 1536-41* (Amsterdam, 1883).

CALVINISM is the system of religious doctrine associated with the name of Calvin, and supposed to distinguish the churches more particularly called the Reformed, in contradistinction to the Lutheran and Anglican churches. Calvin's doctrinal views are laid down at length in his *Institutio Christianæ Religionis*, first published in 1536, and finally revised in 1559. It was not till many years later, however, that the name of Calvinism came to be attached to a certain set of doctrinal opinions, and not till the rise of Arminius (q.v.), and the Synod of Dort (q.v.) in 1618, that these opinions may be said to have been polemically marked off from others with which they are generally contrasted, and to which they are recognised as standing in opposition.

The difference of thought expressed in the Arminian and Calvinistic systems is as old as the history of Christian doctrine. In almost every point, Augustine may be said to have anticipated Calvin; while Pelagius and the Eastern divines, such as Chrysostom, represented a type of opinion upon the whole consonant to that which in more modern times has been opposed to Calvinism. In the Roman Catholic Church, since the Reformation, the same opposition of thought has presented itself in the famous contest of Jansenism and Jesuitism.

The main point of distinction in these two systems or modes of Christian opinion is as to the operation of divine grace in the salvation of sinners. In the one system, this operation is considered as predetermined and absolute; in the other, as merely foreseen, and in some sense conditioned. *Predestination* and *Irresistible Grace* are the great key-notes of Calvinism—its two main points. Others were added in opposition to Arminianism—viz. *Original Sin*, *Particular Redemption*, and the *Persistence of the Saints*; but the first of these is not peculiarly Calvinistic, and the last two are merely corollaries from the doctrines of Predestination and Grace. Predestination is, in fact, the one distinguishing doctrine of the system, as it was of Augustinianism, of which Calvinism was merely the revival. The divine will, apprehended as decreative and predestinating, is necessarily *irresistible* in its efficacy, *select* in its objects, and *persevering* in its results. The characteristic of Calvinism, therefore, is that it is a speculative Christian system, springing from a single great principle, carried out rigorously into all its logical consequences.

The Church of England, in its earlier history,

was Calvinistic in its Articles, although medieval and Catholic in its ritual. Puritanism was nothing else than a movement to reduce it altogether to a Calvinistic model. In the reaction which followed this movement, the Church of England, while retaining its original articles, nearly parted with its Calvinistic faith; and throughout the 18th century its chief divines are conspicuously Arminian or latitudinarian. But with the revival of the evangelical party in the end of the century Calvinism revived; and it still maintains, if not an absolute sway, yet a powerful influence over many minds in the Anglican establishment, while it is the professed creed of a great proportion of the dissenters.

The Church of Scotland, along with the other Presbyterian churches in the United Kingdom, and the large bodies of Presbyterians in America, all hold to the Westminster Confession of Faith, the most elaborate and formal expression of Calvinistic doctrine that exists. But, while holding to the same Calvinistic standard, these churches show many varieties of actual opinion; and in the history of Presbyterianism Calvinism has shown a tendency to pass into Rationalism or Unitarianism. This is conspicuously the case in the church of Geneva itself, and in some of the old Puritan churches of America. It still remains, however, as opposed to Arminian, Socinian, or any cognate forms of the same type of doctrine, at least one of the most living and powerful among the creeds of the Reformation.

Calw, or KALW, a town of Württemberg, on the Nagold, 35 miles WSW. of Stuttgart by rail, with manufactures of woollen and cotton fabrics, buttons, and cigars, and a trade in timber. Pop. (1871) 5382; (1885) 4632, nearly all Protestants.

Calx is the Latin term for quicklime. As quicklime is produced by burning limestone, the alchemists applied the term *calx* to the substance of a metal or mineral that remains after being subjected to extreme heat, and *Calcination* (q.v.) to the process.

Calycanthus (Gr., 'calyx-flower'), a genus of Calycanthaceae, a small order connecting Rhamnaceae with Rosaceae, and of which only a few species are known, natives of North America and Japan. They are square-stemmed aromatic shrubs. The bark of *C. floridus* (Carolina Allspice) affords a substitute for cinnamon.

Calyciflora, a term introduced by De Candolle to include those natural orders of dicotyledons in which the sepals and petals are separate, as in Thalamiflorae, but in which the stamens, instead of being hypogynous, are perigynous or epigynous. As the most important calycifloral orders may be mentioned Rosaceae, Leguminosae, Crassulaceae, Saxifragaceae, Umbelliferae, Myrtaceae, Onagraceae, Cucurbitaceae, Passifloraceae, Celastraceae, Rhamnaceae, and Terebinthaceae. The name expresses the view that the stamens stand upon a united calyx; the study of development has, however, long ago shown that they really arise as usual from the axis. See FLOWER.

Calydonian Boar. Once upon a time, according to a Greek myth, Ceneus, king of Calydon, the ancient capital of Ætolia, omitted a sacrifice to Artemis, whereupon the goddess, when he was absent on the Argonautic expedition, sent a frightful boar to lay waste his fields. No one dared to face the monster, until Meleager, the son of Ceneus, with a band of heroes pursued and slew him. The Curetes laid claim to the head and hide, but were driven off by Meleager. Later accounts make Meleager summon to the hunt heroes from all parts of Greece, among them the maiden Atalanta, who gave the monster the first wound.

Calymene, a genus of the fossil order Trilobites (q.v.).

Calypso, according to Homer, a daughter of Atlas, inhabiting the solitary wooded isle of Ogygia, far apart from all gods and men. Odysseus being thrown upon her island by shipwreck, she treated him kindly, and promised him immortality if he would marry her. He was fascinated by her charms, but unwilling to desert his wife and his native land; she detained him, however, seven years, and bore him two sons. On his departure, she died of grief.

Calyptrae, a genus of molluscs, among Prosobranch Gastropods, and sometimes popularly known as Chambered, Cup and Saucer, Bonnet, or Slipper Limpets. The shell is indeed more or less limpet-like, but that ends the resemblance, while even in regard to the shell, the presence of a slight spiral, and of an internal plate for the attachment of the principal muscle, are quite sufficiently distinctive. The shapes vary considerably. Some ten living species are known, mostly from warmer waters, though two are recorded as British. From the chalk deposits, however, three times as many species are known. The name Patella, or Limpet, was formerly mistakenly used to include Calyptrae and allied genera like Galeris and Crepidula. Pileopsis (*hungarica*), the Hungarian Cup Shell, is allied, and occurs in the Atlantic and Mediterranean.

Calyx. Although in some flowers the transition from ordinary foliage leaves to the floral envelopes immediately surrounding the stamens and carpels is a gentle and almost insensible one, we can, in the vast majority of cases, recognise the floral envelopes as clearly defined. The outer circle or whorl of these is what we term the calyx, the inner being the corolla; and the separate leaves of the calyx are termed sepals, corresponding to the petals. In most monocotyledons the outer and inner whorl of floral envelopes are essentially similar, and both are usually equally coloured or white; in these cases it is customary to unite them under the common term of *perianth*. In others, as in most dicotyledons, the calyx is green and leafy, and is sharply distinguished from the corolla, to which the floral colour is thus restricted; in other cases, however, especially when the floral envelopes are in a continuous spiral, as in the water-lily, the transition from leafy sepal to distinct petal is a quite gradual one. The leafy habit of the calyx varies within the widest limits; thus, we have on one hand the vegetative extreme, where the sepals are not only leafy in the flower, and perhaps even possess stipules (strawberry), but persist after the corolla has withered, and even grow up around the fruit, as in the winter-cherry (*Physalis*). Next, we have the most frequent case of ordinary green sepals, which wither or fall off when flowering has been accomplished, or they may drop off at a still earlier stage, when the flower opens, as in the poppy; or again, they may become petaloid, especially when the petals are reduced to nectaries, as in the Christmas rose or monkshood, or have disappeared altogether, as in the marsh-marigold. In the monocotyledonous orders of old classifications—e.g. Polygonaceae, Chenopodiaceae—the calyx also alone persists, but is small and inconspicuous; while in the so-called achlamydeous types this also disappears—e.g. willow. In such cases the protective functions of a calyx are performed by bracts, and these again often become modified and reduced in their turn. Thus in grasses, the characteristic protective glumes are not sepals, as was at first supposed by botanists, but bracts, the perianth being represented only by a couple of tiny scules. A similar modification holds good in the allied sedges (*Cyperaceae*).

The calyx is said to be *inferior* when, as in typical unmodified flowers, it occupies its normal place lower on the axis than the other parts, and particularly the ovary; in many cases, however, it is *superior*—i.e. borne upon the summit of the fruit, as in the apple or rose. The explanation of this used to be that an 'adherence' had taken place between the inner surface of the calyx and the outer surface of the ovary, and the term *adherent* was therefore frequently applied to it. Not only, however, is there no evidence in favour of this explanation, but we know, alike from the study of development, from comparative anatomy, and from physiology, that the inferior ovary comes into its place by the checking of the apical growth of the floral axis, which thus becomes nipped instead of pointed. This hollowing of the summit of the axis naturally begins at the point where the leafy sepals and expanded petals mark the limit where vegetation ceases, and the essential reproductive organs take the place of less modified foliar ones. The apparent sinking of the 'inferior' ovary is, in short, the consequence of the onward growth of the 'superior' calyx, the portion of the axis which bears it. See FLOWER.

Cam, or GRANTA, a sluggish river of England, which, rising in Essex, flows 40 miles NW. and NE. through Cambridgeshire, and falls into the Ouse $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles above Ely. It gives name to the town of Cambridge, where it is barely wide enough for an eight-oar to turn.

Cam, Diogo, a Portuguese explorer of the 15th century, who followed up the course of Prince Henry of Portugal, and in 1484 discovered the mouth of the Congo, near whose bank an inscribed stone erected by him as a memorial was found in 1887. He afterwards examined the coast as far as 22° S. lat.

Camaldolites, a religious order founded in the vale of Camaldoli, near Arezzo, in the Apennines, in 1018, by St Romuald, a Benedictine monk (died 1027), and which spread from Italy into France, Germany, and Poland. The brethren, who wore a white garment, were always characterised for the excessive rigidity of their monastic rule. Their dissensions early broke them up into several congregations; but in the 18th century, under five generals, they numbered 2000. The order is now almost extinct.

Camargue. See BOUCHES DU RHONE.

Camarilla (Sp., 'a little chamber'), a word first employed in the time of Ferdinand VII. of Spain (1814-33), and which now signifies throughout Europe the influence exercised on the state by the court-party, the favourites and sycophants of a pope or monarch, in opposition to the advice of his legitimate ministers.

Camayeu is a term by which painting in one colour, or monochrome, is designated. Pictures of several tints, but where the natural colours of the objects are not copied, are also said to be *en camayeu*. As one colour generally prevails, we speak of blue, red, yellow, green camayeu.

Cambacérès, JEAN JACQUES RÉGIS DE, Duke of Parma, and High Chancellor of the French empire under Napoleon, was born 18th October 1753, at Montpellier, where in 1791 he was appointed president of the criminal court. Afterwards, as member of the National Convention, he took a prominent part in sketching the new code of laws, and distinguished himself by his moderation. He denied the right of the Convention to condemn the king, and, when this was done, argued in favour of a reprieve. In 1794, as president of the Committee of Public Safety, he was active in procuring peace with Prussia and Spain. His *Projet de Code*

Civil, which afterwards formed the basis of the *Code Napoléon*, was laid before the Council of Five Hundred, of which body he was in 1796 for a short time president. He assisted in the revolution of the 18th Brumaire (November 9, 1799), was appointed Second Consul, and faithfully attached himself to the interests of Napoleon, by whom he was made High Chancellor of the Empire, and in 1808 Duke of Parma. He vainly endeavoured to dissuade the emperor from the projected invasion of Russia; and in 1813, when Napoleon took the field against the allies, he was left as president of the regency. He voted for the abdication of Napoleon. During the Hundred Days, against his own will, he was made Minister of Justice and President of the Chamber of Peers. In 1816 he was exiled for having taken part in the execution of Louis XVI.; but in 1818 his civil and political rights were restored, and he returned to Paris, where he died, March 5, 1824.

Cambaluc (*Khan-Baligh*, 'city of the emperor'), the name by which, during the middle ages, Pekin (q.v.) became known to Europe, and rendered familiar by Marco Polo's travels.

Cambay (*Khambhāt*), the port and capital of a small Indian feudatory state of Bombay presidency, lies in the north-west portion of the peninsula, at the head of the Gulf of Cambay, 52 miles S. of Ahmedabad. Portions of its brick wall remain, and many ruins still attest its former magnificence and extent. The main cause of its decay has been the gradual obstruction of its seaward navigation. Its principal articles of export are its agate, cornelian, and onyx ornaments, for the manufacture of which the town is renowned. Pop. (1881) 36,007; at one time, 200,000. The area of Cambay state is 350 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 86,074, of whom 12,417, including the Nawab, are Mohammedans.—The Gulf of Cambay, a large inlet about 80 miles long and 25 broad, was formerly a great commercial resort; but the shifting shoals and the high spring-tides (rising and falling 33 feet) are troublesome; and as the gulf is silting up, it is now mostly resorted to by craft of 5 to 10 tons burden.

Camberwell Beauty (*Vanessa antiopa*), one of the largest and most beautiful of British butterflies, rare in Britain, although it has been found in many parts of the country, but common in the central and southern parts of Europe, and having an extensive range in North America, where there are also two varieties, very close to the typical form. The wings are of a deep purplish-brown colour, with a band of black around the brown, and an outer band or margin of pale yellow, the black band containing a row of large blue spots, the yellow margin dappled with black or brown specks, all the colours rich and velvety. The margin of the wings exhibits tooth-like angularities. The antennae are terminated by a knob. The caterpillar feeds on the willow, elm, and poplar. It is black, with white dots and a row of large red spots down the back, and is rough with soft spines. When



Camberwell Beauty :

a, larva or caterpillar ; b, pupa.

Camberwell (now a parliamentary borough in

South London) was a rural place, and abounded in willows, this butterfly was sometimes taken there. *V. Milberti* is a smaller species common in the cooler parts of North America.

Cambium (Lat. *cambio*, 'I change'). The growing point of any stem is composed of one or more actively dividing cells. In the growing point of a fern a single apical cell can still, though with difficulty, be distinguished amid the mass of embryonic cells from which the future tissues are forming, but in higher plants all the cells of this 'meristem,' as it is termed, are equally endowed with the power of division. As the plant grows, the new cells constantly formed behind the apex are modified at first into the embryonic layers from which epidermis, fibro-vascular bundles, and parenchyma are developed, but these are no longer capable of continued growth, and the bundles are said to be definite. Hence monocotyledons and herbaceous dicotyledons do not increase in thickness; but in coniferous and perennial dicotyledonous stems a layer of embryonic cells remains undifferentiated between the wood and bast of the fibro-vascular bundles, and continues in a state of division as the *cambium*. The bundles thus grow in thickness by the differentiation from the cambium layer of new layers of wood and bast which press apart those already formed. (For cut and fuller details, see BARK.) The wood and bark thus undergo an increase in thickness, which is most marked in spring and early summer, but proceeds more slowly towards autumn, and stops entirely in winter. The bundles are thus said to be indefinite, and their seasonal rhythm of growth is recorded in the familiar rings of wood and layers of bark (see BARK and WOOD). These are always easily separable, since the delicate intervening cambium-cylinder gives way much more easily than the formed tissues, leaving, when torn, its thin-walled protoplasmic cells as a moist and viscid layer covering the harder surfaces of these. In thin transverse sections of stems the cambium cells can readily be made out, with their closely parallel walls indicating their plane of division longitudinal and parallel to the outer surface of the stem.

In exceptional cases, a cylindrical layer of meristem may persist outside the fibro-vascular bundles altogether, and immediately under the epidermis and cellular envelope, which become thickened as a false bark or *rind*. From this may be continuously deposited entirely new bundles of definite type, the stem thus increasing in thickness, as in the dragon-tree (*Dracena*) and other arborescent monocotyledons. In the dicotyledonous *Bongainvillea* also the stem is thickened in essentially the same way. See DICOTYLEDONS.

The layer of embryonic cells from which cork is formed is called cork-cambium by many writers. See CORK.

Cambodia, or CAMBOJA, nominally a state in Indo-China under a French protectorate, but practically a French dependency, on the lower course of the Mekhong, between 10° 30' and 14° 10' N. lat., and 102° 45' and 106° 45' E. long., 220 miles from NE. to SW., and 150 miles broad, comprising an area of 32,390 sq. m. It is bounded on the SE. and S. by French Cochinchina; on the SW. by the Gulf of Siam; on the N. by Siam; on the E., towards Annam, where the frontier traversing imperfectly explored territories is vague, by the territories of independent Mois tribes. The coast, 156 miles long, indented about the middle by the bay of Kompong-Som, offers but one port, Kampot. Among the numerous islands along the coast are Kong, Rong, Hon-Nan-Trung, &c., most of them inhabited. In the north and west are some extreme ramifications of mountain-chains descending from the

Central Asian plateau; on the north the frontier-chain of Phnum (i.e. 'mountain') Dangrek; and, between the Great Lake and the Gulf of Siam, Crévanh, Tek-Liang, Pang-Chak, Thiang-Ho, Elephant Chain, Bombi Cone; some of them over 3000 feet high. The mountains generally contain iron, limestone, sandstone, and more sparingly, copper. The greater part, however, of Cambodia consists of alluvial plains, completely inundated during the rainy season. In the north-east are schistose forest-clad tracts. The principal river, the Mekhong (in Cambodian, Tonlé-Tom--i.e. 'great river'), flows through Cambodia from north to south as far as Chen-Tel-Pho, and thence south-westwards till, at the town of Phnom-Penh, it divides into two arms, the Han-Giang or Bassac, and the Tien-Giang or Anterior River, both flowing south. Above Phnom-Penh is a north-north-west outlet for the surcharge of the Great River, the Tonlé-Sap (i.e. 'river of sweet water'), expanding into the Great Lake, 100 miles by 25 miles in area, with a depth of 65 feet at its maximum magnitude. The periodical risings of the Great River deposit rich mud strata over the surrounding plain to a wide extent. Numerous tributaries discharge into the Mekhong and Tonlé-Sap. Flowing into the Gulf of Siam are Kompong-Som and Kampot. The climate is divided into the rainy season, from April to October, but interrupted in August, and the dry, from October to April. The thermometer ranges from 70° to 104° F., but on the high plateaus sinks as low as 59° F. The natural products are more numerous and varied than in French Cochinchina: rice, the principal cereal, cotton, maize, pepper, cinnamon, vanilla, cardamoms, sugar-cane, indigo, manioc, rames, sesame, gutta-percha, &c. The forests contain excellent timber. The fauna of Cambodia comprise the elephant, tiger, panther, bear, rhinoceros, ape, buffalo, &c. Cambodia supplies Cochinchina with a large part of the cattle it consumes. The horses of Cambodia are small and robust, with remarkably large heads. Birds, principally wading birds, abound. Crocodiles are found in most of the rivers.

The population of Cambodia was estimated in 1874 at 946,000, of whom nearly 800,000 were Cambodians and 107,000 Chinese, but the immigrant Annamites and floating population in Cambodia have since largely increased, and altogether the population of 1888 is calculated to amount to about 1,500,000. Phnom-Penh, the capital, at the junction of the 'Four Arms,' has a population of 35,000 of very mixed race. The Cambodians approach the Malay and Indian types, are less Mongoloid and more nearly resemble the Caucasian type than their neighbours. They are tall and robust, copper-coloured rather than yellow, the skull elongate, the nose, though flat, more prominent than in the Annamite, and the eyes very slightly oblique. Subject for centuries to foreign incursions and mandarin exactions, the Cambodian, long without foothold of his own, and restricting himself to the bare necessities, has grown indolent and passive, the more so that the rich loam yields its abundance for almost no cultivation. The principal industry is the fishing of the Great Lake, beginning in November, and employing annually some 15,000 persons. In Kompong-Soai are manufactures of iron. The total commerce of Cambodia is valued at from 10 to 12 million francs yearly. Kampot exports pepper and cardamoms. Lines of steamers connect Phnom-Penh with Saigon twice a week on one side, and with Battambang on the other. The religion of Cambodia is a development of Buddhism, in which the worship of ancestors forms a large part. Instruction is given by the priests. The common reckoning of time dates from 638 A.D. At Phnom-Penh is a large school with two French professors

and a native teacher, attended by the king's sons and the mandarins. The Cambodian language has much in common with the other monosyllabic languages of Indo-China, especially those of Siam and Annam. It lacks, however, the varieties of tones, or inflections of voice, by which these discriminate between the different significations of the same monosyllable. The letters are borrowed from the Indian Pali, the parent of all the Indo-Chinese alphabets. Besides the current idiom there is a sort of literary language of Pali vocables used in official ceremonies by the bonzes and mandarins. By treaty with France in 1884 Cambodia is divided into eight provinces or residencies. The whole of the French possessions in Indo-China are now, by decree of 1887, united under the name of Indo-China, with a governor-general at its head, Cambodia having placed over it a resident-general under the governor-general.

The ancient kingdom of Cambodia or Khmer formerly extended over a large part of Indo-China. Buddhism would appear to have been introduced in the 4th century. The Portuguese in the 16th century were the first Europeans to explore the valley of Tonlé-Tom, and to this day descendants of the Portuguese are to be found in Cambodia. Close on the Portuguese followed Spaniards from Manila, and about 1650 the Dutch set up their factories at the mouth of the Mekhong. The Khmer kingdom became dismembered in the 17th century, when Annam took successively Baria, Bien-Hoa, Saigon, Mytho, and Vinh-Long, and in 1715 Chandoc and Hatien. A century later (1812) Siam wrested the provinces west of the Great Lake: Battambang, Angkor, Tonlé-Repon, and Melu-Prey. In 1858 France first appeared in Indo-China. Having made herself mistress of the Annam provinces of the delta of the Mekhong, France on the 11th August 1863 concluded a treaty with the new king of Cambodia, Norodom, placing Cambodia under a French protectorate. This treaty has been superseded by that of the 17th June 1884, under which the king of Cambodia accepts all the reforms, administrative, judiciary, financial, and commercial, which the government of France may deem advisable.

Ancient Sculptures.—The most remarkable feature of Cambodia is the splendid ruins of Khmer architecture. The temples and palaces of Angkor were known to Portuguese missionaries in the 16th century. A graphic account of Cambodia by a Chinese traveller who spent two years (1295-97) in that kingdom, was translated by Abel Rémusat in 1819. In 1858-61 M. Mouhot, a French naturalist, explored the valley of the Mekhong, &c. He was followed by Dr Adolf Bastian. Later, J. Thomson took a plan of Angkor-Vaht, with 30 photographs of it and other places. The French next fitted out two expeditions, the first under Captain de Lagrée (1866), and the second (1873) under Captain Delaporte. The great piles explored number over 50, while the smaller isolated structures are counted by the hundreds. The temple of Angkor-Vaht occupies a larger area than that of Karnak in Egypt, and just as vast are the monuments of Préa-Khan (near Angkor), of Méléa, and of Pontéay-China. Those of Baion, Préa-Khan (province of Kompong-Soai), Ta-Prohm, Ka-Kéo, and Ek-dey constitute likewise immense groups. More remarkable than their magnitude and number is their artistic value, the finest productions deserving to be ranked even with the masterpieces of the West. The Khmer structures are characterised by grandeur and unity of design, and are, moreover, for the most part entirely overlaid, profusely but unconfusedly, with delicate ornamentation. In a single temple of Angkor are 1532 columns, and the mountain yielding the stone is 32 miles distant.

The joinings are scarcely perceptible—no sign of mortar, no mark of chisel, the surface as polished as marble. Pale or fallow sandstone, bright-red brick, and Bien-Hoa stone of sombre rusty colour, are blended in the Khmer architecture for polychromatic effect. Among the ruins are massive stone bridges so solidly constructed as to have almost all resisted the periodical inundations and shock of huge tree-trunks hurled against them. The bridge of Spean-Tenk measures 470 feet in length, and has 34 arches. Monuments so vast, so numerous, and so diverse are calculated by Delaporte to range from the beginning of our era to the 15th and 16th centuries, the finest dating from between the 8th and 13th or 14th. The present degenerate descendants of those Khmer architects look up to these structures from which they are now so far aloof as the work of 'angels' or 'giants,' if not the product of spontaneous generation.

See E. F. Aymonier, *Géographie de Cambodge* (Paris, 1876), and for the language, his *Dictionnaire Français-Cambodgien* (Paris, 1875); H. Mager, *Atlas Colonial*; A. Bouinain and Paulus, *L'Indo-Chine Française* (2d. ed. 1885); A. H. Mouhot, *Travels in Indo-China*; J. Moura, *Cambodge* (2 vols. Paris, 1882); L. Delaporte, *Voyage au Cambodge*; F. Garnier, *Excursions et Reconnaissances* (Saigon), vols. viii, and xiii; Fergusson, *History of Architecture*.

Camborne, a town of Cornwall, 12 miles WSW. of Truro by rail. It is surrounded by very productive copper, tin, and lead mines. Pop. of parish (1881) 13,601.

Cambrai, a city and first-class fortress of the French department of the Nord, on the Scheldt, 128 miles NNE. of Paris by rail. It is well built, with tolerably wide but irregular streets, and many picturesque old houses. Among the principal public buildings are the town-house, archiepiscopal palace, and cathedral, the last rebuilt after the fire of 1859. Its predecessor had been partially destroyed in 1793 by the revolutionists. They also disinterred the remains of Fénelon, who was archbishop here, and melted his lead coffin into bullets; a monument to him, however, by David d'Angers, erected in 1826, fortunately survived the fire, and has been placed in the new cathedral. The town also contains a college, theological seminary, and library, with 40,000 vols. and 1200 MSS. The manufactures are important, consisting of cambrie—so called from its manufacture here—linen thread, lace, sugar, soap, leather, &c.; and there is a large trade in agricultural produce. Pop. (1872) 22,897; (1886) 17,729.

Cambracum, the ancient Cambrai, was one of the chief cities of the Nervii. It was fortified by Charlemagne, and was long governed by its own bishops, to whom the emperor Henry I. ceded it; taken by the Spaniards in 1595, it was delivered to France by the treaty of Nimègue (1678). The celebrated League of Cambrai against the republic of Venice, which comprised the pope, the emperor, and the kings of France and Spain, was entered into here in 1508; here also in 1529 the aunt of Charles V. of Spain and the mother of Francis I. signed the *Paix des Dames*, by which Burgundy was restored to France, who in return renounced her claims to Artois and Flanders. During 1815-18 Cambrai was the headquarters of the British army of occupation. See *Histoire de Cambrai*, by Bouly (2 vols. 1843), and Léluselle (2 vols. 1874-75).

Cambria, the ancient name of Wales, the *Britannia Secunda* of the Romans. It is derived from the word Cymry or Kynry, the name by which the Welsh have always called themselves, and appears in 'Cambrian Mountains,' and 'Cambrian System.' *Cumbria*, the name of the old British kingdom also called Strathclyde, and *Cumberland* are other derivatives.

Cambrian System. This is the name given to the great series of sedimentary deposits which comes next in order of succession to the Archaean System (q.v.). Wherever the base of these deposits can be seen, the beds are found to rest unconformably upon the Archaean, or as they are sometimes termed, the pre-Cambrian rocks. There is some diversity of opinion as to the upper limits of the Cambrian. The name was introduced by Professor Sedgwick, by whom it was made to include a great thickness of strata which most geologists now prefer to consider as forming the lower portion of the succeeding Silurian System (q.v.). According to Dr Hicks, whose classification is now generally adopted for the British Cambrian, the divisions of this system are as follows :

	Mean Thickness. Feet.
Upper Cambrian { Tremadoc Slates Series.....	1000
{ Lingula Flag Series.....	5000
Lower Cambrian { Menevian Series.....	700
{ Harlech and Longmynd Series.....	12,000

The British Cambrian rocks are best developed in North Wales, and are also well represented in Shropshire, &c. They consist largely of coarse red and purple graywackes, sandstones, grits, and conglomerates, and grayish blue and green slates and slaty shales; and the same general character is maintained by the rocks of this system in other parts of the world. In Ross-shire and adjoining districts in the north-west of Scotland, certain dark reddish-brown conglomerates and sandstones are found overlying unconformably the Archaean rocks of that region, and are themselves covered unconformably by Silurian strata. They form the pyramidal-shaped mountains of Suilven, Cantisp, and Coulmor. Cambrian strata with a few fossils have also been recognised in the south-east of Ireland, where they attain a thickness of 14,000 feet at least. The Cambrian strata are for the most part unfossiliferous—organic remains being met with chiefly in the higher members of the system. The plant-life of the period is very sparingly, if at all, represented, for it seems doubtful if the fucoid-like markings are really traces of plants. Some of these are almost certainly inorganic—mere wrinkles on the surfaces of the beds, while others are not improbably the tracks or trails of worms, crustaceans, &c. One of the forms which has been bandied about between the vegetable and animal kingdoms is *Oldhamia*, some holding it to be a calcareous seaweed, others ranking it with the *Sertularia*, or even the *Polyzoa*. Animal life, however, is surprisingly well represented, as by sponges (*Protospongia*), sea-lilies (*Dendrocrinus*), cystideans (*Proto cystites*), and star-fishes (*Pala asterina*). Worm-burrows and worm-castings often abound, and crustaceans are plentiful—the modern groups of *Ostracods* (water-fleas) and *Phyllo pods* (brine-shrimps, &c.) being represented. The most notable crustaceans, however, are the *Trilobites* (q.v.), some of which were very minute and blind (*Agnostus*), while others attained a length of one or two feet (*Paradoxides*). The *Brachiopods* belong almost exclusively to the 'inarticulate' group—the three most characteristic forms being *Lingulella*, *Discina*, and *Obolella*. Four out of the five classes of *Molluscs* now existing appear in the Cambrian—viz. *lamellibranchs*, *pteropods*, *gasteropods*, and *tetrabranchiate cephalopods*. The last are represented by straight and curved chambered shells (*Orthoceras*, *Cyrtoceras*) which belong to the family of the *Nautilida*. The *lamellibranchs* and *gasteropods*, which attain their maximum in our own day, appear to have been but sparsely present in the seas of Cambrian times, but some of the *gasteropods*, such as the snail *Pleuronomaria*, are types still living. The same, it may be remarked,

is the case with some of the *brachiopods* (*Lingulella*, *Discina*), which have persisted to the present day. No indubitable traces of vertebrate life have yet been supplied by the Cambrian strata, nor have we any evidence of land or fresh-water forms, although it is quite possible that some of the molluscs may have lived in estuaries or brackish water. The general character of the sedimentary rocks, with their conglomerates, grits, &c., ripple marks, and animal tracks, is indicative upon the whole of shallow-water conditions; and the general absence of corals and of limestones points in the same direction. Although the fauna of the Cambrian is less varied and abundant than that which has left its traces in the succeeding Silurian, yet we cannot but be struck with the fact that the former is relatively so varied. For here in the very oldest fossiliferous strata (if the Archaean with its *Eozoon* be for the moment put out of account) we have most of the larger divisions of the animal kingdom represented. Hence those who believe in the doctrine of evolution are of opinion that the Cambrian fauna cannot possibly be the earliest, but must have been preceded by a long series of ancestors; and not only so, but that many forms of life must have existed in the Cambrian seas which have left no trace behind them. Do fossiliferous strata older than the Cambrian remain to be yet discovered? or is it possible that the Archaean schists represent such strata from which all traces of organic remains disappeared during the process of metamorphism? To such questions no conclusive answer can be given at present.

Cambrian rocks have been recognised in various other parts of Europe, as in Central and Southern Sweden, where the strata are not nearly so thick as in the British area. In Central Brittany and in the Ardennes they are likewise represented, and they also come to the surface in several provinces of Spain. The most important continental area, however, is that of Bohemia, where the palaeozoic rocks and their fossils have been studied in great detail by M. Barrande. He divides the strata into several zones, his *primordial zone* having yielded many organic remains, especially trilobites belonging to characteristic Cambrian genera. In North America the Cambrian or Primordial system comprises an upper series of shales and sandstones (Acadian series), and a lower one of sandstones, &c. (Potsdam series). These strata have been recognised in Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Canada, and in the states of Massachusetts, Vermont, and New York. They appear also in many different places along the Appalachian chain and in the region of the Rocky Mountains.

The Cambrian rocks of Europe are frequently much altered and metamorphosed, while in North America they show over certain wide areas comparatively little alteration—the Potsdam sandstone especially being not unlike many 'freestones,' so that it is much used for building purposes. Igneous rocks (diorite, diabase, quartz-porphry, &c.) are associated with the Cambrian in various parts of Europe. Not much can be said as to the physical and climatic conditions of the Cambrian period. The strata, as we have seen, point generally to shallow seas. The main land-surfaces in the European area probably lay towards the north and north-west of the regions now occupied by Cambrian strata. But large islands of Archaean rocks may have existed in Middle Europe. According to Sir A. C. Ramsay, the red unfossiliferous conglomerates and sandstones may have been accumulated in inland seas or lakes. This he thinks was the origin of the red sandstones in the north-west of Scotland. And he has suggested that some of the conglomerates of the same district may be of glacial origin. The

general character of the Cambrian fauna does not justify us in forming any conclusion as to the climatic conditions of the period. All we can say is that there is no evidence to show that the climate of the globe was then differentiated into distinct zones as it is at present.

Cambric, a general term applied to the finest and thinnest of linen fabrics, said to be derived from Cambrai, where such goods were first made. Some of the finest cambrics of the present day are produced in Switzerland. Scotch cambric is really a muslin, being made of cotton with the fibre twisted very hard, to imitate real or linen cambric.

Cambridge, the county town of Cambridgeshire, lies on the winding Cam, 58 miles N. by E. of London, and 76 N.E. of Oxford. The town owes its existence to the fact that the hills on each side of the valley of the Cam approach one another in such a way as to make this the most suitable point for crossing the fens. Two important Roman roads, *Akeman Street* and the *Via Devana*, here cross the valley of the Cam, and were guarded by the station *Camboritum*, the outlines of which can still be clearly traced on the north side of the river. In its centre is the partly artificial mound, now known as Castle Hill, which is probably a relic of a yet older British city. See Babington, *Ancient Cambridgeshire* (1883).

The Saxon town of Grantabrygge occupied the site of *Camboritum*, and it was here that the Norman castle was built. It is conjectured that the displacement of the inhabitants recorded to have taken place when the castle was built, led to the establishment of a town on the present site, on the south side of the Cam, where St Benedict's tower (see below) seems to indicate that there was a village at any rate in existence. Cambridge was a town of some importance from the Norman conquest onwards, but from the 13th century its history has been merged in that of the university.

The town, as distinguished from the university, has not many features of interest. It possesses a guildhall, corn exchange, free public library, and gaol. There is also a fine county hospital founded under the will of Dr Addenbrooke in 1743, and an extensive recreation ground named Parker's Piece. Amongst the older churches, the most interesting are St Benedict's and the church of the Holy Sepulchre. St Benedict's (or St Benets) has a tower which is a fine specimen of the so-called Saxon architecture, with 'long and short' work, and is probably the oldest building now standing in the town. The church of the Holy Sepulchre is the oldest of the four round churches in England (see TEMPLE), having been built in 1101 in imitation of the church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem. It was restored by the Camden Society in 1841. The parish church of Great St Mary's is also the church of the university, at which all academic services are held. In 1887 there was built a large and handsome Roman Catholic church, dedicated to 'Our Lady and the English Martyrs.' The country round Cambridge is somewhat flat and dull; but on the west side the grounds known as 'the Backs' of the colleges are very beautiful, consisting of gardens, meadows, and avenues. The Cam flows through them, and is crossed by nine bridges. Above Cambridge the Cam is a small but picturesque stream. Below Cambridge it is dull and ugly, but is used for boat-racing. On account of the narrowness of the river only 'bumping races' can be rowed (see ROWING). Since 1885 the borough of Cambridge has sent one member to parliament, instead of two as formerly. Pop. (1851) 27,815; (1871) 30,078; (1881) 40,878, of whom 35,363 were within the boundaries of the municipal borough.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE is one of the two ancient institutions of the kind existing in England. Authentic records relating to the origin of a university at Cambridge are entirely wanting, and their place has been supplied by fables. But overlooking the various legendary accounts of its origin, it is probable that the true history of the university begins in the 12th century. (On the beginnings of the university system in Europe, see UNIVERSITIES.) Certain writs of Henry III., of 1231, are the earliest record of an attempt to introduce discipline amongst the students attending the lectures. It was about this time that the students, who had previously lived each in his own lodging at his own charges, began to live together in hostels under the rule of a principal. These hostels were named after the saints to whom they were dedicated, the churches which they adjoined, or the persons who built or formerly possessed them. In the year 1280 there were as many as 27, and some of them contained from 20 to 40 masters of arts, and a proportionate number of younger students; but all these hostels decayed by degrees when endowed colleges began to appear. Some were absorbed by the colleges, and some ceased to exist. Trinity hostel survived all the rest, and continued till 1540.

A college is an incorporated body of teachers and students enjoying the benefactions of a generous founder. Peterhouse, the oldest college in the university, was founded in 1286; and it was between the middle of the 13th and the close of the 16th century that, with one exception, all those royal and religious foundations were endowed which superseded the hostels and now constitute the university. It is by the possession of the college system that the sister universities of Oxford and Cambridge are distinguished from those of Scotland and the Continent.

The colleges were to a large extent modelled on the pattern of the monasteries. In some instances the colleges were united with 'religious houses' already existing, as in the case of Magdalen College at Oxford, and Emmanuel College at Cambridge. Hence arose some of the peculiarities of the college-system, which survived till a very recent date. To this cause is to be traced the condition of celibacy, upon which, with few exceptions, the fellowships were formerly tenable. The final abolition of restrictions as to marriage and as to holy orders (except in the case of offices with clerical functions) took place in 1881, when new statutes were issued by the Cambridge commissioners under the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge Act, 1877. These statutes take the place of those confirmed by the Queen in council in 1858.

The endowment of university professorships dates from the 16th century. In 1502, Lady Margaret, mother of Henry VII., founded the Lady Margaret professorship of Divinity. Henry VIII. in 1540 founded the five regius professorships of Divinity, Civil Law, Physics, Hebrew, and Greek. The earliest mathematical professorship was that founded by Henry Lucas in 1663. The university has 35 professors, increased to 40 by the statutes of 1881, in addition to readers, demonstrators, and assistants.

Cambridge was frequently visited by the plague, and university proceedings were suspended by it in 1642 and 1666. In the civil wars the university took the part of the king, and most of the colleges sent their plate to him at Nottingham. Cromwell occupied the town in 1643, and the most eminent royalists were expelled from the university.

During the last half-century the university has been reformed to meet modern needs, both by external authority and upon its own motions.

Religious tests have been abolished, the field of study has been widened, non-collegiate students (see below) have been admitted, and the examinations have been thrown open to women.

In order to understand the constitution and organisation of the university, it is necessary to bear in mind the fundamental distinction between the university and the colleges, due to the historical conditions of their respective origins. The governing body of the university is the senate, which is composed of persons of the standing of Masters of Arts. The matters of which the senate has cognisance are the management of the property of the university, the courses of study and examinations to be pursued by those who seek a degree, and public discipline and morals. But all proposals submitted to the senate must be approved by the council—a body elected by the resident members of senate. After the Chancellor and High-steward, the chief executive power is vested in the Vice-chancellor, who is elected annually from among the heads of colleges, but in practice holds office for two years. The Public Orator is the voice of the senate upon public occasions. The Proctors superintend the discipline and morals of all persons *in statu pupillari*; they are present at all congregations of the senate, read the 'graces,' and take the votes. The Registry is responsible for the graces being offered in due form, and has charge of the university records. There are three terms in this university—the Michaelmas or October term, the Lent term, and the Easter term. To take an ordinary B.A. degree, a student must reside nine terms. The M.A. degree follows, without examination, about four years after. Dissenters are not now excluded from taking degrees, except in divinity. The university sends two members to parliament, who are elected by the senate.

Each college is governed by its Master and Fellows, or by the Master and Council, a select committee of the fellows. When questions arise as to the interpretation of the statutes, they are referred to the Visitor of the college. The college officers concerned with questions of discipline are the dean and tutor. The Tutor of the college is *in loco parentis* to his pupils; the Dean has the oversight of 'religion and morals.'

With respect to the admission of students, their university course, expenses, and proceedings in degrees, the following information may be useful: There are five classes of students—viz. *Fellow Commoners* and *Noblemen, Scholars, Pensioners, Sizars* and *Sub-sizars*, and *Non-collegiate Students*. The first class (now almost obsolete) are so called from their dining at the Fellows' table; they wear silk or embroidered gowns, and pay heavier fees. The Scholars are members of the foundation, and are elected, after examination, from the pensioners and sizars, or from students who have not yet begun residence. The Pensioners are the great body of students, are not on the foundation, and pay for their own commons—viz. dinners in hall, &c., and for their rooms. The Sizars are poorer students, selected, however, by examination, who receive free commons and certain money payments, are admitted at lower charges than the pensioners, but wear the same dress, and are no longer subject to the performance of menial offices as they once were. Some of the colleges, especially St John's and Trinity, have very liberal endowments for the sizars, and very considerable pecuniary assistance is given to the more deserving of them. Non-collegiate students are not members of any college, but are entitled to the privileges of members of the university, and are placed under the charge of the Censor of non-collegiate students. The system of non-collegiate students dates from 1869. The usual age of admission is from 17 to 20. Before a student

can be admitted, he must at nearly all the larger colleges pass an elementary entrance examination. Where there is no entrance examination, the student is required to furnish satisfactory evidence that he is qualified for admission. It is also necessary to deposit a certain sum of money (£15 in the case of the pensioners) with the tutor of the college as caution money. The Fellows are elected from the students who have distinguished themselves in the Tripos examinations, or in a special fellowship examination. Vacancies are, as a rule, filled up from members of the college, but fellowships are sometimes open to the competition of the whole university. Fellowships vary greatly as to value and conditions of tenure at the different colleges. The stipend, which can seldom exceed £250 per annum, has in many instances been seriously reduced through agricultural depression. Under the statutes of 1881, restrictions as to marriage and holy orders are done away with, and the length of tenure is limited to six years. The last regulation does not apply to fellows holding a university or college office.

About half of the total number of undergraduates have rooms in college; the remainder reside in lodgings, but under the same rules as to discipline. Residence is usually commenced in the October term. The undergraduate in his first year of residence is called a 'Freshman'; in his second year, a 'Junior Soph.'; in his third year, a 'Senior Soph.' The Ordinary B.A., or Bachelor of Arts degree, may be taken in the ninth term of residence—viz. in the third June after coming up. The examinations required are: (1) The Previous Examination, or 'Little-go' (usually taken in the first or third term of residence), the subjects for which are a gospel in Greek, a Greek classic, a Latin classic, Greek and Latin Grammar, unprepared passages of Latin to be translated; Paley's *Evidences of Christianity*; Euclid, i. ii. iii., parts of v. and vi.; Arithmetic and Elementary Algebra. Those who wish may substitute a Greek classic and logic for the Greek gospel and Paley. (2) The General Examination in more advanced Classics and Mathematics. (3) A Special Examination in one of the following subjects: Theology, Logic and Political Economy, Law and Modern History, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology, Geology, Applied Science, Music. Candidates for Honours have to pass certain additional mathematical subjects in their 'Little-go,' and then have no further examination till the 'Tripos.' Honours may be taken in any of the following Triposes: Mathematics, Classics, Moral Sciences, Natural Sciences, Theology, Law, History, Semitic Languages, Indian Languages, Medieval and Modern Languages. The lists of the Mathematical Tripos have been preserved since 1747; the Classical was established in 1824; the others are more recent. Previous to 1851, candidates for classical honours must first have obtained a place in the Mathematical Tripos. The system upon which the Mathematical and Classical Triposes are conducted dates from 1882, though the regulations for the Mathematical Tripos have been somewhat modified since that year. The Mathematical Tripos is divided into two parts. The first part takes place in the May at the close of the third year, or ninth term of residence, and the successful candidates are arranged in three classes called Wranglers (q.v.), Senior Optimes, and Junior Optimes, the members of each class being also placed in order of merit. Only those who have obtained honours in the first part may proceed to the second part of the examination in the following May. The subjects for this part are divided into eight divisions, excellence in any two of which entitles to the highest honours. According to their success in this examination, the

candidates will be re-arranged in three classes, each class containing one or more divisions, the names in each division being, however, in alphabetical order. The Classical Tripos consists of two parts—the first in general classical scholarship, and taking place at the end either of the second or of the third year of residence; the other at the end either of the third or of the fourth year, and including, besides a further examination in pure classics obligatory on all candidates, a special knowledge of one or two, but not more than two, of the following subjects: Ancient Philosophy, History, Archaeology, Philology. The successful candidates in each part are arranged in three classes. In the first part, the examiners may indicate differences of merit within the classes by subdividing the classes into divisions; in the second part the names are given in alphabetical order, the subjects being indicated in which the student has specially distinguished himself. The Natural and Moral Sciences Triposes, the Theological Tripos, and (after 1889) the Law Tripos are also divided into two parts, a general and a special. The Mathematical and Classical Triposes were formerly followed by examinations for the Smith's Prizes for Mathematics and the Chancellor's classical medal. The former are now awarded for the best dissertation on a mathematical subject, the latter by an examination in the student's ninth term.

The whole business of the university was originally transacted in the most easterly of the two quadrangles that now compose the Library. In 1722 the Senate-house was built, and the old Regent-house, which occupied the first floor of the north side of the quadrangle, was thus added to the Library. The continual need of the Library for increased space has led to large additions from time to time. In 1887 the important work was begun of completing the westernmost of the two quadrangles forming this block of buildings. The Library now contains more than 400,000 volumes and MSS. Under the Copyright Acts it enjoys the right of receiving a copy of every book published in the country. It is distinguished among the great libraries of Europe for the freedom of access to the shelves permitted to readers. The chief treasure amongst the MSS. is the 'Codex Bezae,' or 'Cantabrigiensis,' presented to the university by Theodore Beza in 1581. This is a copy of the Gospels and Acts of the Apostles of about 500 A.D., with the Greek and Latin versions written on opposite pages.

The Senate-house, which stands in a conspicuous position facing St Mary's Church, is used for congregations of the senate, for the giving of degrees, for university examinations, and for other purposes of a like character.

The Fitzwilliam Museum is the finest of the modern additions to the university. Viscount Fitzwilliam bequeathed in 1816 £100,000 New South-sea Annuities, the interest of which was to build and support a museum. He left also a very valuable collection of books, paintings, prints, &c. G. Basevi was the architect, but died before the building was completed. Near the Fitzwilliam Museum is the Fitzwilliam Museum of Archaeology, which contains the best collection of casts from the antique in Britain, and also the collections of the Cambridge Antiquarian Society. The Pitt Press is a church-like structure, built in honour of Mr Pitt in 1831. It contains a part of the university printing-offices, and the Registry of the university. The Observatory, which is situated about a mile from Cambridge, contains some very fine instruments, amongst which is a large equatorial telescope presented by the Duke of Northumberland in 1835. The Geological

Museum contains the original collection of Dr Woodward, which out of respect to the founder has been preserved unmixed with the more recent additions to the museum. The large group of buildings known as 'The Museums and Lecture Rooms' is devoted to the study of natural science. The most important departments are: (1) The Museum of Zoology and Comparative Anatomy; (2) the Mineralogical Museum; (3) the Chemical Laboratory; (4) the Cavendish Laboratory of Experimental Physics, the munificent gift of the Duke of Devonshire, chancellor of the university.

The following is a list of the colleges in the order of their antiquity. A particular notice of each college will be found below in its alphabetical place:

Name.	Fellows.	Scholars.	Undergraduates in 1887.
St Peter's	11	22	96
Clare	15	32	170
Pembroke	13	29	122
Calus	22	26	162
Trinity Hall	13	16	173
Corpus Christi	12	15	118
King's	46	48	89
Queens'	13	18	83
St Catharine's	6	26	48
Jesus	16	44	216
Christ's	15	30	155
St John's	56	60	271
Magdalene	7	16	70
Trinity	60	74	640
Emmanuel	13	29	114
Sidney Sussex	10	24	61
Downing	6	6	74
Cavendish	68
Selwyn	3	80
Ayerst	4	34
Non-collegiate students	136
	334	522	2070

AYERST HALL is a hostel founded in 1884 to provide an economical education for theological students and others.

ST CATHARINE'S COLLEGE, till lately called St Catharine's Hall, was founded by Robert Wode-larke, provost of King's College, in 1473. John Bradford the martyr, Archbishop Sandys, John Ray the naturalist, and two liberal benefactors to the town and university of Cambridge—viz. William Worts and John Addenbrooke—belonged to this college. The present buildings were built between 1673 and 1704. A new master's lodge was added in 1875.

CAVENDISH COLLEGE was established in 1873 by an association, with the intention of enabling students somewhat younger than ordinary undergraduates, to pass through a university course with the greatest practical economy.

CHRIST'S COLLEGE was originally founded as a school by William Byngham in 1439, under the name of God's House. It was enlarged and re-founded under the name of Christ's College in 1503, by Margaret Beaufort, mother of Henry VII. She was also the foundress of St John's College. The fellowships vary in number. Among the famous members of this college were Leland the antiquary, Hugh Latimer, John Milton, and his friend Edward King (Lycidas), Archdeacon Paley, and Charles Darwin. The buildings are substantially the same as those built by the foundress and her executors who carried out her plan, but they have been from time to time modernised, and now have an Italian character. The mulberry-tree in one of the courts, said to have been planted by Milton, is carefully preserved, and still bears fruit.

CLARE COLLEGE, founded 1326, under the name of University Hall, by Richard Badew, was re-founded in 1359 by Elizabeth, Countess of Clare. Richard III., pretending to be descended from the foundress, claimed the patronage of this hall. Chaucer calls this college 'Solere' Hall. The build-

ings, which are in Jacobean style, are amongst the most pleasing in the university. The chapel was rebuilt in 1535, previous to which tradition alleges that an aisle of St Edward's Church, where the masters and fellows were anciently interred, was used for the purpose. But it can be proved that from the earliest times the college had a chapel of its own, as well as a part of the parish church. The college hall, rebuilt in 1693, is described by Steele (*Spectator*, No. 78). Tillotson, Cudworth, Whiston, and Nicholas Ferrar were members.

CORPUS CHRISTI, or BENET COLLEGE, was founded by two guilds of townspeople—the guild of Corpus Christi and the guild of the Blessed Virgin Mary. They had had separate halls, and respectively worshipped at the churches of St Benedict and St Mary. They united in 1352, and a small college was erected by them. Among the members have been Archbishops Parker and Tenison, and Sir Nicholas Bacon, Marlowe, Fletcher, Richard Boyle, Earl of Cork, and the antiquary Richard Gough. The original buildings exist with little alteration, but many additions have been made. St Benedict's Church, the oldest in Cambridge (see page 666), was long used as the college chapel. In 1579 a chapel was built within the college, with a room over it to contain the very valuable library of books and MSS. left to the college by Archbishop Parker. In the event of a certain number of the MSS. being lost, the collection was to pass over to Caius College, and thence, under similar circumstances, to Trinity Hall. The MSS. are guarded with jealous care, and none have as yet been lost.

DOWNING COLLEGE.—Sir George Downing, who died in 1717, left estates to endow a college after the death of his immediate successors. It ought to have been founded in 1764, but owing to opposition and litigation, the charter was not obtained till 1800. The grounds are large, but the college is very small, and has been impoverished by agricultural depression.

EMMANUEL COLLEGE was founded in 1584 by Sir Walter Mildmay, on the site of a Dominican house which passed into private hands on the suppression of monasteries. John Harvard, the founder of Harvard University, belonged to Emmanuel; also Archbishop Sancroft, Sir William Temple, and Dr Samuel Parr. The present chapel was designed by Wren. There are good pictures in a gallery attached to the master's lodge, and valuable MSS. in the library.

GONVILLE AND CAIUS COLLEGE was founded in 1348, under the name of Gonville Hall, by Edmund Gonville. In 1533, William Bateman, his executor, moved it to the present site, and changed the name to the 'Hall of the Annunciation of Blessed Mary the Virgin.' In 1558 John Caius, M.D. (q.v.), refounded the hall under the name of Gonville and Caius. It is now usually called simply 'Caius' (pronounced *Krys*). The studentships were founded by C. Tancred, and are of the annual value of £100 each. On account of five Tancred medical studentships, this has always been the chief medical college of the university. Among the eminent members have been J. Caius, Harvey (discoverer of the circulation of the blood), Dr Wollaston, Jeremy Taylor, Sir J. Gresham, and Bishop Mackenzie. The buildings are large and handsome, and the parts erected by Dr Caius carefully planned for health and beauty. The large and picturesque gateway leading to the senate-house, called the Gate of Honour, was built from the designs of Caius after his death. In recent years large additions have been built to the college.

JESUS COLLEGE was founded by John Alcock, Bishop of Ely, in 1496. Henry VII. granted for the purpose the nunnery of St Radegund, which

had fallen into decay. Among its members have been Archbishop Crammer, Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and S. T. Coleridge. The old buildings are beautiful, especially the chapel, originally the church of the nunnery, but adapted by Alcock to the purposes of a college chapel. It was injured at the time of Cromwell's occupation of Cambridge in 1643, when a certain William Dowling committed ravages on many of the college chapels. It was repaired at the Restoration, and was carefully restored (1846-49) under the direction of Pugin.

ST JOHN'S COLLEGE is derived from the oldest foundation in Cambridge, for it is on the site of a small hospital for the sick founded by Henry Frost in 1135, and dedicated to St John the Evangelist. It was under the management of Augustinian friars. Hugh de Balsham tried to attach his secular scholars to the religious foundation, but he was unable to secure harmony, and he therefore founded Peterhouse. In 1510 the hospital was converted into the college of St John the Evangelist, in accordance with the will of Lady Margaret Beaufort, mother of Henry VII., who also founded Christ's College and a professorship of Divinity. Henry VIII. appropriated to himself nearly all the estates left by his grandmother to the college, and gave it some smaller estates in compensation. St John's has, however, grown by numerous gifts, and is now second only to Trinity in size and wealth. Among the many eminent members of this college may be mentioned Roger Ascham, Lord Burleigh, Ben Jonson, Falkland, Fairfax, the Earl of Strafford, Matthew Prior, Herriek, Richard Bentley, William Wilberforce, William Wordsworth, Kirke White, and Lord Palmerston. The buildings are very picturesque, chiefly in Tudor and Jacobean styles. They lie on both sides of the river, which is crossed by a bridge somewhat resembling the Bridge of Sighs. A new chapel, designed by Sir G. G. Scott, was built at great expense, and opened in 1869. It is in the Early Decorated style, is richly adorned with marbles and carving, and has a lofty and massive tower. The library contains many valuable MSS., and specimens of early printing. There are interesting portraits in the hall and master's lodge.

KING'S COLLEGE was founded in 1441 by Henry VI. His first intention was to endow a small foundation, but he enlarged his plans and connected the college with Eton, from which the scholars were to be transferred, as in the case of Wykeham's colleges at Winchester and Oxford. The buildings were designed on a large scale, but only the chapel was built in accordance with the king's plan. It is the finest specimen in England of the Perpendicular style, and was not finished till about 1536. The fretted roof is a wonderful work of art, being made of great blocks of stone fitted together and balanced on the piers below. The painted glass is fine, and dates from the beginning of the 16th century, except the west window, which was finished in 1879. The other college buildings were originally on the north side of the chapel. The gateway which alone survives is now incorporated with the western quadrangle of the university library. The scholarships were formerly appropriated to scholars of Eton, and no examination was necessary to take a degree, but in 1853 students of King's were admitted to the Tripos examinations; 24 of the 46 scholarships have also been thrown open. These changes have had an admirable effect on the college, and it has greatly grown in size and influence. Pearson, Waller, Horace Walpole, and Walsingham were members.

MAGDALENE COLLEGE (pronounced *Maudlin*) was founded in 1542 by Lord Audley on the site of a hostel for Benedictine students, which had been

established in 1428, and was given to Lord Audley at the suppression of monasteries. The appointment of the master is still in the hands of the possessor of Audley End as Lord Audley's representative. Among eminent members were Archbishops Grindal and Usher, and Samuel Pepys. Pepys left his library containing valuable books, pamphlets, and MSS. to the college, on condition it was kept intact and separate, and that it should pass to Trinity College if these conditions were broken. The buildings are old but not of special interest. The chapel, which was restored in 1847, is of uncertain date. The hall was built in 1510 by the Duke of Buckingham.

PEMBROKE COLLEGE was founded in 1348, by Mary de St Paul, widow of Aymer de Valence, Earl of Pembroke. She was maid, wife, and widow in one day, her husband being slain at a tilting match held in honour of her nuptials. Among the members of the college were many bishops, including Andrewes, Ridley, and Wren; also the martyrs Bradley and Rogers; the poets Edmund Spenser (whose mulberry-tree still remains in the garden), Richard Crashaw, Thomas Gray, and William Mason; also William Pitt. The buildings are in part very old, but there has been much rebuilding and restoration in late years. The chapel was built by Bishop Wren, in accomplishment of a vow made by him when imprisoned in the Tower during the Commonwealth, and the architect was his nephew, Sir Christopher Wren.

ST PETER'S COLLEGE, or PETERHOUSE, founded as a hospital at an earlier date, was converted by Hugh de Balsam into an institution 'for studious scholars' in 1280-86. The present chapel was opened in 1632. Parts of Peterhouse are the oldest collegiate buildings in Cambridge. The hall and combination room have been admirably restored. The poet Gray belonged to this college, but migrated to Pembroke on account of an annoying practical joke played on him by the undergraduates. Archbishop Whitgift, Isaac Barrow (afterwards Master of Trinity), and Sir William Thomson were distinguished members.

QUEENS' COLLEGE was founded in 1448 by Margaret of Anjou, wife of Henry VI., and re-founded in 1465 by Elizabeth Woodville, wife of Edward IV. Among the names of interest connected with this college, are those of Fisher, Bishop of Rochester and first president, Fuller the antiquary, and Erasmus, who occupied rooms in this college when he came to Cambridge by Fisher's invitation to teach Greek. His rooms are pointed out in the court which is called after him. The buildings are among the most interesting in Cambridge. They were begun in 1448, and 'have suffered less from modern meddling than in most of the colleges.' There are four courts, and the principal one is entered by a massive gateway with octagonal towers at the corners; there is also a square tower at each external angle of the court. The chapel has suffered at the hands of enemies and friends, but was carefully restored in 1861. There are interesting portraits in the hall, combination room, and president's lodge.

SELWYN COLLEGE, founded in 1882, was built by public subscription in memory of George Augustus Selwyn, late Bishop of Lichfield, and formerly Bishop of New Zealand. The aim of the college is to supply an economical university education, based upon the distinctive principles of the Church of England.

SIDNEY SUSSEX COLLEGE was founded on the site of a suppressed religious house granted by Henry VIII. to Trinity. Lady Frances Sidney, widow of the Earl of Sussex, left money for the foundation of a college to be called by her name. Her executors obtained the site from Trinity, which

still receives an annual rent from Sidney of £13, 6s. 8d. Oliver Cromwell entered at Sidney College, but left without taking a degree. The college possesses an admirable picture of him by Samuel Cooper, which it received in 1766 from an anonymous donor, afterwards ascertained to have been Mr Thomas Holles.

TRINITY COLLEGE is larger than any other in either Oxford or Cambridge. It was founded in 1546 by Henry VIII., and was formed by the union and extension of several earlier foundations occupying different parts of the site of the college. Amongst these may be mentioned: (1) Michael-house, founded in 1324 by Hervey de Stanton; (2) King's Hall, founded by Edward III. in 1337. Queen Mary added twenty scholarships and began the college chapel. Architecturally the college may be said to date in its present form from the mastership of Dr Thomas Neville (1593-1615). Neville completed the great court, rebuilt the hall, began the court which now bears his name, and erected the fountain in the great court. The library was begun in 1676, after the designs of Sir Christopher Wren. It is of remarkably fine proportions, and contains a very valuable collection of books and manuscripts. During the present century the chief additions have been the New Court (finished in 1825), and Whewell's Courts, which were completed in 1868, and form a splendid monument of Dr Whewell's munificence towards his college. Whewell's buildings, however, in consequence of the form of the site, are somewhat cramped for architectural effect. The interior of the chapel, which till recently was bare and unattractive, has been elaborately restored and decorated (1870-75). The grounds and gardens are of great beauty, especially the fellows' garden and bowling-green.

The Crown appoints the master, and also possesses apartments in the master's lodge which are occupied by Her Majesty's judges when on circuit. The college has produced a long series of eminent men, who are commemorated by fine statues and busts in the antechapel and library, and by some pictures, mostly very bad, in the hall. The following may be mentioned: Lord Baron, Sir Edward Coke, Cowley the poet, Lord William Russell, John Dryden, Sir Isaac Newton (fine statue in antechapel by Ronbilliac), Bentley, Porson, Lord Byron (fine statue by Thorwaldsen in library), Lord Macanlay (statue in antechapel), Sedgwick, Julius Hare, Lord Tennyson, Arthur Henry Hallam, Thackeray, W. H. Thompson, Lord Houghton, Lord Hartington, and Sir George Trevelyan.

It may be useful to explain that for boating purposes the college has been divided into three clubs—viz. First, Second, and Third Trinity. Second Trinity (now extinct) consisted of scholars and sizars. Third Trinity is confined to those who come from Eton and Westminster. First Trinity includes the remainder of the college.

TRINITY HALL was founded in 1350 by William Bateman, Bishop of Norwich (one of the three founders of Caius College), for the study of civil and canon law. The buildings are not very interesting, but the library has retained its old appearance, and contains a good collection of law-books. The gardens are very pretty. Bishop Gardiner, Lord Chesterfield, Bulwer Lytton, and Leslie Stephen were members.

Girton (q.v.) and Newnham (q.v.) Colleges for ladies are no part of the university.

For the most recent information about the university studies, &c., the *Cambridge Calendar* for the current year should be consulted; see also the *Student's Guide to the University of Cambridge* (5th ed. 1880). Dickens's *Dictionary of Oxford and Cambridge* gives much information in a convenient form; for athletics, college societies, &c., see the *Cambridge Almanac*. For all matters

relating to the buildings of the university and the colleges, and for much general history, see Willis and Clark, *The Architectural History of the University of Cambridge* (4 vols. 1880); for the history, biography, and antiquity, see Fuller's *History of Cambridge*; Dyer; Caius; Le Keux' *Memorials of Cambridge* (3 vols. 1880); Cooper's *Annals* (1842); Cooper's *Athenæ Cantabrigienses*; *Graduati Cantabrigienses*; Cooper's *Memorials of Cambridge* (1860); Ackermann's *History of the University of Cambridge* (1815); Huber's *English Universities* (trans. F. W. Newman, 1843); H. Gunning's *Reminiscences of Cambridge from the Year 1780* (2 vols. 1854); W. Everett's *On the Cam* (1866); C. Wordsworth's *Social Life at the English Universities in the Eighteenth Century* (1874); and *Scholæ Academicæ* (1877); J. Bass Mullinger's *The University of Cambridge to the Accession of Charles I.* (2 vols. 1873-84).

Cambridge, a city of Massachusetts, virtually a suburb of Boston, from which it is separated by the Charles River, is principally distinguished as the seat of Harvard University (q.v.), and as the home from 1836 of Longfellow, who lived in a house formerly occupied by Washington. Cambridge was first settled in 1630, and is therefore one of the oldest towns in New England. It early became noted for its printing industry, the first book published in the British American colonies (the Bay Psalm-book) having been printed here in 1640. Indeed, the manufacture of books is now one of its leading industries; besides which there are large manufactories of furniture, glass, ironware, tinware, bricks, chemicals, net and twine, sugar, soap, and rubber. Within the limits of the city are comprised the different localities of Old Cambridge, or Cambridge proper, which is distinctively the seat of the university; East Cambridge or Lechmere Point, a manufacturing district; Cambridgeport, where is located the city hall, numerous churches, several banks, a convent, and some manufactories; and North Cambridge, which is principally devoted to residences. Here Washington assumed command in 1735. The famous cemetery of Mount Auburn is partly in Cambridge and partly in Watertown. Pop. of Cambridge (1870) 39,364; (1880) 52,669.

Cambridge Greensand, a name given to certain 'coprolite beds' met with in Cambridgeshire, which were at one time supposed to represent the 'Upper Greensand.' The beds in question are now ascertained to occur on the horizon of the base of the Chalk Marl. See CRETACEOUS SYSTEM.

Cambridgeshire, an inland eastern county of England, 48 miles long, 11½ to 33 miles broad, and 821 sq. m. or 525,182 acres in area. As much as 92 per cent. of that area consists of arable land, meadow, and pasture, the rest being fens. The surface, except in the south, which is somewhat elevated and on the chalk formations, is flat and thinly wooded, with villages and churches here and there on slight elevations called 'eys' or islands. In a country less level the much-vaunted Gog-Magog Hills, 4 miles SE. of Cambridge, would escape observation. At Upware are beds of the phosphatic nodules called Coprolites (q.v.), which are of great value as an artificial manure. The northern portion of Cambridgeshire forms part of the Bedford Level (q.v.). The chief of the sluggish rivers are the Ouse, which crosses the middle of the county from west to east, with its tributary the Cam; the Nene, which borders the county on the north; and the Lark. These are all navigable to a certain extent. Cambridge is an agricultural county. In the higher parts the land produces fine crops of beans and wheat. Many cattle and sheep are now supported on the thin chalky soils. The black spongy soil of the fens consists of mud mixed with decayed vegetable matter, and when drained and burned, pro-

duces, in dry years, heavy crops of cole-seed, wheat, oats, barley, hay, potatoes, hemp, and flax. Horses, cattle, and sheep are also reared in the fens. The Isle of Ely, part of the fen-tract, and within the Bedford Level, is famed for garden vegetables, and the meadows of the Cam yield fine butter and cream-cheese. The chief towns of Cambridgeshire are Cambridge (the county town), Ely, Wisbeach, March, Thorney, Linton, Soham, Newmarket, and Royston. The manufactures of Cambridgeshire are mostly such as belong to an agricultural county. Cambridgeshire returns three members to parliament, one for each of the Chesterton, Newmarket, and Wisbeach divisions. Pop. (1801) 89,346; (1841) 164,459; (1871) 186,906; (1881) 185,594. This county was anciently the seat of a powerful tribe—the Icenii. It was crossed by several British and Roman roads, in some parts now covered by several feet of peat soil. Remains of Roman camps, sea embankments, and villas occur, and Roman antiquities, as coins and urns, have been found. Of four great dykes or earthworks the chief is the Devil's Ditch, extending 7 miles south-eastward from Reach to Wood-Ditton. It is 18 feet high on the east side, and was certainly of pre-Roman workmanship, as it is cut through by Roman roads. In the 9th and 10th centuries Cambridgeshire was the scene of severe contests between the Danes and Saxons. The Isle of Ely and its monks withstood William the Conqueror for eight years (see HEReward). Cambridgeshire, and especially the Isle of Ely, suffered much in the civil wars of Stephen, John, Henry III., and Charles I. There formerly existed thirty-six religious houses in Cambridgeshire. See Arthur G. Hall's *Cambridgeshire* (1882), and Babinpton's *Ancient Cambridgeshire* (1883).

Cambus'can, a prince of Cambaluc (Pekin), whose name is a corruption of Genghis Khan, while the description applies apparently to his grandson, Kublai Khan. This was Milton's form of the Cam'bynskan of Chaucer's fragment of a metrical romance, *The Squires Tale*. The lines in *Il Penseroso* (109-15) will be remembered:

Or call up him that left half-told
The story of Cambuscan bold,
Of Cambal, and of Algarisfe,
And who had Canace to wife,
That owned the virtuous ring and glass,
And of the wondrous horse of brass,
On which the Tartar king did ride.

Spenser continues and finishes the tale in his *Fairie Queene* (IV., ii. and iii.); and John Lane, a friend of Milton's father, also wrote a continuation. Some of the romantic elements in it are widespread in oriental story, occurring in the *Arabian Nights*, the *Panchatantra*, and elsewhere. See Clouston's *Popular Tales and Fictions* (1887).

Cambuslang, a large mining village of Lanarkshire, 4 miles SE. of Glasgow. Here a revival, known as the 'Cambuslang Wark,' was held, under Whitefield, in 1741. Pop. (1881) 5538.

Camby'ses (*Kambujis*), second king of the Medes and Persians, was the son of Cyrus, and succeeded his father in 529 B.C. He put his brother Smerdis to death, and in 527 or 525 invaded Egypt, defeated its king Psammenitus at Pelusium, and in six months made himself master of the whole country. He meditated further conquests, but the Tyrian mariners refused to serve against Carthage; an army which he sent to take possession of the temple of Ammon perished in the desert; and one which he led in person to Nubia purchased some conquests dearly at the price of myriads of lives. Camby'ses, according to Sayce, was conciliatory on the whole towards the Egyptians; but latterly he gave himself up to drunkenness and hideous cruelties, when news came, in 522, that Gaumata,

a Magian, had assumed Smerdis' character, and seized on the Persian throne. Cambyses marched against him from Egypt, but died on the way in Syria from an accidental wound in the thigh.

Camden, a city and port of entry of New Jersey, and capital of Camden county, stands on the left bank of the Delaware River, opposite Philadelphia, with which it is connected by five steam-ferries. It is the terminus of six railways, and has several shipyards and dry-docks, important foundries, cotton and woollen mills, and large manufactures of machinery, ironwares, paints, oil-clothes, &c. Pop. (1880) 41,659.

Camden, CHARLES PRATT, EARL OF, a younger son of Sir John Pratt, who was Chief-justice of the Court of King's Bench in the reign of George I., was born in 1713. Educated at Eton and Cambridge, he was called to the bar in 1738, but not until 1752, when he defended a bookseller successfully against a government prosecution for libel on the House of Commons, did his prospects appear very promising. He was appointed Attorney-general in 1757, and Chief-justice of the Common Pleas in 1762. Judge in the trial of Wilkes, he declared his opinion emphatically that the action of government in this case, by general warrants, was altogether illegal—an opinion which, chiming in with public sentiment at the time, made him the most popular of judges. In 1765 he was created Baron Camden by the Rockingham administration, to whose ill advised American policy, and to that of their successors, as well as to their treatment of Wilkes, he, notwithstanding, offered constant opposition. He was made Lord Chancellor in 1766, but his consistent principles on these two subjects led to his resignation in 1770. His judicial career ended here; henceforth he was entirely a political character. He filled the office of President of the Council in the second Rockingham cabinet in 1782, and also, under Pitt, from the following year until his death, April 18, 1794. He was created Earl Camden and Viscount Bayham in 1786.

Camden, WILLIAM, scholar, antiquary, and historian, was born in London, where his father was a painter, 2d May 1551. His education, commenced at Christ's Hospital, was completed at St Paul's School and at Oxford. In 1575 he was appointed second master of Westminster School; and it was while discharging the duties of this office that he undertook the work which has made his name famous, his *Britannia*, a survey of the British Isles. Written in elegant Latin, it was first published in 1586, and at once brought him into communication with the learned men of his time. In 1607 the work reached a sixth edition, being greatly enlarged and improved by the indefatigable industry of the author. The book, at first but a comparatively small single volume, has received much additional matter from other writers. It was first translated by Philemon Holland, and the latest and best translation is that by Gough and Nichols (2d ed. 4 vols. 1806). Of this great work of Camden, Bishop Nicolson said it was 'the common sun-whereat our modern writers have all lighted their little torches.' In 1593 Camden was appointed head-master of Westminster School; and four years later he was made Clarendieu King-at-arms, an appointment which gave him more time for the pursuit of his favourite studies. His other most important works, all in Latin, are a list of the epitaphs in Westminster Abbey (1600), a collection of old English historians (1603), a narrative of the trial of the Gunpowder plotters (1607), and *Annals of the Reign of Elizabeth to 1558* (1615). He died in his house at Chislehurst (it was afterwards Napoleon III.'s) on 9th November 1623, at the age

of seventy-two, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. He endowed a professorship of history at Oxford. The 'Camden Society,' founded in his honour in 1838, for the publication of early historical remains, had issued 141 volumes by 1888.

Camel (Lat. *camēlus*; Heb. *gāmāl*), a genus of even-toed ruminant Ungulates (Artiodactyla, Ruminantia), and type of a small family—Camelidae or Tylopoda. In this family the dentition is peculiar, for of the three front teeth present in the young only one (the third) generally remains and looks like a canine; the upper lip is hairy and deeply cleft; the neck is very long, though the number of vertebrae remains as usual seven; the feet (with two toes) are not enhoofed, but provided with callous soles. Fig. 1 represents the bones of the lower part of fore-leg, showing the two toes and slightly divided metatarsal bones. The stomach has three compartments, the naryplies or psalterium being absent; the placenta is diffuse. The family includes two genera—the Camels proper (*Camelus*) and the various forms of Alpaca (q.v., *Anchenia*). The camels are well known for their large size, for their dorsal humps, for their callosities on knees, breast, &c., for the common sole uniting the two toes. The ears are small and rounded; the short tail bears a terminal switch; the hair is tangled and felted; the male may protrude a curious pouch from the skin of the mouth at the reproductive season; the period of gestation is prolonged for eleven to thirteen months; a single young one is born; the diet is wholly vegetarian. Camel's blood, like man's, has oval corpuscles.



Fig. 1.

One species (*C. dromedarius*) is usually spoken of as the dromedary, though the title properly belongs only to a special breed. It has a single hump and a generally reddish-gray colour. This familiar 'ship of the desert' has its home in Arabia, is bred in West Asia and North Africa, and is literally indispensable to the Arabs. There are many breeds, and the dromedary *par excellence* is the most agile of these. Apart from its use in transit and transport, the flesh is eaten, the milk made into butter and cheese, the hair woven, the skin tanned, the dung burned as fuel. The fine hair is used for paint-brushes; the soot of the burnt dung was formerly a source of sul-ammoniac. The dromedary is found as far east as India, whence twenty-four were imported into Australia for Burke and Wills's exploration (1860); it has also been introduced into parts of North America, and even into Europe. According to Prejevalsky, wild camels frequent the wastes to the east and north of Lake Lob-Nor in Central Asia. The other camel is technically known as *C. bactrianus*, and is distinguished by its slightly larger size, two dorsal humps, and somewhat finer brown or reddish hair. This camel is bred in Central Asia, and in its adaptability to domestication, as well as in its natural adaptation to desert life, is a most useful animal. Its frugal diet, its powers of storing water and of going long without a fresh supply, and its great strength, are very familiar facts. The sole uniting the toes, the callosities on chest and joints, the long sheltering eyelashes, the closable nostrils, the capacious water-pouches of the stomach (for the sake of which the Arabs at a pinch are said to sacrifice the camel), the reserve-supply of fat in the humps, the acute senses of sight and smell, are all interesting items in the adaptation of the camel to its life and work. The animal is peculiarly hardy, and can pass the rigours of a Siberian winter without apparent

discomfort. Its coat becomes longer in winter. The shaggy undersized camels that drag sleighs over the deep snow of the Kirghiz steppes are very unlike their more southern relations. A camel will eat



Fig. 2.—Camel (*Camelus bactrianus*).

almost any herbage or green thing it comes across, even dried leafless twigs. The soles of the feet wear into the quick; and Gilmour (in his *Mongolia*) tells us that they have often to be patched with leather, fastened by thongs drawn through the callosities. The hair of the camel forms the wool and cotton the warp of the famous Persian camel's-hair cloth. The so-called camel's-hair brushes are made of hairs from the tail of the sable or of some kinds of squirrel. Coarser camel's wool or hair is imported for various purposes.

The Bactrian camel can carry 1000 lb. weight or more, and the dromedary can cover 100 miles in a day. The ordinary jog of a camel is about 2½ miles an hour, but this can be kept up for many days with little food and less drink. A swift dromedary may go 10 miles an hour. A thousand or more may journey in a caravan, and the amount of food carried is surprisingly small. The hump must be in good condition before starting. Sir Samuel Baker says an

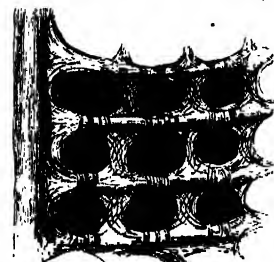


Fig. 3.—Part of the inside of Stomach-paunch of Camel, showing the water-cells.

Arabian camel carrying a load of 400 lb. requires water every third day, or every 90 miles, though they should be watered daily, if possible; but in cold weather, or when not at work, they can remain much longer without any water. If not watered for three days, however, many suffer, unless specially trained. In the stomach-reservoirs a gallon and a half can be stowed away. Like some other frugal animals, the camel enjoys a long life of thirty or forty years. The swinging and jolting gait of the camel renders riding it (on a sort of platform on the hump) a severe ordeal for the uninitiated. The camel's burden is usually disposed on both sides of its back. The Kirghiz yoke camels to a kind of cart; and in Orenburg and elsewhere yokes of four camels may be seen ploughing.

In disposition the camel is peculiarly stolid, not to say stupid. Whether domestication has been too much for it, there can be no doubt that its 'docility' is more the result of habitual nonchal-

ance than any outcome of intelligent subservience. It is usually very submissive, except when habitually thwarted or ill-treated, and during the breeding season; but it is often obstinate and vindictive.

Large fossil camels have been dug out from the Tertiary strata of the Siwalik Hills of India, and from the Quaternary deposits of Algeria. Professor Cope has traced a long line of descent from the Miocene *Poebrotherium* to the modern forms, and primitive forms have been described by Marsh and others from the Eocene strata. The former distribution of the family seems to have been much wider than the natural habitat of the forms now extant. The camel is often mentioned in Scripture, and appears on the sculptures of Assyria. Napoleon used camels for military purposes in Egypt; and a camel corps was organised for service with the British army in the Soudan in 1885.

Camel, a caisson-like apparatus for rendering a vessel navigable in shoal water. It was invented by the Russian engineer De Witte (1790-1854), and is often used between Kronstadt and St Petersburg. See CAISSON.

Camelford, a quaint little Cornish town, near the source of the Camel ('crooked brook'), 15 miles W. of Launceston. Within 3 miles of it is the traditional scene of King Arthur's last battle; also near are the great slate-quarries of Delabole, putting out nearly 150 tons daily. 'Ossian' Macpherson was member for Camelford, which was disfranchised in 1832. Pop. about 1500.

Camellia, a genus of Ternstroemiaceæ (q.v.), named after Kamel or Camellus, a Moravian Jesuit, who in 1639 collected plants in the Philippine Islands. The species are all oriental evergreen shrubs, and have long been cultivated in China and Japan, chiefly on account of the singular beauty of their flowers. The best known and most esteemed of these is *C. japonica*; in the wild state this has



Camellia japonica.

red flowers, recalling those of the wild rose; and in cultivation it yields new florists' varieties from seed, and also furnishes a stock on which to graft them. It was introduced into Europe by Lord Petre in 1739; but double varieties were only brought from China from 1792 onwards: many have also been raised by European florists, and the multitude of beautiful hybrids and varieties is now endless. Camellias may be propagated also by cuttings or layers, as well as by grafting or inarching. The soil suitable is a loose black mould,

which may be prepared by mixing a little sand and peat with loam; and they must be watered liberally, yet with caution to avoid excess. The pruning also, which is performed in spring immediately after flowering, requires judgment, since it must be tolerably close, yet avoid extreme severity. In China and Japan the camellia is cultivated in the open air; and in the very similar climate of the Channel Islands this is also possible. In the south of England some of the hardier varieties can be trained on walls in sheltered localities with a little protection in winter; they may also be grown as window-plants, yet for practical purposes of cultivation on any adequate scale, a greenhouse is required. Care, however, must be taken to avoid much heat, else the flower-buds will drop off. From the hardy and beautiful *C. reticulata* not a few of the varieties now in cultivation are partly derived.—*C. oleifera* and *drupifera* are cultivated in China for the sake of the wholesome oil expressed from their seeds, which much resembles olive-oil. The fragrant flowers of *C. Sasanqua* (*Sasanqua* Tea) are used for flavouring certain kinds of tea. Like other species, its leaves also afford a kind of tea; in fact the true tea-plant (*Thea*) is practically a camellia. See TEA.

Camelopard (*Camelopardalis giraffa*), an old name for the giraffe, which recalls the curious old notion that certain strange animals originated very simply by crossing. The giraffe was supposed to spring from the camel and the leopard (*pardalis*). See GIRAFFE.

Camelot, a name applied in the medieval romances to the splendid 'City of Legions' which grew up out of the permanent quarters of the Second Augusta Legion at Caerleon-upon-Usk (q.v.), but was built earlier by the mythical Belinus. The name is familiar to readers of Tennyson.

Camel's Thorn (*Althagi*), a genus of Leguminosæ (q.v.). The species are herbs or undershrubs, and chiefly inhabit the deserts of the East, where they are of great importance as affording food for camels. Several species, notably the herbaceous *A. camolorum*, yield a kind of oriental manna, which appears in the form of drops, as of honey, on the leaves, and gradually hardens. It is imported into India from Kabul and Kandahar. See MANNA.

Cameo. A cameo is an engraved gem in which the figure or subject is carved in relief, in contradistinction to the other form of gem—an *Intaglio* (q.v.), in which the engraved subject is sunk or hollowed out like a seal. The latter is the more ancient form of gem, having been originally devised and used principally as a signet, whereas the cameo came to be employed for ornamental purposes and as a charm. While intaglios were commonly cut into stones of uniform colour, such as the sard, stratified agates were the medium chiefly employed for cameos, the relief being formed in one band or stratum of the agate, with a background of contrasting colour. Regarding the derivation of the name (the Italian form of which is *cammeo*), there is unusual diversity of opinion; one of the likeliest suggestions being that of the late Mr C. W. King, that it comes from the Arabic word for 'an annulet,' from the Persian *camahen* 'lowlstone,' the usual material for Babylonian cylinders.

The art of cameo-cutting was not practised till after the era of Praxiteles, and it was in the courts of the successors of Alexander the Great that classical cameos were chiefly sought after. The stones used by the ancient engravers were obtained from the east, and many of them were of surprising size and perfection of form and colour. These banded agates are known generically as onyx stones; when the alternate layers are simply white and dark

neutral tint or black they are called simply onyxes; a sardonix consists of strata of white and ruddy brown sard; in the same way we have chalcedony onyx or chalcedonyx (white and translucent gray), jasper onyx, bloodstone onyx, &c. Frequently three differently coloured layers are available to the engraver in the same stone, and these are taken advantage of to obtain the ground in one colour; the figure in a second, and wreaths or other accessories in the third. When cameo-engraving first flourished, the most artistic products were highly prized, not only for personal ornaments, but for the adornment of cups, caskets, vases, candelabra, and other objects of domestic luxury. Patere and other vessels were frequently worked out of a single stone, around which were engraved a whole series of figures in the most exquisite and accurate taste. A vast number of genuine antique cameos have been preserved in fine condition, and are now deposited in various famous public and private collections. Among these ancient art works several have the highest value for artistic excellence, while others are famous for size and for long and romantic histories attaching to them. One of the most celebrated in all respects is the Gonzaga or Odescalchi cameo (fig. 1), a sardonix of three strata, measuring



Fig. 1.

6 by 5 inches, formerly in the possession of the Empress Josephine, and now preserved in the imperial cabinet at St Petersburg. It was formerly supposed to represent Ptolemy I. and his wife Eurydice; but the portraits have now been identified as those of Nero and Agrippina. Of not less artistic worth is the smaller cameo of Jupiter fighting the Titans, the work of Athenion (50 A.D.), signed in relief by the artist, preserved in the Vatican (fig. 2). For size and historical interest the two most important classical cameos are the Ste Chapelle cameo—the apotheosis of Augustus, now in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris, and the Gemma Augustea in Vienna.

The art of cameo-cutting was revived with the general renaissance of the arts in Italy in the 15th century, and it continued to be practised with great success till comparatively recent times, the last of the long line of famous engravers in precious stones having been Pistrucchi, who executed works of very great beauty for the English mint. The imperfect supply of fine onyxes, and the difficulty of treating hard stones, led the modern cameo-cutters in Italy and elsewhere to seek other media for their work,

and shell-cameos were by them introduced. The shells, like the stones chosen for this purpose, are such as possess layers of different colours. The

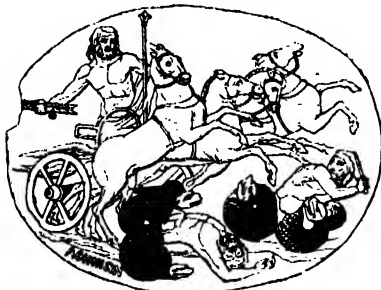


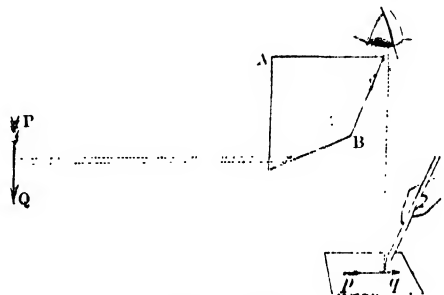
Fig. 2.

most useful are the *Bull's Mouth*, the under layer of which is red, resembling the sardonix; the *Black Helmet*, which has a dark onyx ground; and the *Queen's Couch*, whose ground is of a pinkish hue. These shells have three strata, the undermost of which forms the ground, the figure being sculptured in the second, and the third serving to mark the hair, wreaths, armour, and other more prominent objects. The portion of shell having been prepared of the requisite size, form, and thickness by various mechanical means, it is fixed by some adhesive substance—usually rosin—to a small block of wood of such form and thickness as to be conveniently grasped by the artist in his left hand. The outline of the object or objects to be represented is then sketched with a pencil, and, in the case of portraits, is usually copied from a previous pencil-sketch on paper. The pencil-marking on the shell is then followed with a scratch-point, and the surrounding white substance is removed by means of files and gravers. This latter process, which is more mechanical than the rest, is usually performed by an assistant. The artist then proceeds slowly and carefully to work out his subject by the use of smaller tools; those used at last for deepening the finer lines being scarcely larger than ordinary darning-needles. The manufacture of shell-cameos hardly ever attained to the dignity of art; and it, combined with the forgeries and frauds in spurious antiques of the latter part of the 18th century, had much influence in causing the decline and present extinction of gem-cutting.

Imitation cameos termed pastes are made in glass of different colours, the figures or subjects being formed in moulds, in soft fusible glass, by the aid of heat, and cemented to the background. Sometimes both background and subject are fused together. James Tassie, a Scottish artist working principally in London, formed a collection of about 20,000 moulds from antique and modern gems for such pastes, and a very full collection of his productions is now in the possession of the Board of Manufactures in Edinburgh. The engraving of relief figures on glass of two or more strata is an art allied to cameo-cutting, which will be treated of under GLASS, and the technical details of gem-cutting will be given under INTAGLIO.

Camera Lucida (so named in contrast to *Camera Obscura*, q.v.), an optical instrument constructed of various forms and for various purposes. Dr Robert Hooke invented one about 1674; whilst Dr Wollaston's (1807), intended to facilitate the perspective delineation of objects, consists of a small quadrilateral prism of glass, of which AB in the annexed figure is the perpendicular section, held in a brass frame, which is attached to an upright rod, having at its lower end a screw-clamp,

to fix it to the edge of a table. The prism being at the height of about a foot from the table, has its upper face horizontal. Two of its faces, as in the figure, are at a right angle at A; the contiguous faces make respectively with them angles of $67\frac{1}{2}^\circ$; so that the remaining obtuse angle at B contains 135° . Rays coming from an object PQ, and falling nearly perpendicularly on the first surface, enter the prism, and undergo total reflection at the contiguous surface (see OPTICS); they then fall at the same angle on the next surface, and are totally reflected again; finally, they emerge nearly perpendicularly to the remaining surface. An eye, as in the figure, then receives the emergent pencil through one part of the pupil, so that an image, *pu*, of the object is seen projected upon a sheet of paper upon the table. The rays from the drawing-pencil passing the edge of the prism, enter the other part of the pupil; and the pencil and image being seen together upon the paper, a sketch of the latter can be taken. There is, however, a practical difficulty—the image and the drawing-pencil are at distances sensibly different from the eye, and so cannot be seen together distinctly at the same time. To obviate this, a plate of metal, with a small aperture



Camera Lucida.

as an eye-hole, is placed at the edge under the eye, so that the rays through the prism, and those from the drawing-pencil, which both pass through the eye-hole, form only very small pencils. By this the difficulty is greatly diminished. It is still, however, difficult to use the instrument satisfactorily; and though many acquire great readiness in its use, others have never been able to attain the same facility. A simpler form is merely a piece of smooth glass fixed at an angle of 45° to the horizon. In this case, however, the image seen on the paper below will be inverted. In Amici's form of the instrument a right-angled triangular prism is used, involving two refractions and one reflection.

Camera Obscura (lit. 'a dark chamber'), an instrument described by Giambattista della Porta in his *Magia Naturalis* (1569). It is known in its simplest form as a familiar toy, consisting of a rectangular box, furnished at one end with a lens whose focal length is equal to the length and depth of the box; at the opposite end of which a plane reflector is placed at an angle of 45° , which throws the image of any objects to which the lens may be directed on a piece of ground-glass on the top of the box in a non-inverted position, so that they may be viewed or sketched from as in nature. The instrument received a new interest when in the hands of Daguerre it became the main instrument used in photography. For the photographic camera, see PHOTOGRAPHY.

Camerarius, JOACHIM—originally *Liebhart*, which name he changed into *Camerarius*, because his forefathers had been *Kammerer* (chamberlains) at the court of the Bishop of Bamberg—was born

at Bamberg, April 12, 1500, and died at Leipzig, after a life devoted to literature, April 17, 1574. His works include an excellent biography of his friend Melanchthon (1566), and a collection of letters by that reformer (1569); also annotations on Cicero's *Quæstiones Tusculanæ* (1525), *Commentarii Linguae Græcæ et Latinæ* (1551), and *Epistolæ Familiæres* (3 vols. 1583-95), giving interesting notices of his times.—His son, JOACHIM CAMERARIUS (1534-98), was one of the most learned physicians and botanists of his age.—RUDOLF JAKOB CAMERARIUS (1665-1721) was also a physician and botanist.

Camerino (ancient *Camerinum*), a town of Central Italy, on a spur of the Apennines, 41 miles SW. of Ancona. It has a cathedral occupying the site of a temple to Jupiter, a university (1727), and some manufactures of silk. Its bishopric, dating from the 3d century, was made archiepiscopal in 1787. Pop. 4342.

Camerlengo (Ital., 'chamberlain'), the cardinal with the control of the papal treasury, who, in the days of the temporal power, administered justice, and during an interim stood at the head of the government.

Cameron, JOHN, a famous scholar and divine, was born at Glasgow about 1579, and educated at the university of that city. In 1600 he went to the Continent, where his ability and erudition secured for him several appointments at Bergerac, Sedan, Saumur, and other seats of learning. Returning to Britain in 1620, he was two years later appointed principal of the university of Glasgow; but in less than a year he returned to Saumur, and thence to Montauban, where he received a divinity professorship. Here, as at Glasgow, his doctrine of passive obedience made him many enemies, by one of whom he was stabbed in the street; and he died from the effects of the wound in 1625. Sir Thomas Urquhart styles him a 'walking library,' and Milton, 'an ingenious writer in high esteem.' He was considered one of the best scholars of his day; in biblical criticism he was inclined to be perverse; where there was a difficulty he usually chose the opposite view to that held by other divines, especially Beza. His theological opinions were of a somewhat lax character, his eight works, in Latin and French (10 vols. 1616-42), being said to be the foundation of Moses Amyraut's doctrine of universal grace (1634). His followers are sometimes called Cameronites.

Cameron, RICHARD, a Scottish Covenanter, was born in Falkland, in Fife, where he presently became precentor and schoolmaster under an Episcopal incumbent. 'Converted by the field-preachers,' he next is said to have been tutor in the household of a Sir Walter Scott of Harden (of whom genealogists know absolutely nothing), and then to have been licensed to preach by the 'celebrated John Welsh' (that worthy's grandson, possibly). In 1678 he really did go to Holland, and returned in 1680 in time to take a prominent part in publishing the Sanguhar Declaration (q.v.). Retiring then, with some sixty armed comrades, to the hills between Nithsdale and Ayrshire, he succeeded in evading capture for a month, though a price of 5000 merks was set on his head by government. On the 20th July 1680, however, they were surprised by a body of dragoons in Airds Moss, near Auchinleck, and after a brave fight, Cameron was killed. His hands and head were cut off, and fixed upon the Netherbow Port, Edinburgh.

Cameron, VERNEY LOVETT, African explorer, was born at Radipole, near Weymouth, 1st July 1844. He entered the navy in 1857, and served in the Mediterranean, the West Indies, and the Red

Sea, and on the east coast of Africa, taking part in the Abyssinian expedition, and in the suppression of the slave-trade. In 1872 he was appointed to the command of an east-coast expedition to relieve Livingstone, and starting from Bagamoyo in March 1873 in August at Unyamwehe he met Livingstone's followers bearing his remains to the coast. After making arrangements for their safe arrival, he proceeded to Ujiji, where he found some of Livingstone's papers and a map, which he forwarded to Zanzibar. He then made a survey of Lake Tanganyika, which he found to be disconnected with the Nile system. In the belief that the Luababa was the upper waters of the Congo, he resolved to follow its course to the west coast; but owing to the hostile interposition of the native chiefs, was prevented from verifying a conviction, the correctness of which was demonstrated by Stanley in 1877. Taking a more southerly route, he reached the Portuguese settlement of Benguela, on the west coast, 7th November 1875, whence he returned to England. Created a C.B., and raised to the naval rank of commander, in 1878 he travelled overland to India, to satisfy himself of the feasibility of a Constantinople-Bagdad railway; and in 1882, with Sir Richard Burton, he visited the Gold Coast. Among his works are *Across Africa* (1877), *Our Future Highway to India* (1880), and several boys' books.

Cameronian Regiment, since 1881 Cameronians (Scottish Rifles), long the 26th infantry Regiment, had its origin in a body of Cameronians (1689). Taking advantage of their zeal and courage, the Convention which sat at Edinburgh induced a number of them to assist in the Revolution, which it was imagined by some was to re-establish the reign of the Covenant. They were induced to enlist on the understanding that the special object of the corps was 'to recover and establish the work of Reformation in Scotland, in opposition to popery, prelacy, and arbitrary power, in all the branches and steps thereof, till the government in church and state be brought to that lustre and integrity which it had in the best of times.' This was formed the celebrated Cameronian Regiment, with the youthful Lord Angus as colonel, and for lieutenant-colonel and actual commander, William Cleland, the poet, by whom, ten years before, Drumclog had been mainly won. Under him, not yet in his 30th year, the regiment was sent northwards to quell the insurrection, after the fall of Claverhouse at Killiecrankie. Surrounded by 5000 Highlanders, the Cameronians, only 1200 strong, gallantly defended themselves during a whole day in Dunkeld, 21st August 1689. Cleland fell early in the fight, but his work was accomplished, for, in Macaulay's words, 'the Cameronians had finished the war.' The regiment has ever done credit to its origin, being distinguished alike for gallantry and for good conduct.—The Cameron Highlanders, long known as the 79th Foot, are of course a distinct regiment.

Cameronians, the religious body in Scotland popularly named after Richard Cameron (q.v.), but officially called Reformed Presbyterians. No doubt the principles of the body are those for which Cameron contended and died. In 1681 societies were organised bearing the names of the districts to which they belonged, such as Teviotdale, Nithsdale, Clydesdale, for the purpose of defence against the oppression of the government, and for the maintenance of worship. They published in 1687, as their first testimony, 'The Informatory Vindication,' declaring their adherence to the principles and position of the Church of Scotland during the period between 1638 and 1649. In this document they expressly state, 'we positively disown, as

horrid murder, the killing of any because of a different persuasion or opinion from us, albeit some have cast this odious calumny against us.' Not till after 1688 did the small body of Presbyterians, who insisted upon this restoration of the civil and ecclesiastical polity of 1638 to 1649 in opposition to the Revolution settlement, become a separate church. According to the Solemn League and Covenant, ratified by the parliaments of England and Scotland, and also by the Assembly of Divines at Westminster in 1643, Presbyterianism was to be maintained in the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and popery, prelacy (expressly defined as 'church government by a variety of orders'), superstition, heresy, schism, &c., were to be extirpated, and the royal authority upheld 'in the preservation and defence of the true religion, and the liberties of the kingdom.' In the judgment of these Presbyterians the Covenant was a protest against absolutism, with this peculiarity that it was emitted in a form adapting it to ecclesiastical as well as civil purposes. As a measure of pacification Presbyterianism was established in Scotland by act of parliament (1690); but it was of a modified kind, the state reserving for itself a control over the church incompatible, in the opinion of the Cameronians, with its spiritual independence; while prelacy was confirmed in England and Ireland, and there was a general toleration of heresy. Therefore, in sentiment, if not in form, the extreme party repudiated the government of William III. and his successors, and maintained the perpetually binding obligation of the Covenant. Unquestionably these Cameronians acted under strong convictions, and only desired to carry out to a legitimate issue theoretical principles of the Church of Scotland which, for prudential considerations, have been practically in abeyance; and it is in the standards of this body that we find a true embodiment of the tenets held by the great body of English and Scotch Presbyterians of 1643.

Although thus an elder sister of the existing Church of Scotland and all its secessions, it was with some difficulty that, after the Revolution, it organised a communion with ordained ministers. The steadfastness of members was put to a severe trial by the defection of their ministers; but in 1706, after their faith and patience had been tried for sixteen years, they were joined by the Rev. John McMillan from the Established Church, and shortly afterwards by the Rev. John McNeil, a licentiate of the same church. To confirm the faith of members, and give a public testimony of their principles, the covenants were solemnly renewed on Auchensauk Hill, near Douglas, in Lanarkshire, in 1712. The subsequent accession of the Rev. Mr Nairn enabled the Cameronians to constitute a presbytery at Braehead, in the parish of Carnwath, on the 1st August 1743, under the appellation of the Reformed Presbytery. Other preachers afterwards attached themselves to the sect, which continued to flourish obscurely in the west of Scotland and north of Ireland, and in 1774 a presbytery was constituted in North America. The political position of the Cameronians was very peculiar, since, declining to recognise any laws or institutions which they conceived to be inimical to those of the kingdom of Christ, they refused to take the oath of allegiance. For this cause many of them formerly, though peaceable subjects otherwise and zealous for the interests of their native land, refused several of the responsibilities and privileges of citizens. In 1800 there was an attempt on the part of some of the kirk-sessions to prevent the members exercising the franchise, or becoming volunteers, on account of the oath of allegiance which required to be taken. On the question coming before the synod, inquiry was made as to

the meaning of the oath, and in the judgment of the majority it was ascertained that the oath was taken, and the franchise exercised, by Christian men of all other denominations in a sense which did not commit them to an approval of evils in the constitution to which they objected. It was decided accordingly, in 1863, to abstain from the exercise of discipline to the extent of suspension and expulsion on such questions. In consequence of this decision, to which forty-two congregations adhered, ten or twelve congregations seceded. In 1876 the larger body of the Reformed Presbyterians formally united with the Free Church, believing it to be in the full enjoyment of the spiritual independence which the Revolution settlement had failed to secure for the Church of Scotland, and recognising no difference between them in their civil relations. The principles of the Cameronians are now, therefore, distinctively represented by the few congregations which seceded in 1863. See the *Testimony of the Reformed Presbyterian Church* (1842).

Cameroon, a German colony on the west coast of Africa, extending along 9° 8' E. long. from the Cross River to the mouth of the Rio del Rey, and from thence south to a point slightly below 3° N. lat.; the limits in the interior, which is almost unexplored, have not been fixed. The name is derived from the Cameroon River (Port. *camarda*, 'a shrimp'), which enters the Bight of Biafra opposite Fernando Po by an estuary over 20 miles wide; the stream is for a considerable distance nearly a mile broad, has at some seasons a current of 5 miles an hour, and its yellow waters may be traced far out at sea. The low mangrove swamps that clothe its banks render the climate very trying to Europeans, and traders generally live in hulks, and only store their goods on shore. The natives belong to the Bantu (q.v.) group, the Duallas living nearest the coast; their kings, Bell and Akway, practically wholesale merchants, by their refusal to permit the natives of the interior to trade directly with the Europeans, nearly brought about a war in 1884. As England declined to assume the protectorate, the Germans were appealed to, and on the 14th July 1884 the German flag was hoisted at Cameroon; a governor was appointed, and the whole district taken over, except the small English Baptist station of Victoria, on Ambas Bay, founded in 1858. The country is very fertile; ebony, red-wood, and palm-trees clothing the Cameroon, which also has long been noted as an 'oil river,' and for its cotton and ivory; while many tropical fruits grow wild, and others are cultivated by the wives and slaves who, with his canoes, constitute the wealth of a native. Northwest of the estuary lie the Cameroon Mountains, a volcanic group, which attain a height of 13,746 feet in the peak Mongo ma Lobah ('mount of the gods'). These volcanoes are not extinct, but there has been no eruption within the memory of man, and the highest points are often covered with snow. The highest summit was first attained by Burton and Mann in 1862. See Burton, *Abokuta and the Cameroons Mountains* (1863); Reichenow, *Die Deutsche Kolonie Kamerun* (Berlin, 1884); and Schwarz, *Kamerunreise* (Leip. 1886).

Camillus, MARCUS FURIUS, a celebrated Roman patrician who first makes his appearance as censor (consular tribune, says Livy) in 403 B.C. He finished the war against Veii, taking the town in 396, after a siege of ten years; and in 394 he besieged the Falerii, who, after bravely defending themselves, were led by his magnanimous restoration of their children to yield unconditionally. Condemned nominally on a charge of misappropriating the booty, but really because of

his patrician haughtiness, he banished himself from Rome (391), and lived in retirement at Ardea, until Brennus (q.v.) had captured and destroyed the whole of Rome except the Capitol. Recalled and appointed dictator, he raised an army, and appearing, according to the legend, just at the moment when the garrison were about to purchase the departure of the Gauls, defeated and drove them from the town. It was due to his strenuous resistance that the proposal of the plebeians to remove to Veii was defeated, and the city rebuilt. He afterwards obtained new victories over the Æqui, the Volsci, and the Etrusci; and in 367 B.C., when war broke out with the Gauls, he, though eighty years old, accepted the dictatorship for the fifth time, defeated the barbarians near Alba, and made peace between patricians and plebeians. After all allowances for a considerable admixture of poetic fiction in the accounts that have come down to us, Camillus still stands out as one of the most prominent and worthy names in the history of Rome. He died of the plague, 365 B.C., lamented by the whole Roman people.

Camisards, the insurgent Huguenots of the Cévennes, so called from the *camise* or blouse worn by the peasants. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV. in 1685 fired their zeal, which the employment of 'Dragonnades' (q.v.) to enforce the doctrines of the monks despatched as missionaries to the heretical district fanned to fanaticism; prophets and seers arose, who roused the people to a religious frenzy in which death was courted and torture was despised. At first their rage was directed against the tax-collectors, several of whom were murdered and their houses razed; but after an armed rising as early as 1689, a wider movement was brought on in 1702 by the cruelty of the Abbé du Chaila, who tracked out the retreats of the persecuted people, surprised them at worship, and hung some and imprisoned others. His murder gave the signal for a general insurrection; the Camisards' ranks swelled to thousands, and their mountain retreats enabled them to hold the royal forces at bay, while Louis' difficulties were increased by the commencement of the War of the Spanish Succession, and by the encouragement afforded to the insurgents by his enemies. Several detachments of soldiers had already been beaten back or cut off when in 1703 Marshal Montrevel was sent into the district at the head of 60,000 men. This man, once a Huguenot, now fiercely persecuted his former co-religionists; large numbers were shot down or executed, and 436 villages were destroyed. The Camisards retaliated with equal ferocity; in the diocese of Nîmes alone 84 priests were strangled, and some 200 churches burned down. The skill of their principal leader, Jean Cavalier (q.v.), his plan to pass into Dauphiné and unite with the Duke of Savoy, and the undoubted spread of the revolt, caused great anxiety; moreover, the burghers of Nîmes, Montpellier, Orange, &c., were in sympathy with the people and supplied them with all necessities, and even cast the bells of the burned churches into cannon for them. In April 1704 Montrevel was superseded by Marshal Villars, who followed a wiser course; he promised a free pardon to all who might surrender, and released all prisoners who were willing to swear allegiance, while he had every person taken in arms shot on the spot, and broke up his army into flying columns, which scoured the country on all sides. One band after another submitted; on the 10th May Cavalier accepted the amnesty; and by the end of 1704 the zealots who persevered in the war had all been taken and shot. The severity of the Duke of Berwick, however, who succeeded Villars in 1705, occasioned a fresh outbreak; but this was put down in April of that year, the contest ter-

minating in an entire desolation of the province, and the destruction or banishment of a great portion of the inhabitants. Many of these followed Cavalier into the service of the British in Spain, where most of them found a grave at Almanza, 25th April 1707. See Mrs Bray's *Revolt of the Protestants of the Cévennes* (1870).

Camlet, originally a fabric made of camel's hair, is now as a rule made from the hair of the Angora goat (q.v.), or even, in Britain, of wool, or of wool mixed with silk, cotton, or linen.

Camoens (*Camões*), LUIS DE, the greatest poet of Portugal, was born at Lisbon in 1524. In 1537 Camoens was entered at the lately-reformed university at Coimbra as one of the 'honourable poor students.' As by the reforms of John III. the new methods and studies of the revival of learning had been introduced into that university, Camoens had here the opportunity, not only of studying Latin and Greek in the new spirit, but was brought into contact with the best thought of his time. A few years later this would have been impossible, as the university fell completely under the dominion of the Jesuits. It was the wish of his friends that Camoens should enter the church, but this he resolutely declined to do. While he was still a student he wrote his *Amphitrides*, which was acted before the authorities of the university. He returned to Lisbon probably in 1542. He now fell in love with Donna Caterina Ataíde, who filled such a large place in his thoughts till her death, long afterwards, near the close of his stay in the East. The lady returned his affection, but her father prohibited their union; and the poet had to content himself with passionate protestations in his *Rimas*—short poems after the model of the Italians. For reasons not ascertained Camoens was banished from Lisbon for a year, at the close of which he joined a Portuguese force at Ceuta, and served there for two years, losing his right eye by a chance splinter. In 1550 he again returned to Lisbon, where for the next three years he seems to have led a somewhat discreditable life. On the occasion of a procession on the festival of Corpus Christi, one of Camoens' friends having become involved in a quarrel with one of the king's equerries, Camoens interfered and wounded the equerry. Having been thrown into prison, he was released only on his volunteering to proceed to India. Accordingly, in 1553 Camoens sailed for that country, and reached Goa that year. While here he engaged in two military expeditions, by way it would seem of escaping from Goa, whose society was but little to his mind. His bold denunciations of the Portuguese officials in that town at length led to his banishment to Macao in 1556. This exile was, however, an honourable one, as he held a lucrative post, from which, in two years, he realised a considerable fortune. During his stay in Macao he may have written the first six books of his chief poem, *The Lusads*. Returning to Goa in 1558, Camoens was shipwrecked and lost everything except his poem. Arrived at Goa, he was shortly afterwards thrown into prison through the machinations of his former enemies; but at length, after an exile of sixteen years, Camoens returned to Portugal as poor as he had left it. The remainder of his life he spent at Lisbon in poverty and obscurity. In 1572 he published *The Lusads*, with a dedication to King Sebastian. It had an immediate and brilliant success, but did little for the fortunes of its author, who died in a public hospital, 10th June 1580.

Few poets have had a career so chequered and full of adventure as Camoens. From the very outset misfortune attended him, and though to a certain extent his misadventures were due to his

own indiscretions, these indiscretions were the faults of a bold, earnest, and upright nature. In India his ill-fortune was largely due to his outspoken scorn for the unscrupulous conduct of his countrymen. His contempt for the arts of the courtier accounts for his neglect at home. But if he was neglected in his lifetime, his countrymen have made him ample amends since his death. They have indeed insisted on assigning a rank to *The Lusads* (*Os Lusitados*, 'the Lusitanians') which other nations have not recognised as its due. There is, however, good reason why the Portuguese should value it so highly. In this poem Camoens did for the Portuguese language what Chaucer did for English and Dante for Italian, and made himself, moreover, the interpreter of the deepest feelings and aspirations of the Portuguese nation. It has been called 'The Epos of Commerce,' and the Portuguese regard it as their national epic. The radical faults of the poem are its inartistic construction, and its puerile use of the classical mythology; and as in translation the felicity of the language and the smoothness of the rhythm by which the original is specially distinguished are in large measure lost, these faults have told greatly against its popularity with foreign readers.

Of Camoens' 352 sonnets, 70 have been well translated by Aubertin (1881); and there is a complete version by Sir R. Burton (2 vols. 1885). We have no fewer than six English renderings of *The Lusads*—by Sir R. Fanshawe (1655), Mickle (1771-75; 6th ed. 1877), Musgrave (1826), Quillinan (books i.-v. 1853), Sir L. Mitchell (1854), Aubertin (2 vols. 1878), and Sir R. Burton (2 vols. 1881). For the countless editions, see the *Bibliographia Camoniensis* of Braga (Lisbon, 1880) and Vasconcellos (Oporto, 1880); also Sir R. Burton's *Camoens: his Life and his Lusads; a Commentary* (2 vols. 1882).

Camomile, or CHAMOMILE (*Anthemis*), a genus of Compositæ. The species are annual and



Camomile (*Anthemis nobilis*).

perennial herbs, all pale-arctic. The most important species of the genus is *A. nobilis*, which has long been known for the medicinal virtues of an infusion of its flowers (*Flores Anthemidis*) as a bitter stomachic and tonic. These properties seem mainly due to an essential oil which is prepared by distillation; a bitter principle is also present, but no alkaloid. The plant is chiefly cultivated at Mitcham in Surrey, and at Kieritzsch and elsewhere in Saxony. Its flowers differ from the wild forms in being all more or less double, but those in which the conversion of tubular into ligulate florets has been less complete, leaving a somewhat yellow centre, are called by druggists *single camomiles*. The largest, whitest, and most completely double flowers are most esteemed. The other British species are mere weeds; one of them, called Stink-

ing Camomile (*A. Cotula*), is so acrid as to blister the fingers. But the flowers of the Dyer's Camomile (*A. tinctoria*), common on the Continent, yield a beautiful dye.

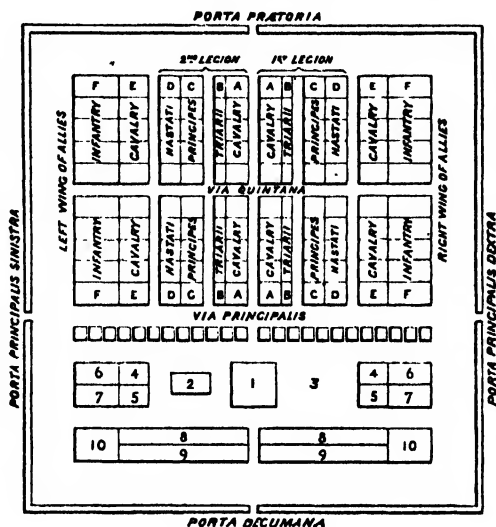
Wild Camomile (*Matricaria Chamomilla*) is the common camomile of German writers. It has long been employed as an adulterant or substitute for the other, and (illicitly) in brewing; its flower-heads are, however, easily distinguished, being quite single and not bitter; the receptacle is also hollow and devoid of the bracteoles which largely characterise the true camomile. A cultivated variety of *M. Parthenium* (*Feverfew*, q.v.) has also to be distinguished. The camomile of the Indian bazaars is said to be a variety (*M. Suaveolens*) of the former species.

Camorra, the name of a secret society in the former kingdom of Naples, the members of which were called *Camorristi*, and which for many years plundered and terrorised the country, undertaking also the transport of smuggled goods, and contracting for the commission of serious crimes. It had a central rendezvous in every large provincial town, and twelve such in the city of Naples; and for each of these sections there was a chief, with powers of absolute command, and a treasurer with charge of the common fund. Their wide and secret organisation enabled them to extend their system of extortion to all trades and classes; they even imposed a regular tax on all articles of food entering Naples. Candidates for membership swore upon an iron crucifix a fearful oath of fidelity and secrecy; and only after periods of pupilage and probation did they receive the two knives of peculiar form, by which the *Camorristi* recognised one another. Under King Ferdinand II. the Camorra was tolerated for political reasons. The government of Francis II. endeavoured to put down the society, and the police received instructions to seize and transport all known members of it. Those who remained entered into alliance with the Garibaldian committee, and rendered essential service in the expulsion of the Bourbons. An attempt was now made to employ them in the police service, but completely failed; and the society, by its promotion of brigandage, for some years after gave great trouble to the new government, over 200 members being banished so lately as 1874.—See Monnier, *La Camorra, Notizie Storiche* (Florence, 1863), and Umita, *Camorra et Mafia* (Neuchâtel, 1878).

Camp (Lat. *castra*; the English name *camp* being from *campus*, 'a plain'). The arrangement of a ROMAN CAMP was according to a fixed and regular plan, and an army never halted for a single night without throwing up such an intrenchment capable of containing the whole of the troops and their baggage. Of course such a camp for the night was much slighter in construction than the *castra stativa*, or stationary camp, which was to shelter an army for some time. The most complete account of the Roman camp is furnished to us by Polybius, the companion in many campaigns of the younger Scipio. The camp, as described by Polybius, was intended to accommodate an ordinary consular army, consisting of two legions, each containing 4200 foot and 300 horse, together with the usual complement of *socii*, or allies—in all, 16,800 foot and 1800 horse. Its general form was square, each side 2017 Roman feet in length (the Roman foot being 11·65 English inches), the whole surrounded by a ditch (*fossa*), the earth dug out being thrown inwards, so as to form an embankment (*agger*), on the top of which was a palisade (*vallum*) of the wooden stakes (*valli*, *sudes*) which were carried by each soldier.

The whole camp was divided into two unequal

divisions by a straight road, the principal thoroughfare of the camp, called the *Via Principalis*, 100 feet in breadth, running parallel with the front and rear of the camp. At each extremity of this road was a gate; these were respectively the *Porta Principalis Dextra*, and the *Porta Principalis Sinistra*.



In front of the enemy was the *Porta Praetoria*, and opposite it the *Porta Decumana*. These were the four outlets of the camp.

The upper portion of the camp, separated from the lower by the *Via Principalis*, contained about one-third of the space occupied by the lower portion. In its centre stood the *Praetorium* (1), or general's tent, in the middle of an open square extending 100 feet on each side of it, its sides each 200 feet long, extending parallel with the sides of the camp. To the left of the *Praetorium* was the *Questorium* (2), the quarters of the quaestor; to the right, the *Forum* (3), the public market of the camp. Immediately before the *Praetorium* ranged the tents of the twelve *Tribuni* and the *Praefecti Sociorum*, or generals who commanded the allies. In the spaces marked 4, 5, 6, and 7 on either side of the *Praetorium*, were the general's staff, including probably the *Legati*, together with the *Praetoria Cohors*, consisting chiefly of picked men selected from the *Extraordinarii*; the former two being cavalry, the latter two infantry. In 8 were the remainder of the *Extraordinarii Equites*, facing towards the *Via Principalis*; in 9 the remainder of the *Extraordinarii Pedites*, facing towards the agger or rampart. The spaces marked 10 were reserved for occasional auxiliaries.

The centre of the lower portion of the camp was occupied by the two Roman legions which constituted an ordinary consular army, consisting of the infantry and cavalry of both legionaries and allies. It was divided into two equal parts by the *Via Quintana*, a road, 50 feet wide, which ran parallel to the *Via Principalis*, while the whole of the interior was surrounded by an open space, 200 feet wide, between the rampart and the tents, which allowed the troops ample freedom for movement. The tents were pitched in the twelve oblong compartments sketched in the plan, six above and six below the *Via Quintana*, and separated from each other by roads 50 feet wide. Each of these compartments was 500 feet long, and was divided into ten rectangular spaces, the proportional size of which is exactly represented in the plan. In the

spaces marked A, each containing 10,000 square feet, were the *Equites* of the Legion, each of the ten spaces being occupied by one *turma* of thirty men and horses. In B, each containing 5000 square feet, were the *Triarii* of the Legion, each of the ten spaces being occupied by a *manipulus* of sixty men. In C, each of 10,000 square feet, were the *Principes* of the Legion, each of the ten spaces being occupied by two *manipuli* of sixty men. The spaces marked D, each of 10,000 square feet, contained the *Hastati* of the Legion, each of the ten spaces occupied by two *manipuli* of sixty men. In E again, each containing 13,300 square feet, were the *Equites Sociorum*, each of the ten spaces occupied by forty men and horses; while in the spaces F, each 20,000 square feet in extent, were the *Pedites Sociorum*, each of the ten spaces accommodating 240 men.

The tents all faced the *Via* which formed their boundaries. Before each gate was posted a strong body of *velites*, called *custodes*, to prevent a surprise of the enemy, while pickets of cavalry and infantry, called *stationes*, were thrown forward in advance in each of the four directions to give timely warning of the approach of an enemy. Finally, sentinels (*excubiae*) kept guard along the ramparts. The night, reckoned from sunset to sunrise, was divided into four equal spaces called *vigiliae*. The watchword (*signum*) for each night was inscribed on small tablets of wood (*teserae*), which were passed along the whole lines, and returned to the tribunes again.

The different parts of the camp were so distinctly marked out and measured off beforehand, that the men on their arrival at once proceeded to their respective stations, as if they had entered a well-known city, and were marching to their accustomed quarters. After the Roman legions came to be divided into *cohorts* instead of *maniples*, the plan of the camp necessarily became somewhat altered, but its general plan and main features as to interior arrangement remained the same. In comparing the encampments of the Romans with those of his own countrymen, Polybius tells us that the Greeks trusted mainly to a judicious selection of their ground, and regarded the natural advantages which they thus secured as supplying in a great measure the place of artificial means of defence. The Greeks, consequently, had no regular form of camp, and no fixed places were assigned to the different divisions of the army. When the practice of drawing up the army according to cohorts, introduced by Marius and Caesar, was adopted, the internal arrangements of the camp experienced a corresponding change. Later, even the square form was abandoned, and the camp was made to suit the nature of the ground. It was always held to be of importance, however, that the camp should occupy a defensible position, that it could not be overlooked, and that it had a command of water.

When stationary camps (*castra stativa*) came into more general use, we hear of several parts which are not mentioned by Polybius, for example, the infirmary (*valetudinarium*), the farriery (*veterinarium*), the forge (*fabrica*), &c.; and as a great variety of troops then came to be employed, they must, of course, have had new stations appointed to them in the camp. Standing camps were divided into *castra aestiva*, a permanent summer camp, and *castra hiberna*, a permanent winter camp. Many of the stationary camps ultimately grew into towns—an origin seen in the names of such English towns as Colchester, Winchester, Manchester, and Chester itself. Amongst the most perfect in Britain of those which retained the form of the simple encampment, is that at Ardoch (q.v.) in Perthshire, in the grass-covered mounds and ridges of which

most of the divisions of the camp have been distinctly traced by antiquaries.

MODERN CAMPS.—The principles of castrametation, or camp-formation, underwent much change after the invention of gunpowder. Camps are now collections of tents or huts in which soldiers are lodged during a campaign or field manoeuvres. The immense size of European armies makes it impossible to carry tents for the troops, and they are almost always accommodated in Cantonments (q.v.) or Bivouacs (q.v.). The Italians alone retain the 'tente d'abri,' which, weighing only 11 lb., can be carried in portions by the three men who sleep in it. But in hot climates, and when, as in most British expeditions, the force engaged is comparatively small, they are placed 'under canvas,' forming what are called *flying camps* if occupied for one or two nights only, and *standing camps* if stationary for a longer period. At Aldershot (q.v.), Shorncliffe, Colchester, and the Carragh of Kildare, large *camps of exercise* have been established; and small instructional camps are formed for a few days every summer in the various military districts, to train the regulars, militia, and volunteers in the duties of camp life and field operations.

The full space required by a battalion of British infantry at war strength for a standing camp may be taken as 190 yards of front and 280 of depth; for one night 64 yards by 200 would suffice. In the centre of the front are the quarter-guard tents; then comes the parade ground, 80 yards deep; then the men's tents in 8 rows (1 per company), perpendicular to the front, each bell-tent taking 12 to 15 men, and each square Indian tent 22 to 25; in rear of the company tents are the field kitchens, then the officers' tents, then the baggage-wagons and horses, and last of all, the tents of the rear-guard.

The space required by a cavalry regiment is 186 yards of front and 255 of depth, or 68 by 180 for one night only. The tents are arranged in a manner similar to those of an infantry camp. The horses are fastened to picket ropes laid down between them.

Field artillery usually park their guns and wagons in front of their horse lines, and pitch the tents round the latter. The full space for one battery has a front of 100 yards and depth of 189—the minimum dimensions being 60 and 150 yards respectively.

Field-hospital, engineer, ordnance store, commissariat, and transport camps are similar to those for field artillery, and each unit requires about the same space as one battery. White flags with red Geneva cross by day, and a red lamp by night, indicate the tents of a field-hospital; a blue flag with white centre, or a green lamp, the commissariat and transport camp; and a blue flag with red centre, or yellow lamp, the ordnance store department. Twenty-five yards' interval is left between corps.

The site of a camp should have a plentiful supply of good water and wood for fuel, the ground firm turf, with sand or gravel subsoil, good natural drainage, easy communications throughout, and access to good roads in front and rear. Tactical considerations, if within two days' march of the enemy, are paramount, and must decide the position of the camp. Thus, a large force intending to fight a battle, in a chosen position, would be encamped or bivouacked in rear, but near enough to occupy it before the enemy's advanced artillery could come within range. Infantry would be encamped in front and on the flanks of cavalry and artillery, which take longer to turn out, and should therefore have this protection. The safety of such a camp would be insured by a strong line of outposts some three miles in front of the fighting

position, and probably by an advanced cavalry screen 10 or 20 miles farther towards the enemy. It follows that the system of surrounding camps or bivouacs by defensive works is no longer necessary nor possible when armies of perhaps 250,000 men are in question. But if a small force is holding a point on the lines of communication or operating against savages, some obstacle is essential to check a sudden onslaught of overpowering numbers upon front, flank, and rear.

When, as on the march, time does not admit of regular fortification, some sort of protection must be improvised. This was done in the Soudan campaigns by utilising the baggage and by surrounding the camp with a 'zareba,' or impenetrable inclosure of thorn bushes cut down for that purpose. In Zululand also, the Boer method of forming a 'laager' round the camp by interlocking the baggage-wagons was adopted, after the disaster of Isandhlwana had demonstrated the necessity of some protection against the enveloping attack of the Zulu army.

The cantonments of a besieging army are strengthened against sorties by entrenchments, and *entrenched camps* have now superseded other forms of permanent Fortification (q.v.). Such a camp consists of a girdle of detached forts surrounding the *enceinte* at a distance of several miles, so that the area thus inclosed is a protected position from which a field army can operate. Paris, Portsmouth, and Metz are modern instances; the perimeter of the first being some 90 miles.

Campagna, a town of Italy, 13 miles E. of Salerno, with a cathedral, and some trade in wine, oil, fruit, and wood. Pop. 6896.

Campagna di Roma, an undulating, mostly uncultivated and unhealthy plain of Italy surrounding Rome, including the greatest part of ancient Latium, with a length (supposing the name to apply to the district extending from Cape Linaro, south of Civita Vecchia, to Terracina, beyond the Pontine Marshes) of about 90 miles, and an extreme breadth inland, to the Alban and Sabine hills, of 40 miles. A broad strip of sandy plain skirts the Mediterranean, with a thick fringe of pines. The ground is almost entirely volcanic, the lakes being formed by craters of extinct volcanoes, and the broad Tiber winds across the plain between banks of tufa, of which the Seven Hills of Rome are composed. The vapours rising from this district produce the pestilential atmosphere styled *Aria Cattiva*. The number of inhabitants is very small, and in summer they are driven away by its pestilent air. In autumn herdsmen descend from the Apennines with their herds, the pasturage in some parts of the plain being rich and abundant; and skins, wool, and cheese, together with wine, are exported in some quantity. This district was not always as we now find it; though it was never regarded as healthy, Domitian and Hadrian built here their splendid villas; and in the early years of the Republic such towns as Veii and Fidene stood here, as well as a number of small places that survived till medieval times. It was swept by Goths, Vandals, and Langobards from the 5th to the 8th century, afterwards by Normans and Saracens, and stripped of its remaining wealth by rival barons; the removal of the pope to Avignon completed its desolation, which successive inundations of the Tiber, always more frequent as the inland forests were destroyed, have only intensified, and which later efforts in the way of drainage, canalisation, and timber-planting have done little to remove. Pius VI. especially endeavoured to drain the Pontine Marshes, and, during their dominion in Italy, the French effected some improvements. Garibaldi also during his later years interested himself greatly in the matter, and

of late some steps have been taken to check the overflow and stagnation of the waters of the Tiber, whilst the eucalyptus plant has been extensively grown with a view to prevent malaria; but only a tenth of the district is as yet under any cultivation, and only ruinous taverns and the huts of shepherds and vine-dressers break the solitudes that stretch for miles round Rome.

Campan, JEANNE LOUISE HENRIETTE, born in Paris, October 6, 1752, from 1770 till 1792 was Marie Antoinette's confidant, and during the Reign of Terror withdrew to the valley of Chevreuse, beyond Versailles. After the fall of Robespierre she opened a boarding-school at St Germain-en-Laye; and in 1806 she was appointed by Napoleon head of the Institution at Ecouen for the education of the daughters of the officers of the Legion of Honour. At the Restoration this institution was suppressed, and Madame Campan retired to Mantes, where she died, May 16, 1822. She is chiefly remembered on account of her interesting works—*Mémoires sur la Vie Privée de la Reine Marie Antoinette* (1823), *Journal Anecdote* (1824), and *Correspondance Inédite avec la Reine Hortense* (2 vols. 1835).

Campanella, TOMMASO (properly *Giovann Domenico*), was born 5th September 1568, at Stilo in Calabria, and studied at Naples and Cosenza. He became a Dominican monk in his fifteenth year. The writings of Telesius first awakened his doubts respecting the 'scholastic philosophy.' The results of his first studies were given in his *Philosophia Sensibus Demonstrata*, &c. (Naples, 1591), which contained a defence of Telesius. His superiority in disputations exposed him to the hatred and false accusations of the orthodox monks and schoolmen. He was in consequence compelled to flee from Naples to Rome, and thence to Florence, Venice, Padua, and Bologna. He returned to Calabria in 1599, but being suspected of having involved himself in a political conspiracy, he was seized and confined in a Neapolitan dungeon for twenty-seven years; tried five times, and tortured seven; accused of heresy; and declared the author of a book which had been published thirty years before he was born. In 1626 Pope Urban VIII. had him brought to the prison of the Inquisition at Rome, and three years afterwards gave him his liberty and a yearly pension. After being again persecuted by the Spanish government, Campanella went to Paris, where he was graciously received by Louis XIII. and Richelieu. He died in the Dominican monastery of St Honoré, near Paris, 21st May 1639. More than 40 works on various subjects (several of which are lost) were written by Campanella during his imprisonment. His philosophical views were characteristic of the transition from the 16th to the 17th century. In his theory of perception, which starts from the external sense ('sensus solum sapere'), he is a forerunner of the empiric and sensualist school; in his doctrine of the inner sense (which is the condition of the outer) he finds his refuge from scepticism; and his conviction that we possess in our consciousness of self an impregnable certainty of our own existence points forward to Descartes and Leibnitz. His aim was to reconcile the theology of Aquinas with the natural philosophy of Telesius by means of his metaphysics; and to prove that all worldly powers should serve the Church, and all secular science be the handmaid of religion. His *De Monarchia Hispanica Discursus* is a work of great power and value, comprising a sketch of the political world of Campanella's time, with special reference to Spain. It was translated into English during Cromwell's Protectorate. Of his other works the most noteworthy are *Astrologi-corum, Libri VII.* (1617); *De Sensu Rerum et Magia*

(1620); *Philosophia Epilogistica Realis* (1623); *Universalis Philosophia, Partes III.* (1638); *Philosophia Rationalis et Realis, Partes V.* (1638); and *Civitas Solis* (1623), an imitation of Plato's *Republic*. A new edition of his complete works was published at Turin in 1854; and his Life has been written by Baldacchini (1847), Berti (1878), and Amabile (3 vols. 1882). His poems and sonnets, first published by his German disciple, Tobias Adami, in 1622, had been lost sight of, until, after a long search, they were rediscovered by J. G. Orelli, and by him republished in 1834. The *Sonnets* were translated into rhymed English by J. A. Symonds in 1878.

Campanha, a town in the Brazilian province of Minas Gerais, 150 miles NW. of Rio de Janeiro, surrounded by bare hills, much cut up by gold mines, but with large herds of cattle on the lowlands. Pop. 6000.

Campania, anciently a province on the west coast of Italy, having Capua as its capital (now subdivided into the provinces of Benevento, Naples, Salerno, Avellino, and Caserta), lying between Latium, Samnium, and Lucania. It was one of the most productive plains in the world, yielding in extraordinary abundance corn, wine, and oil; and by both Greek and Roman writers is celebrated for its soft and genial climate, its landscapes, and its harbours. It was the *regio felix* of the Romans, who built here many of their most splendid villas, and made Baia, with its hot springs, the centre of their fashionable world. The promontory Misenum, Mount Vesuvius, the river Volturnus, the towns Baia, Cumæ, Liternum, Puteoli, Naples, Herculaneum, Pompeii, Nola, Salernum, Capua, &c., belonged to Campania. In very early times the Greeks founded Cumæ, from which Puteoli, Naples, and other places were colonised. The district was next conquered by the Etruscans, by whom Capua, Nola, and other towns, were founded, but who succumbed to the more warlike and hardy Samnites, who, in their turn, yielded to the irresistible valour of Rome. Through all these vicissitudes of conquest the substratum of the people remained as at the beginning. The mass of the Campanians were essentially of Oscan (q.v.) race, and Oscan they remained. Indeed it is mainly from them that our knowledge of the Oscan language is derived, and one of their towns, Atella, introduced to the early Roman stage a species of popular drama or comedy. See ATELLANÆ.

Campanile (Ital. from low. Lat. *campana*, 'a bell'), a name adopted from the Italian to signify a bell-tower of the larger kind, and usually applied only to such as are detached from the church. Scarcely any of the existing bell-towers of England answer to the Italian conception of the campanile; and the beautiful 'campanile' at Salisbury, demolished by Wyatt in 1790, was really a multangular belfry, surmounted by a leaden spire. In Italy campaniles are found everywhere—at Rome, Bologna, Padua, Ravenna, Cremona, Venice. Perhaps the most remarkable are the so-called 'leaning tower' of Pisa and the campanile of Florence. The former, which is circular in form, is decorated with columns and arcades to the summit of its eight stories (see ROMANESQUE ARCHITECTURE). But though less curious, the famous campanile of Giotto at Florence is perhaps even more worthy of the traveller's attention. It was erected in 1334-37, with the express object of surpassing, both in height and in richness of workmanship, any of the remains of antiquity. In form it is a parallelepiped, and is of the same dimensions from bottom to top. Though it is very lofty—275 feet—it consists of only four stories, of which the

tallest are the uppermost and undermost. The style is Italian Gothic, and the walls are entirely veneered with marble. The original design of Giotto was that a spire of 90 feet in height should have surmounted the present structure, and on the summit may be seen the four great piers from which it was intended that it should have risen. The splendid campanile of Florence, in its present condition, must thus be regarded only as a fragment. There is a fine campanile at Seville, 275 feet in height, the lower part of which (185 feet) was built as a minaret by Abu Yusuf Yakub in 1196, whilst the upper was added in 1568. It is called La Giralda ('the weather-cock'), from a bronze figure of Faith, which, though it weighs a ton and a quarter, turns with the wind. The campanile attached to the palace of the Scaligeri at Verona is very graceful, and characteristic of the Italian principles of



Campanile, Palace of the Scaligeri, Verona.

tower-building. The origin of the campanile as an adjunct to Christian structures is unknown. It cannot originally have been used for bells, as in early times only hand-bells of very small size were in use. Most probably, like the round towers of Ireland, the campaniles were constructed as places of security and observation. The earliest examples, such as those at Ravenna, are lofty and round. In later times the campanile was found useful for the great bells of the churches and cities, when they became objects of importance, and received elaborate decoration. They continued to be erected in all the styles of architecture practised in Italy up to recent times. Numerous Renaissance examples are thus found in Venice and elsewhere, that of St Mark's being a well-known and prominent feature in the city.

Campanology. See BELL.

Campanula (Lat., 'a little bell'), a genus of Campanulaceae (q.v.), commonly known as Bell-flowers or Bells. The species number about 200, chiefly palearctic, but found as alpine plants in warmer and southern regions. The flowers are generally beautiful, and many are cultivated. The common wild *C. rotundifolia* is, however, more familiar than any other species, both on account of its commonness and simple beauty, and as the

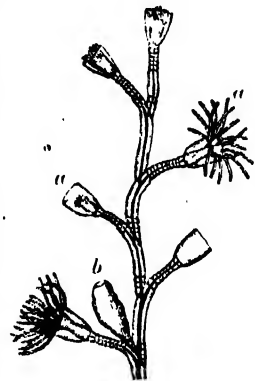
Harebell (q.v.) of English poetry and Bluebell of Scottish song. *C. Trachelium*, the nettle-leaved campanula, and *C. glomerata* are not uncommon, both wild and in cultivation; but the biennial species, so familiar in gardens as Canterbury Bells, is *C. medium*, a native of Central Europe, which has yielded many florists' varieties, presenting great diversity of colour, size, and doubleness. As annuals and perennials for the herbaceous border and rock-garden many other species and varieties are esteemed; while *C. rapunculus* (Rampion or Ramps) was formerly more cultivated than at present on account of its esculent root, the leaves being also used in salads.



Canterbury Bell.

Campanulaceae, an order of corollifloral dicotyledons, herbs or rarely shrubs, with bitter milky juice; acrid and often poisonous; diuretic. The young shoots and roots of some species are, however, occasionally eaten, as is also the half-fleshy fruit of *Canarina campanula*, in the Canaries. While the Campanulaceae proper, or Bells, with regular bell-like corolla and free anthers, are chiefly palearctic, the more modified sub-order of Lobeliaceae, with irregular corolla and coherent anthers, is chiefly tropical or subtropical. See CAMPANULA, LOBELIA.

Campanularia, a common genus of Hydroids (q.v.), and type of a family, Campanulariidae. The delicate stem bearing the colony of polyps may be simple or branched; the nutritive individuals are surrounded by transparent bell-shaped sheaths, within which they may be retracted. The mouthless, tentacle-less, reproductive individuals bud off sexual ones, which do not, however, go free as they so often do in allied genera. The group of generative buds produced by the reproductive person is inclosed within a special sac-shaped sheath, and the whole thing is called a sporosac. In allied genera, though not in Campanularia, the sexual buds go off as swimming-bells, and from their generative products and embryos the fixed asexual plant-like 'zoophyte' is again formed. The genus is common in north European seas and in the Mediterranean. Allied genera are Campanularia, Clytia, Hincksia, Laomedea (with sporosacs), and Eucope, and Obelia (with free swimming-bells). See HYDROIDS;



Campanularia:

a, nutritive individuals; b, reproductive individuals or sporosac.

Johnston's *British Zoophytes*; Allman's Ray Society Monograph on Hydromedusæ.

Campbell, an ancient and illustrious Scottish family, to which genealogists have chosen to assign an Anglo-Norman origin, deriving its surname from the Latin *De Campo Bello*. According, however, to the Duke of Argyll, it is purely Celtic, of Scots-Irish origin; and *Cambel*, as the name was always formerly written, is just the Celtic *cum beul*, 'curved month.' Sir Duncan Campbell of Lochow, created Lord Campbell in 1445, and his descendants, the ducal house of Argyll (q.v.), have been noticed already. From his younger son, Sir Colin Campbell of Glenorchy (c. 1400-78), are descended the earls and marquises of Breadalbane (creations 1681 and 1831-85); and from the younger son of the second Earl of Argyll, who fell at Flodden in 1513, the earls of Cadow (created 1827).

Campbell, ALEXANDER, founder of the sect known as the 'Disciples of Christ,' or more commonly the 'Campbellites,' was born near Ballymena, in County Antrim, in 1788, but emigrated to the United States in 1807. He early adopted the opinions of his father in protesting against all human creeds, and asserting that the sole authority in religious things was the Bible alone. Though at first a Presbyterian, in 1812 he formed a connection with the Baptists, and for some time he laboured as an itinerant preacher principally in Western Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Ohio. In 1826 he published a translation of the New Testament, in which the words 'baptism' and 'baptist' gave place to *immersion* and *immersed*. Some loosely defined expressions in his writings have been interpreted as implying a belief in baptismal regeneration, a doctrine which the Disciples repudiate. By his discussions on public platforms, and his serial publications, the *Christian and Baptist* and the *Milennial Harbinger*, as well as by his assiduity in preaching tours and in training young men for the ministry, Campbell gradually formed a large party of followers, who began about 1827 to form themselves into a sect under the designation of 'The Disciples of Christ,' which in 1881 had, in the United States, as many as 5100 churches and 591,821 members. In 1841 Campbell founded Bethany College in West Virginia, and here he died, 4th March 1866. His writings were numerous. See his Life by Richardson (1868).

Campbell, SIR COLIN, LORD CLYDE, one of the bravest soldiers and most distinguished generals of modern times, was born in Glasgow, 20th October 1792. His father was a carpenter, named MacIver, but Colin assumed the name of Campbell from his mother's brother, Colonel John Campbell, who in 1802 put him to school at Gosport. He was gazetted an ensign in 1808, and by 1813 had fought his way up to a captaincy, serving on the Walcheren expedition (1809), when he contracted a life-long ague, and through all the Peninsular war, where he was severely wounded at the siege of San Sebastian and the passage of the Bidassoa. He took part in the expedition to the United States (1814), and then passed nearly thirty years in garrison duty at Gibraltar, Barbadoes, Demerara, and various places in England, in 1837 becoming lieutenant-colonel of the 98th foot. For the brief Chinese campaign of 1842 he was made a C.B., and for his brilliant services in the second Sikh war (1848-49) a K.C.B., thereafter commanding for three years at Peshawur against the frontier tribes. On the outbreak of the Crimean war in 1854 he was appointed to the command of the Highland Brigade; the victory of the Alma was mainly his; and his, too, the splendid repulse of the Russians by the 'thin red line' in the battle of Balaklava. He was rewarded with a K.G.C.B.,

with a sword of honour from his native city, and with several foreign orders, and in 1856 was appointed Inspector-general of Infantry. When on 11th July 1857 the news reached England of the sepoy Mutiny, Lord Palmerston offered him the command of the forces in India, he started next day for Calcutta. He reached it in August; on 17th November, with 4700 men, effected the final relief of Lucknow; and on 20th December 1858, having five months earlier been created Lord Clyde, announced to the viceroy that the rebellion was ended. Returning next year to England, he was made a field-marshal, and received a pension of £2000. He died 14th August 1863, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. See his Life by Lieutenant-general Shadwell (2 vols. 1881).

Campbell, GEORGE, divine, was born in 1719 at Aberdeen, and educated there at the grammar-school and Marischal College. Abandoning law for divinity, he was in 1748 ordained minister of Banchory Ternan, a parish 17 miles SW. of Aberdeen; in 1757 was called to that city, and in 1759 was appointed Principal of Marischal College. His first book was his famous *Dissertation on Miracles* (1762), in answer to Hume, a work which in its own day was greatly admired, and characterised as 'one of the most acute and convincing treatises that has ever appeared on the subject.' It was speedily translated into French, Dutch, and German. In 1771 Campbell was elected professor of Divinity in Marischal College. In 1776 he published his *Philosophy of Rhetoric*, in 1789 a *Translation of the Gospels*. He died 6th April 1796; and in 1800 appeared his *Lectures on Ecclesiastical History*, with a memoir by G. S. Keith prefixed.

Campbell, JOHN, BARON, of Stratheden, and Lord Chancellor of England, was born 15th September 1779 at Cupar-Fife, the third child of the parish minister. He was destined for the ministry, and passed in 1790 from Cupar grammar-school to St Andrews University, which he left in the spring of 1798 to become tutor to the son of a West India merchant in London. Having determined to follow the legal profession, Campbell joined Lincoln's Inn (1800), read for several years in the chambers of the famous Mr Tidd, during which period he also acted as reporter and dramatic critic to the *Morning Chronicle*, and was called to the bar in 1806. His abilities and perseverance, his readiness to assist professional brethren, and the publication of the first volume of his elaborate *ni prius* 'Reports' (1808), brought him into favourable notice even on the home circuit; and by the end of 1824 he became leader of the Oxford circuit, which he had joined in 1810. In 1821 he married the eldest daughter of Mr Scarlett, afterwards Lord Abinger, who was made Baroness Stratheden in her own right in 1836, and by whom he had two sons and four daughters. His subsequent promotion was rapid. He became king's counsel in 1827, and chairman of the Commission on the Registration of Deeds (1828); and he sat upon the Real Property Commission in 1830. In 1832 he was made Solicitor-general, knighted, and returned to parliament for Dudley. Upon his promotion to the Attorney-generalship in 1834 Campbell was defeated at Dudley, but was returned three months later for Edinburgh. In 1841 he became Lord Campbell of Stratheden, and was raised to the Lord-chancellorship of Ireland, an office which he soon resigned, on the defeat of the Melbourne ministry, honourably declining the pension to which he was legally entitled. Lord Campbell was made Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster in 1846, Chief-justice of the Queen's Bench in 1850, and Lord Chancellor of England in 1859. He died on the night of 22d June 1861.

In politics Campbell was a consistent Whig. He boasted that the vote, which at some personal inconvenience he had returned from circuit to the House of Lords to give, had carried the second reading of the Reform Bill in 1832. As an advocate, Campbell was sound and industrious rather than brilliant; he was a courteous and eminently painstaking judge. As Chief-justice of the Queen's Bench he presided over the trial of Dr Newman for libel (1855), and the prosecution of William Palmer for poisoning (1856). As Lord Chancellor he delivered judgment in the *cause célèbre* of the Emperor of Austria v. Kossuth. Among the statutes introduced by Campbell's influence may be mentioned one limiting liability in actions of defamation (6 and 7 Vict. chap. 96); a second, which he borrowed *without acknowledgment* from Lord Lyttelton, enabling the representatives of persons killed by accident to recover compensation in certain cases (9 and 10 Vict. chap. 93); and a third, against obscene publications (20 and 21 Vict. chap. 87).

It is in his capacity of legal biographer that Campbell's reputation has suffered most severely. His *Lives of the Chief-justices* (1849-57) and of the Lord Chancellors (1845-47), though readable and amusing, are disfigured by childish vanity, by the constant obtrusion of himself and his own achievements, and—at least in the later volumes—by wanton misrepresentation and inaccuracy. Repeating Arlathnott's witty saying on Curll's biographies, Sir Charles Wetherell declared that 'his noble and biographical friend had added a new terror to death.' See the *Life* by his daughter, the Hon. Mrs Harcastle (1881); *Foss's Judges*, ix. 155-167; Sugden's *Misrepresentations in Campbell's Lives*.

Campbell, JOHN FRANCIS, of Islay, a great folklorist, was born December 29, 1822. Educated at Eton and the university of Edinburgh, he held offices at court, and was afterwards secretary to the lighthouse and coal commissions. He travelled much, and died at Cannes, 17th February 1885. An enthusiastic Highlander and profound Gaelic scholar, as well as a man of singularly lovable nature, Iain Og Ile ('Young John of Islay') preserved all the affectionate loyalty of the islanders of Islay, although he had lost the estates of his fathers. An obelisk was raised to his memory in the June of 1887 on the summit of Cnoc-na-Dùb, a hill in Islay, near his birthplace. Campbell's great work is his *Popular Tales of the West Highlands* (4 vols. Edin. 1860-62), one of the most important contributions ever made by any scholar to the scientific study of folk-tales, or *storiology*, to use his own word. Only those who have themselves made experiment in collecting folk-tales can appreciate the marvellous combination of devoted patience and quick intelligence, with profound sympathy and insight into primitive habits of thought, that went to the making of such a book. Had he lived longer he might have given folklorists further volumes out of the ample store of materials he left behind him. His *Leabhair na Feinne*, a series of Gaelic texts, he began to issue in 1872. Campbell gave much attention also to scientific studies, fruits of which were his *Frost and Fire, Natural Engines, Toolmarks and Chips* (1865), *Thermography* (1883), and the invention of the sunshine-recorder for indicating the varying intensity of the sun's rays. His *Circular Notes* (1876) consisted of letters written home during a tour round the world.

Campbell, JOHN M'LEOD, a great Scottish theologian, born at Kilninver in Argyll, in 1800. Sent to Glasgow University at eleven, he was licensed to preach by the presbytery of Lorne in

1821, and was ordained minister of Row, near Helensburgh, in 1825. His views on the personal assurance of salvation, and on the universality of the atonement, soon brought upon him a charge of heresy, which led, after the process usual in the Scotch church, to his deposition by the General Assembly in 1831. Campbell bore this heavy trial with the most saintly charity and patience, refusing either to form a new sect or to attach himself to that of his devoted friend Edward Irving. For two years he laboured in the Highlands as an evangelist, and for six and twenty years, from 1833, preached quietly without remuneration to a regular congregation that gathered round him in Glasgow. When his health broke down he advised his people to attach themselves to the church of Norman Macleod. He spent the remainder of his life in retirement and in communion with such friends as Maurice, Erskine of Linlathen, Norman Macleod, and Bishop Ewing. In 1868 his university gave him the degree of D.D., and in 1871 a testimonial and address was presented to him by men of nearly every religious denomination in Scotland. From 1870 he lived at Roseneath, and here he died, 27th February 1872. The Church of Scotland dealt herself a deadly blow when she ejected from her ministry one of the most saintly and spiritual-minded of her sons, but her action made leisure for the writing of three of the most valuable of modern English theological books: *Christ the Bread of Life* (1851), *The Nature of the Atonement* (1856), and *Thoughts on Revelation* (1862). M'Leod Campbell was a profound and original religious thinker, and his writings show a rare union of candour, clearness, boldness, and depth, with a piety of singular sweetness and simplicity. The central thought of his theology is the fatherliness of God; and his vivid realisation of the present and abiding truth of this warmed his faith to a glow of sympathetic enthusiasm to which his writing owed all its charm and no little of its persuading power. Another favourite theme—the self-evidencing character of revelation—is demonstrated with quiet but incisive and masterly reasoning. See the article ATONEMENT; and consult the *Memorials* by his son (2 vols. 1877), and Canon Vaughan's paper in the *Contemporary Review* for June 1878.

Campbell, THOMAS, poet, was born in Glasgow, 27th July 1777, the youngest of the eleven children of an unfortunate merchant. From the grammar-school of his native city he passed in 1791 to the university, where he remained off and on till 1796, winning several prizes, and being specially distinguished for his knowledge of Greek literature. In 1795 he went as a tutor to the island of Mull. The scenery of the West Highlands made a deep impression on his mind, and to his abode in those grand and desolate regions his verses owed much of their finest touches of sublimity. In 1797 he repaired to Edinburgh, intending to study law; but he could not shake off his recollections. In his eyes the mists were folded on the hills of Morven, the roar of Corrievekin was in his ears, and instead of poring over musty law-books, he wrote *The Pleasures of Hope*. It was published in 1799, and ran through four editions in a twelvemonth. During a ten-months' tour on the Continent (1800-1) Campbell visited the battlefield of Hohenlinden, at Hamburg fell in with the prototype of his *Exile of Erin*, and sailed past the batteries of Copenhagen. In 1803 he married and settled in London, having refused the offer of a chair at Wilna, and resolved to adopt a literary career. He contributed articles to *The Edinburgh Review*, and compiled *The Annals of Great Britain from George II. to the Peace of Amiens*. In 1806, through Fox's influence, he received a pension of £200 per annum from government. In

1809 appeared *Gertrude of Wyoming*, which bears the same relation to *The Pleasures of Hope* that *The Castle of Indolence* bears to *The Seasons*—a less brilliant and striking, but more mature and finished performance. In 1818 Campbell was again in Germany, and on his return he published his *Specimens of the British Poets*. In 1820 he delivered a course of lectures on poetry at the Surrey Institution; and from this date to 1830 he edited *The New Monthly Magazine*, contributing thereto several poems, one of which, *The Last Man*, is in some respects the loftiest of all his performances. In 1827 he was elected Lord Rector of the university of Glasgow, and received the unusual honour of re-election the two following years. His later publications did not add to his fame. He died at Boulogne, 15th June 1844, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, a Polish nobleman scattering dust on his coffin from the grave of Kosciuszko.

Campbell is an established English classic. With the young *The Pleasures of Hope* should ever be a favourite; while readers of maturer years will linger with delight over the silvan scenery and tender domestic scenes of *Gertrude*. It is in his lyrics, however, that Campbell has soared highest into the heaven of song—*Hohenlinden*, *Ye Mariners of England*, and *The Battle of the Baltic*, cannot be matched in the language. Than these lyrics nothing can be more simple, more spirited. Once read, they cannot be forgotten. They will fan the patriotism of many generations. See his *Life and Letters* by W. Beattie (1840), and Cyrus Redding's *Literary Reminiscences of Campbell* (1860).

Campbell Island, a lonely island to the south of New Zealand, in 52° 34' S. lat., and 169° 12' E. long. Though it rises to a height of 1498 feet, and is only 85 sq. m. in area, it is yet valuable on account of its harbours. It is also scientifically interesting, being volcanic, and displaying a rich and rare flora. Discovered in 1810, it served as an observatory during the Transit of Venus in 1874.

Campbeltown, a royal burgh and seaport of Argyllshire, on the E. coast of the peninsula of Kintyre, 83 miles SW. of Glasgow by water. It curves round the head of a sea-loch (2½ × ¾ mile), which is sheltered by Davarr Island (300 feet high), and forms a magnificent harbour. A sculptured granite cross, supposed to have been brought from Oronsay or Iona, and to date from the 12th century, stands in the main street. The place is an important fishing centre, and has upwards of twenty whisky distilleries. It unites with the Ayr burghs to return one member to parliament. Dr Norman Macleod was a native. Pop. (1841) 6797; (1881) 7693.

Campe, JOACHIM HEINRICH, a German educationist, born near Holzminden in 1746, was tutor for a time to the brothers Humboldt, and minister in Potsdam. After serving with Basedow (q.v.) at the *Philanthropin* in Dessau, he founded an institution of his own, and in 1787 undertook the reorganisation of the school-system in Brunswick, where he also established a large publishing house. He died 22d October 1818. His theoretical works on education were of importance in their time, and his *German Dictionary* (5 vols. 1807–11), though weak in its historical department, is still of value. His books for the young (37 vols. 4th ed. 1832) have been remarkably popular, especially *Robinson der Jüngere* (109th ed. 1884; Eng. trans. 1855). See his *Life* by Leyser (2 vols. Bruns. 1877).

Campeachy (*San Francisco de Campeche*), a seaport on the west side of the peninsula of Yucatan, on a bay of the same name. It has a citadel, university, naval academy, and shipbuilding docks. The haven is safe, but very shallow, and the trade, principally in logwood and wax, has

greatly fallen off; while cigars and palm-leaf hats are almost the only manufactures. Founded in the middle of the 16th century, it was taken, occupied, and burned by buccaneers in 1685. Pop. (1880) 12,600. Campeachy gives name to a state of Mexico.

Campeachy Wood. See LOGWOOD.

Campeggio, LORENZO, CARDINAL, was born in 1472, of a noble Bolognese family. He studied law, and married early, taking holy orders after his wife's death. He was made Bishop of Feltri, and sent by Leo X. on a mission to the Emperor Maximilian, being created a cardinal in his absence (1517). Next year he visited England as papal legate to incite Henry VIII. against the Turks, and was well received. In 1524 he obtained the bishopric of Salisbury and the archbishopric of Bologna, and he presided the same year at the Ratisbon diet; in 1528 he was despatched to England to hear the famous divorce suit of Henry VIII. against Catharine of Aragon. Perplexed betwixt his own private instructions, pity and regard for the unhappy queen, the dubious counsels of Wolsey, and the imperious impatience of the king, and racked the while by the pains of a severe gout, the cardinal ended by displeasing all parties; and his final revoking of the cause to Rome led ultimately to the king's rupture with the papal court. Campeggio died at Rome in 1530.

Camper, PETER, anatomist, born at Leyden 11th May 1722, studied there, and became professor of Medicine in 1750 at Franeker, in 1755 at Amsterdam, and in 1765 at Groningen. In 1773 he resigned his post, and, on being elected a member of the state council in 1787, removed to the Hague, where he died, 7th April 1789. Camper was distinguished not only for the services he rendered to anatomy, surgery, obstetrics, and medical jurisprudence, but also as a promoter of the fine arts. He was remarkably skilful in pen-and-ink drawing, painted in oil, embossed, and even acquired considerable experience as a sculptor. For his observations on the facial angle, see article SKULL. His work on the connection of anatomy with the art of drawing was an important contribution to the theory of art. His collected writings, with plates, appeared at Paris (3 vols. 1803).

Camperdown (Dutch *Camperduin*), a broad tract of low dunes in North Holland, about 25 miles N. of Haarlem, separating the small hamlet of Camp from the German Ocean, is famous for the victory obtained off the coast here by Admiral Duncan (q.v.) over the Dutch fleet under Admiral van Winter, October 11, 1797. Duncan was created Viscount Duncan of Camperdown, his son (in 1831), Earl of Camperdown.

Camp Followers are the sutlers and dealers in smallwares who follow an army. In India, owing to the peculiar habits and customs of the natives, and the large number of servants retained by European troops, the camp followers sometimes number four times the actual force: comprising servants, grooms, grass-cutters, mule and camel drivers, water-carriers, sutlers, snake-charmers, dancers, conjurers, and women. Even in European armies they are necessary; they are at all times under the control of the commanding officer, but only subject to military law when in the field.

Camphausen, WILHELM, a German painter, born 8th February 1818 at Düsseldorf, and from 1859 professor in the art academy there. He was specially famous for battle-pieces—scenes from Cromwell's battles, the Thirty Years' War, the wars of 1866 and 1870—and painted many notable portraits of soldiers and equestrian figures. He died 16th June 1885.

Camphene, or **CAMPHELENE**, is an artificial variety of camphor obtained from turpentine, by acting thereon with the dry vapour of hydrochloric acid, and keeping the whole at a low temperature by immersing the vessel in a freezing mixture. A solid substance is produced, which separates in white crystalline prisms, and has the taste and agreeable aromatic smell of common natural camphor. The name *Camphene* has, however, a wider signification, being applied to the whole class of oils isomeric with turpentine, of which the best known are the oils of bergamot and lemon.

Camphine is the name applied to a variety of spirit of turpentine obtained from the *Pinus australis* of the southern states of America, and formerly used as an illuminant in this country. It is very volatile, burning freely with a pure white brilliant light. Its vapour forms with air a very explosive mixture. Under this name are sometimes sold burning oils in which the illuminating power has been increased by the addition of camphor.

Camphor is a solid essential oil which is found in many plants, and may be separated from many essential oils. It particularly abounds in certain species of Lauraceæ (q.v.). The principal source of the camphor of commerce is the Camphor Laurel (*Cinnamomum* (*Laurus*) *Camphora*), a tree of China, Japan, Formosa, and Cochinchina, and which has been introduced into Java and the West Indies. Camphor is chiefly imported in the crude or unrefined state from Formosa and Japan, where the wood is cut into chips and distilled with water, the vapour of camphor rising with the steam being collected in the head of the still. After collection *camphor oil* drains off, which is used in China for rheumatism. In the refining process the grains of impure camphor are detached, and being introduced, along with a small proportion of quicklime, into a large globular glass vessel in quantities of about 10 lb., are reheated, when first the water rises in steam, and is allowed to escape at a small aperture; and thereafter, this aperture being closed, the camphor sublimes and resolidifies in the interior upper part of the flask as a semi-transparent cake, leaving all the impurities behind. The flasks are then cooled and broken by throwing cold water on them, and the camphor taken out and sent into market. The glass globes employed are called by an Italian name, *bombola*, the sublimation of camphor having been first practised in Venice. Camphor has also of recent years been sent into the market sublimed in almost powdery crystals, as 'flowers of camphor,' a very convenient form for pharmaceutical purposes.—Camphor was unknown to the Greeks and Romans, but has been highly valued since ancient times in the East, and was first brought to Europe by the Arabs. It is a white tough solid, slightly lighter than water, and having the formula $C_{10}H_{16}O$. It is very sparingly soluble in water, but freely soluble in alcohol, ether, acetic acid, and the essential oils. It fuses at 347° (175° C.), and boils at 399° (204° C.), but volatilises somewhat rapidly at ordinary temperatures. When set fire to, it burns with a white smoky flame. Thrown upon water, it floats, and may be set fire to, when the currents generated alike from the gradual solution of the camphor in the water and the irregular burning of the pieces, cause a curious rotatory motion. It has a peculiar hot aromatic taste, and an agreeable characteristic odour.

Camphor is used alike in European and oriental medicine, both internally and externally, as a temporary stimulant. It is frequently employed in gout and rheumatism. In small doses it acts as an anodyne and antispasmodic; in very large doses

it is an irritant poison. It is generally reckoned an anaphrodisiac, although some maintain that it has an opposite action. Its alcoholic solution, and liniments in which it is the principal ingredient, are much used for external application in sprains and bruises, chilblains, chronic rheumatism, and paralysis. The odour of camphor is very noxious to insects, and it is therefore much used for preserving natural history specimens, and its fumes have been from early times regarded as of antiseptic value, an opinion confirmed by recent bacteriologists. Raspail in 1845 laid special stress on the value of camphor.

The Borneo or Sumatra Camphor of commerce, sometimes called Hard Camphor, is the produce of *Dryobalanops aromatica*, a large tree of the order Dipterocarpaceæ. The camphor is obtained by cutting down the tree, and splitting it into small pieces, being found in crystalline masses in natural cavities of the wood. To this substance the Chinese ascribe extraordinary medicinal virtues, so that it is sold among them at sometimes more than fifty times the price of common camphor. Hence, although the form of camphor earliest known, it no longer appears in European commerce. Its composition is $C_{10}H_{16}O$, and it can be converted into common camphor by the action of nitric acid. The same tree also yields a 'camphor oil' isomeric with oil of turpentine, $C_{10}H_{16}$. This is collected by tapping or felling the tree. A third variety, *Ngai*, or *Blumea Camphor*, of intermediate but still high value, is manufactured at Canton from *Blumea balsamifera*, a tall herbaceous composite. Its chemical composition is identical with the last. It is consumed in Chinese medicine, and in perfuming the finer sorts of Indian ink. Similar crystalline bodies separate from the oils of bergamot, neroli, thyme, buchu, sassafras, &c., but are of no special importance.

Campi, a family of artists of some note, at Cremona, in the middle and near the close of the 16th century. GIULIO CAMPI, the oldest brother (1500-72), studied painting, sculpture, and architecture under Giulio Romano, and has left a fine altar-piece at Cremona, full of the Venetian beauty of colouring.—ANTONIO CAMPI was a successful imitator of Correggio, and had some merit as an architect and engraver. He wrote a chronicle of his native place, and died after 1591.—VINCENTO CAMPI (died 1591) excelled in small figures; some of his portraits and paintings of fruits also are highly valued.—BERNARDINO CAMPI (1522-90) was the son of a goldsmith, and possibly a kinsman of the three brothers Campi. * He studied first under Giulio, but soon excelled his master. Although he imitated the works of Titian with such success that it has been difficult to distinguish the copies from the originals, he is not purely Venetian in his style, but borrowed much from both Correggio and Raphael. Many of his works are found in Mantua and Cremona, and are highly valued.

Campinas (SÃO CARLOS DE), a town of Brazil, on a fertile plain, 44 miles N.W. of São Paulo. There are large coffee and sugar plantations in the surrounding district. Pop. 12,000.

Campine, a barren district in the provinces of Antwerp and Limburg in Belgium (q.v.).

Campion is the common name of plants belonging to the generic *Lychnis* and *Silene* (q.v.).

Campion, EDMUND, the first of the English Jesuit martyrs, nicknamed 'the pope's champion,' was born in 1540, the son of a London tradesman, and was brought up at the new Bluecoat school. Being a bright and well-spoken lad, he was in his thirteenth year selected to pronounce an harangue before Mary Tudor on her triumphant entry into London. Later on, at St John's College, Oxford

(1566), he greeted Elizabeth and the Earl of Leicester with a similar display of oratory. The queen complimented him on his eloquent tongue. He became the most popular man at the university, but he still hankered after the old religion, which he had first abandoned by taking the new oath of supremacy, and afterwards more publicly by receiving deacon's orders in the Church of England. In 1569 he left Oxford and betook himself to Ireland to help in re-establishing the Dublin University. But becoming suspected of leanings towards Rome, and fearing arrest, he escaped to Douai, and shortly afterwards joined the Society of Jesus in Bohemia. In 1580 he was recalled from Prague, where he was professor of Rhetoric, to accompany Parsons on the Jesuit mission into England. His career in England was brief but eventful. For twelve months he eluded the pursuivants, while no man in the country was more talked of. The audacity of his controversial manifesto known as *Campion's 'Brag and challenge,'* which was followed by his *Decem Rationes*, or 'Ten Reasons,' printed at a secret press set up in Stonor Park, greatly irritated his opponents. In July 1581 he was caught at Lyford, and sent up to London, tied on horseback, with a paper stuck on his hat inscribed 'Campion, the Seditious Jesuit.' He was tried on a charge of conspiracy of which he was undoubtedly innocent; for it is to his credit that, unlike his brethren Parsons, Holt, and others, he never meddled with political plots. The conferences held by him in the Tower and the proceedings of his trial made a considerable sensation both in England and on the Continent. He was executed with two secular priests on December 1, 1581; and, with other sufferers in the same cause, was beatified by Leo XIII. in 1886. The best and fullest account of *Campion* and of the papal attack upon England under Gregory XIII. will be found in *Edmund Campion: a Biography*, by Richard Simpson (1867).

Camp-meetings are gatherings of devout persons, held usually in thinly-populated districts, and continued for several days at a time, with the view of securing prolonged and uninterrupted religious exercises. Assemblies of a like kind have been more or less usual at various periods in the history of the Christian Church; but it was in connection with Methodism in America that such meetings became especially prominent. The introduction of the protracted camp-meetings into England in 1799 by Lorenzo Dow, led to the separation of the Primitive Methodists from the Wesleys.

Campobasso, a town of South Italy, among the Apennines, 52 miles N. of Benevento by rail. It has several fine churches and important manufactures of cutlery. Pop. 13,504.—The province (formerly *Malise*) is very mountainous, and little of the land is cultivable. The chief industry is sheep-raising. Area, 1764 sq. m.; pop. (1881) 365,434.

Campobello, two towns of Sicily. (1) CAMPOBELLO DI LICATA, 17 miles N. of Licata by rail, with sulphur mines. Pop. 7481.—(2) CAMPOBELLO DI MAZZARO, 32 miles SSE. of Trapani by rail, with famous quarries, which were worked by the Romans. Pop. 6586.

Campo-Formio, a village of Northern Italy, 6 miles SW. of Udine, is celebrated for the treaty of peace here concluded on 17th October 1797 between Austria and the French Republic, whose army, under Bonaparte, after subjugating Italy (1796), had crossed the Noric Alps, and threatened Vienna. Austria ceded the Netherlands, Milan, and Mantua, and received as compensation Istria, Dalmatia, and the left bank of the Adige, with

the capital, Venice; while France took the remaining territory of Venice, its possessions in Albania, and the Ionian Islands.

Campomañes, PEDRO RODRIGUEZ, COUNT OF, Spanish statesman and writer, born in Asturias in 1723, held many posts under Charles III., and in 1789-91 was president of the council of state. He died February 3, 1802. Besides an account of the antiquities of Carthage, he published (1774) the first good Spanish treatise on political economy, and a work on the education of artisans (1775).

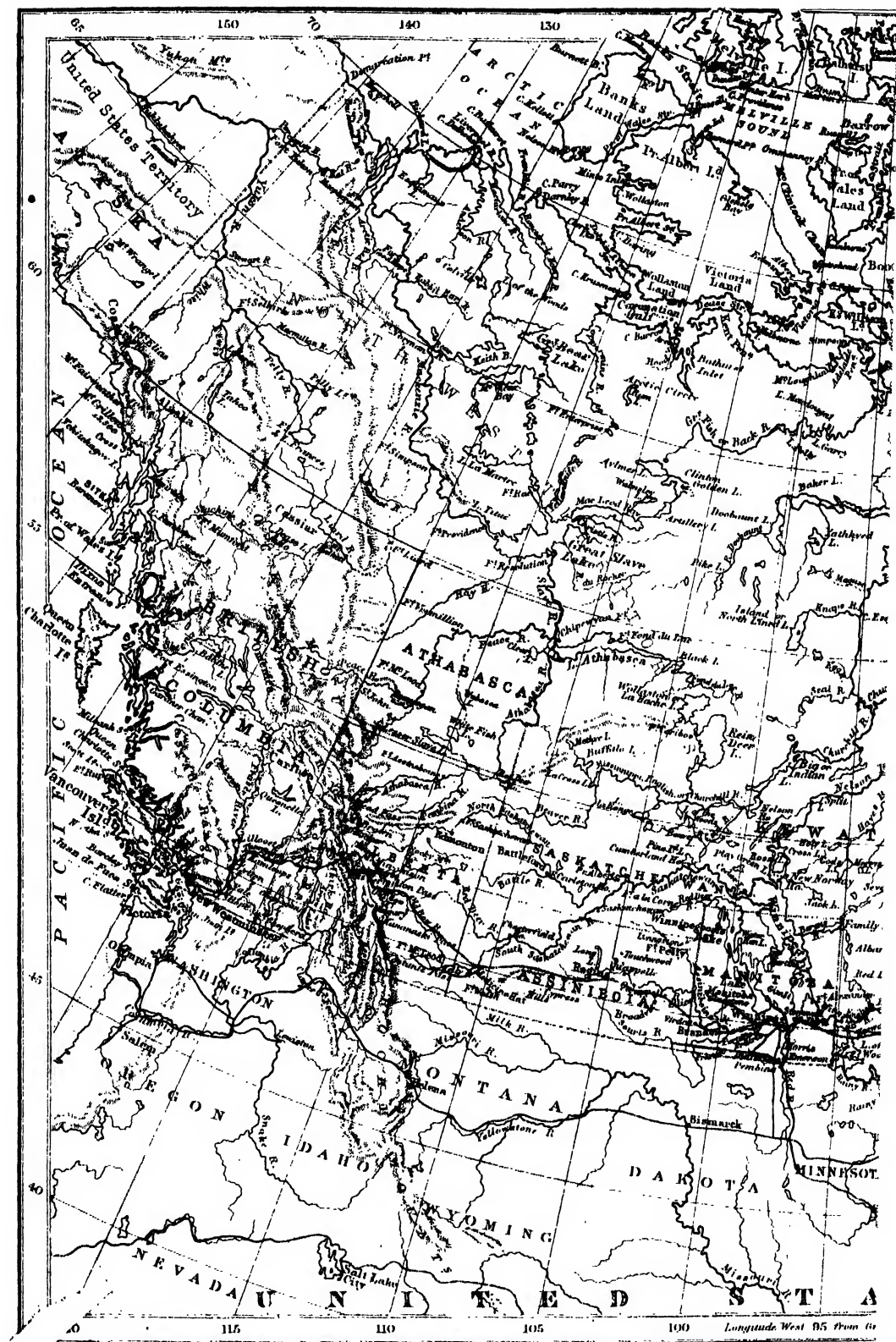
Campos, SÃO SALVADOR DOS, a town in the Brazilian province of Rio de Janeiro, on the Parahyba, which is navigable for small craft to this point, 30 miles from its mouth. It has some imposing buildings, fine wharves, and a trade in coffee, sugar, brandy, and timber; and the enterprise of the people has introduced tramways and the electric light. Pop. 15,000.

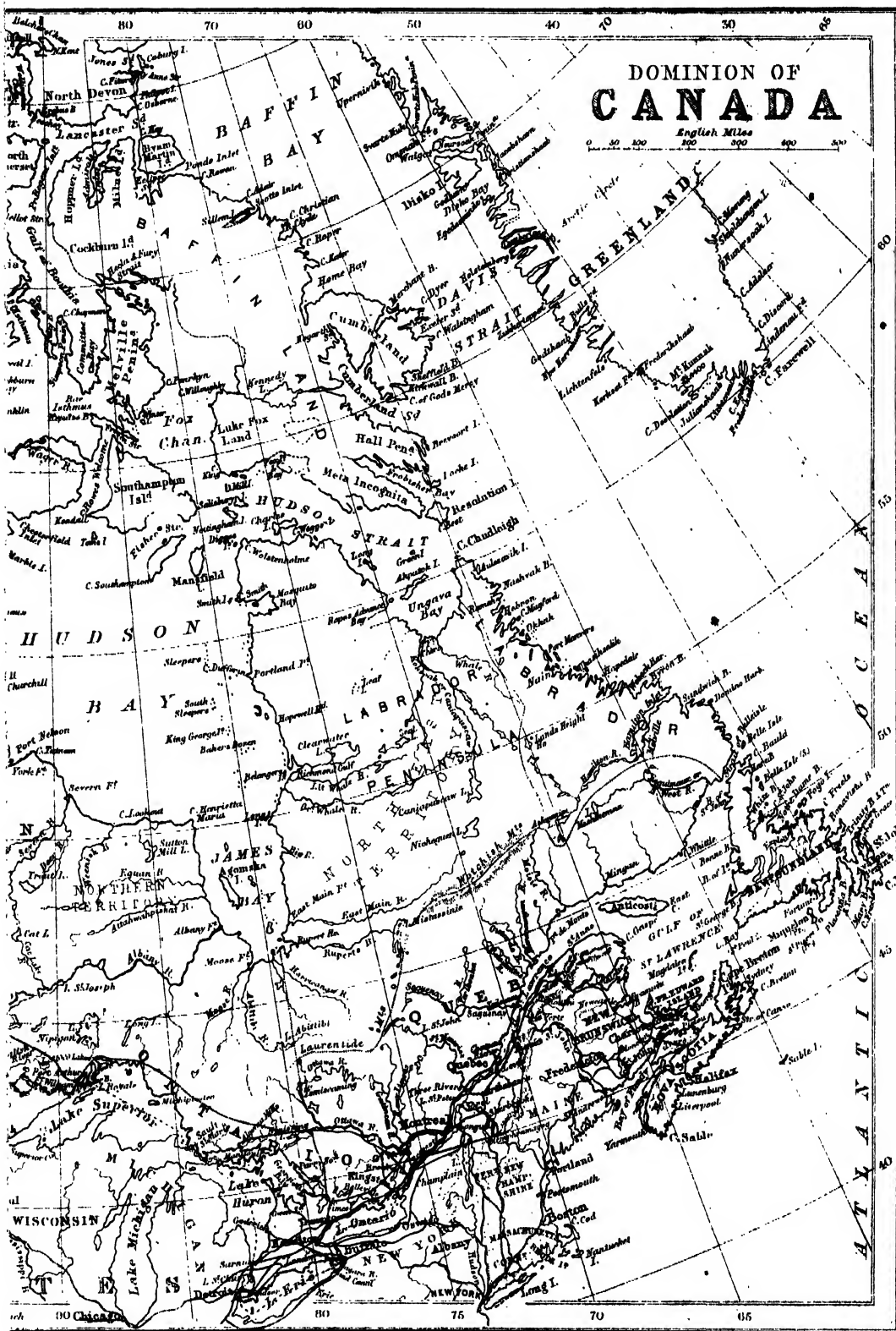
Campo Santo ('holy field') is the Italian and Spanish name for a cemetery or burying-ground, especially for one inclosed by an arcade. See CEMETERY.

Campvere, now called VERE, VEERE, or TER-VEER, and formerly often written CAMPHIRE, a small fortified town on the north-east of the island of Walcheren, in the Netherlands province of Zeeland, with a port on the Veergat, which separates Walcheren from North Beveland. The town has fallen into decay; but its former prosperity is indicated by such large edifices as the town-house and cathedral church. Pop. about 900. In 1304 Campvere was the scene of a battle between William, Governor of Holland, and Guy, Count of Flanders; in 1572 the Spaniards were driven away; and in 1809 the town was bombarded and occupied during the disastrous Walcheren expedition. For three and a half centuries it was the seat of a Scottish factory. Wolfraet van Borselen, Lord of Campvere, having in 1444 married Mary, fifth daughter of James I. of Scotland, a factory of merchants was formed, and by contract between the royal burghs of Scotland and the United Provinces, Campvere became the only staple port, the merchants resorting thither to do business. The factors obtained freedom from several duties, and the right of being governed by the law of Scotland, having a Lord Conservator who was supreme judge in all matters, and a Scots church was maintained here from 1613. No factor might settle at Campvere without the written authority of the commissioners of royal burghs of Scotland, who took security for his honourable behaviour. In 1795 the Batavian Republic withdrew the privileges, and the factory was broken up, but the conservatorship was held as a sinecure long after the necessity for the office had ceased, the name of Sir Alexander Ferrier appearing in the *Edinburgh Almanac* as 'Conservator at Campvere' so lately as 1847.

Camuccini, VINCENTO, painter, was born at Rome in 1775. The school of which he became the head was founded on the theatrical antique style of the French painter David. His most important works are ancient Roman or scriptural subjects; his 'Incredulity of Thomas' was copied in mosaic for St Peter's. He died at Rome, September 2, 1844.

Camus, ARMAND GASTON, French revolutionist, was born at Paris in 1740. A zealous and ascetic Jansenist, and a master of ecclesiastical law, he was elected Advocate-general of the French clergy, and in 1789 member of the States-general by the people of Paris. He now appeared as the resolute foe of the ancient régime, gained possession of and published the so-called *Red Book*, with its details of expenditure so disadvantageous to the court and its





J. Bartholomew, Edin.

ministers. After the flight of Louis XVI., Camus, with Montmorin, Lafayette, and Bailly, accused the king of treason and conspiracy, and insisted on the suppression of all orders and corporations based on hereditary rights. As conservator of the national archives, he rendered an important service by preserving from destruction the old documents of the abolished corporations and institutions. He was absent in Belgium during the king's trial, but sent his vote for death. Early in 1793, while on his mission to make a prisoner of Dumouriez, Camus himself and his four colleagues were seized and delivered over to the Austrians; but, after an imprisonment of two and a half years, he was exchanged for the daughter of Louis XVI. On his return to Paris he was made member, and afterwards president, of the Council of Five Hundred, but resigned in May 1797, and devoted his time to literature. True to his principles, he voted against Napoleon's proposed life-consulship. He died of apoplexy, November 2, 1804.

Camwood, a dyewood obtained from *Baphia nitida*, a leguminous tree (sub order *Casalpiniceæ*), a native of Angola. It is at first white, but turns red on exposure to air. It produces a finer and richer red than Brazil-wood (q.v.), and is very permanent. *Barwood*, very similar in its properties, but yielding a duller colour, is said to be produced by the same tree.

Kana, OF GALILEE, the scene of our Lord's first miracle, and the birthplace of Nathanael, was situated in the neighbourhood of Capernaum, to the W. of the Sea of Galilee. Two modern villages claim to represent the sacred site, and good authorities are divided as to the identification. The one village, now called Kefr Kenna, is 4½ miles NW. of Nazareth; the other, Kana el Jelil, is 9 miles N. of Nazareth. Robinson supports the claim of the latter. Stanley holds the claims to be about equally well made out. Conder suggests the spring of Ain Kana, still nearer Nazareth, as a probable site.

Canaan ('low-land') was the name originally applied to the low coast-land of Palestine on the Mediterranean, inhabited by the Canaanites (strictly so called), as opposed to the mountain-land (cf. Numbers, xiii. 29); and in this original sense the name is still applied in Isa. xliii. 11, to the Phœnician, and in Zeph. ii. 5, to the Philistine coast-land. Just as with the name Palestine (= Philistia) at a later period, the name Canaan became extended to the whole country, yet only to the part west of the Jordan, the part east of Jordan being contrasted with it as the 'Land of Gilead.' The people and their progenitor (Gen. ix. 18 *et seq.*) were named after their dwelling-place, the Hebrew use of the verb *kana* (*nikhna* = 'to be bowed, sunken, subdued') readily lending itself to a reference to the conquest of the Canaanites. See PALESTINE.

Canaanites, in the Old Testament, a name very frequently used to include all the heathen inhabitants of the country between the Jordan and the Mediterranean. In the time of the Patriarchs they appear a people in some degree civilised, cultivating their lands and living in towns; and by the time of Joshua their country was thickly peopled, and studded with walled towns, each under its own king. Their religion was a licentious worship of Baal and Ashtoreth, as the productive powers of nature. Their subjugation by Joshua was merely temporary, and it was only by degrees that they were made tributary. The northern tribes of Israel were largely intermixed with the Canaanite element, as is shown many centuries later by the name Galilee ('circle of the heathen'). The tenacity of the Canaanite race is seen from the

fact that the fortress of the Jebusites (Jerusalem) was not conquered till the time of David, and that the remainder of the Canaanites were first reduced to vassalage by Solomon. According to Sayce, 'M. Clermont-Ganneau has shown that the present peasantry of Canaan are the descendants of the ancient Canaanites, partly of Semitic, and partly of non-Semitic blood.' In many passages of the Old Testament the name *Canaanites* has its more restricted sense, signifying one of the peoples of Palestine which dwelt on the low ground on the sea-coast to the north of Carmel—i.e. the Phœnicians. Hence it is that the word 'Canaanite' sometimes in the Prophets is synonymous with 'merchant.' See PHœNICIANS.

Canada. The derivation of the name Canada is obscure, but it is believed to have its origin in an Indian word *kannatha*, meaning a village or collection of huts. The supposition is that Jacques Cartier, hearing the term used by the Indians in connection with their settlements, applied it to the whole of the country. Canada originally comprised the extensive range of territory as far west as the Mississippi, including the great lakes, which was ceded to Great Britain by France in 1763. Subsequently, at the termination of the War of Independence, it was limited to the region now occupied by the provinces of Ontario and Quebec, described prior to 1867 as Upper and Lower Canada respectively. What is known as the Dominion of Canada is a confederation of the colonies of British North America, constituted in 1867 by the British North America Act of that year (30 Vict. chap. 3). Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were the first to unite under the provisions of that statute. The Hudson Bay Territory was acquired from the company of that name, a portion of it formed into the province of Manitoba, the remainder designated the North-west Territories, and both were admitted into the confederation in 1870. Part of the North-west Territories was subsequently divided into districts as follows: In 1876 Keewatin; in 1882 Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabasca. In 1871 British Columbia, and in 1873 Prince Edward Island, became parties to the Union, which now includes the whole of British North America, except Newfoundland.

Geography and Physical Aspect.—Canada is bounded on the N. by the Arctic Ocean, on the W. by the Pacific and Alaska, on the E. by Newfoundland and the Atlantic, and on the S. by the United States. Both the Atlantic and Pacific shores abound in deep indentations forming magnificent harbours and sheltered bays. On the Atlantic the principal bay is the Bay of Fundy, remarkable for its high and rushing tide, the water rising from 12 to 70 feet; there is also the Hudson Bay, connected with the Atlantic by Hudson Straits, really an inland sea with an area of 350,000 sq. m., and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, 80,000 sq. m. in extent. The most striking physical features of Canada are the Rocky Mountains, the Laurentian Range, and the chain of immense fresh-water lakes. Hills of no great height skirt the coasts of Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and Labrador, and the southern bank of the St. Lawrence is fringed by the Nôtre Dame Mountains (also called the Shickshock Mountains), a spur of the Appalachians, the highest parts of which (4000 feet) are in Gaspé. The Laurentian Range extends along the north side of the St. Lawrence, the Ottawa River, and then stretches away to Lake Superior and the north, the length of the range being about 3500 miles. It forms the watershed between Hudson Bay and the St. Lawrence, and varies in height from 1000 to 3000 feet. The eastern portions of Canada are generally well timbered, and the same remark

applies to British Columbia, and to the North-west Territories north of the Saskatchewan. Westward of the Red River, however, between the 49th and 55th parallels of latitude, there is an immense fertile plain, suitable for general agriculture and grazing (the eastern end being about 800 feet, and the western about 3000 feet, above the level of the sea), extending nearly to the Rocky Mountains. This range consists of triple chains with valleys between; the most easterly has the greatest elevation near the 52d parallel, the highest peaks being Mount Brown (16,000), Mount Murchison (15,789), and Mount Hooker (15,700). The average height of the chain is from 7000 to 8000 feet. Canada is well watered, the map presenting a network of lakes and rivers. The system of the St Lawrence alone, with the great lakes Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario (between the last are the celebrated falls of Niagara), drains an area in Canada of 330,000 sq. m. (see *North America* in 'Stanford's Compendium'—United States, by Hayden—Canada, by Selwyn). The area of the lakes is about 90,000 sq. m. —Lake Superior is 630 feet above the sea-level, and Lake Ontario, 234 feet—and with their outlet they form the greatest fresh-water way in the world. Other important lakes are Winnipeg (9000 sq. m.), Winnipegosis (3000), Manitoba (2100), Lake of the Woods (1500), Great Slave (12,000), Great Bear (10,000), and Athabasca (3000).

Next to the St Lawrence, the chief rivers are the Saskatchewan and the Winnipeg, flowing into Lake Winnipeg, and the Nelson, flowing from it into Hudson Bay; the Assiniboine and the Red River, which join their waters to flow into Lake Winnipeg; the Albany and the Churchill, emptying into Hudson Bay; the Athabasca and the Peace rivers, flowing into Lake Athabasca, and the Slave River, from it into Great Slave Lake; the Mackenzie, fed from both the Great Slave and the Great Bear lakes, and emptying into the Arctic Ocean; the Fraser and Thompson, in British Columbia, emptying into the Pacific; and in the Eastern provinces, the Ottawa, chief tributary of the St Lawrence, itself fed by the Gatineau and Matawan; the Saguenay, emptying Lake St John into the St Lawrence; and the St John, which flows into the Bay of Fundy, after a course of 500 miles in New Brunswick, which it partly separates from the State of Maine. The principal islands of the Dominion are: on the east, Cape Breton, Prince Edward and Magdalen islands, and Anticosti, in the Gulf of St Lawrence; and on the west coast, Vancouver Island and Queen Charlotte Islands. Lying along the north, in the great Arctic Archipelago are immense islands, all of which, excepting Greenland, belong to Canada (Imperial Order in Council, 1st September 1880). See AMERICA.

Climate.—The cold in winter and the heat in summer are greater than in Great Britain, but the climate is a healthy one. This is demonstrated by the returns of the military stations, and by the general health and physique of the resident population. As to the seasons, spring commences two or three weeks later than in England, but the conditions for the rapid growth of produce—warm sunshine and a sufficiency of rain—are so favourable that the crops of the two countries are about equally advanced by the middle of July. The spring consists of two months, April and May. Summer includes June, July, August, and September; autumn, October and part of November. On an average, the winter may be said to continue from the middle of November to the end of March, or about four and a half months. Between Manitoba and the North-west and Ontario there is a few days' difference in favour of the latter. The same

may be said of Ontario as compared with Quebec and the maritime provinces. British Columbia probably possesses the finest climate in North America. It has all the advantages of that of England without its disadvantages. The following figures show the extreme temperatures in the principal towns of the different provinces in 1884, the latest official figures available:

	Max.	Min.	Mean.
Toronto (Ont.)	89° 6'	— 13° 3'	44° 08'
Montreal (Que.)	91° 0'	— 23° 5'	41° 47'
Halifax (N.S.)	88° 0'	— 11° 1'	42° 47'
St John (N.B.)	85° 0'	— 19° 5'	40° 40'
Charlottetown (P.E.I.)	81° 8'	— 20° 1'	39° 45'
Winnipeg (Man.)	83° 5'	— 44° 5'	30° 87'
Victoria (B.C.)	86° 0'	8° 0'	46° 97'

The test of the thermometer, however, gives a very exaggerated impression of the severity of the Canadian winter. The humidity or the dryness of the atmosphere really decides the comfort, or discomfort, the healthiness or unhealthiness of a climate. In Canada, although there are extreme temperatures, the air is always dry, bracing, and exhilarating, and consequently the country is considered a very healthy one. In the spring and summer wild flowers are as common as in England. In August and September wild fruits and delicate ferns abound; all the grain and fruit crops grown in England flourish; and many species raised in England under glass, such as grapes, peaches, melons, and tomatoes, ripen in southern Canada in the open air.

Area.—The area of the different provinces and districts of Canada is as follows: Ontario, 144,600 sq. m. (not including some disputed territory); Quebec, 193,355; Nova Scotia, 21,731; New Brunswick, 27,322; Prince Edward Island 2133; Manitoba, 60,500; British Columbia, 390,344; Provisional Districts, Assiniboia, 89,700; Saskatchewan, 106,700; Alberta, 106,500; Athabasca, 105,500; remaining territory, 2,144,937; total, 3,393,320. The area of the great lakes, if added, would probably increase the total to about 3,500,000 sq. m. For purposes of comparison, it may be stated that Canada is nearly as large as the whole of Europe, and about 600,000 sq. m. larger than the United States without Alaska.

Population.—According to the census returns of 1871, the population of the Dominion numbered 3,635,024 (males 1,842,174, and females 1,792,850). In 1881 it was as follows:

	Males.	Females.
Prince Edward Island	54,729	54,162
Nova Scotia	220,538	220,034
New Brunswick	104,119	157,114
Quebec	678,175	680,852
Ontario	976,470	946,758
Manitoba	37,207	28,747
British Columbia	29,503	19,956
The Territories	28,113	28,333
Total	2,188,854	2,185,956

Total.....4,324,810

Of this population 478,235 were born in the British Isles and possessions, 101,047 in Prince Edward Island, 420,088 in Nova Scotia, 288,265 in New Brunswick, 1,327,809 in Quebec, 1,467,988 in Ontario, 19,590 in Manitoba, 32,275 in British Columbia, 58,430 in the Canadian North-west Territories, 77,753 in the United States, and 53,330 in other countries. The estimated number of the inhabitants in the summer of 1888 was nearly 5,000,000.

By descent there were of French-Canadians, 1,298,029; Irish, 957,403; English, 881,301; Scotch, 699,863; Welsh, 9947—total United Kingdom, 2,548,514; Germans, 254,319; Indians, 108,547; Dutch, 30,412; the balance being cosmopolitan, including Africans, Swiss, Chinese, Scandinavians, Italians, Russians, Spanish and Portuguese, and

Icelanders. The census of the Dominion is recorded every ten years, but a supplementary census of the North-west Territories was taken in 1885, and of Manitoba in 1886. The population of Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, and Alberta in 1885 was 48,362. No comparisons can safely be made between these figures and those of the census returns for the North-west Territories in 1881, as the latter were largely estimated, and were, moreover, applicable to the whole of the territories. The population of Manitoba in 1886 was 108,640, as compared with 65,954 in 1881—an increase of 64·7 per cent. in the five years.

English is generally spoken in the Dominion, but in some parts of the province of Quebec, French is the only language understood. In the Dominion, Quebec, and Manitoba parliaments, members may address the House in either language. In Quebec province the speeches are usually French. Official notices are published in French, with or without an English translation. In the streets of Quebec the policemen do not understand questions in English, much less reply to them. The French spoken by the *habitants*, as the French-Canadians are called, is a patois which in many respects resembles the French of the 17th century more closely than the French of modern Paris. The songs of the French-Canadians, especially boat-songs, are many and interesting.

Indians.—According to the census returns of 1881 there were 108,547 Indians in Canada. One-fourth are in the Eastern provinces, one-half in Manitoba and the North-west, and one-fourth in British Columbia. In the older provinces very few of the Indians are of pure blood. They have made much progress towards civilisation, and are principally engaged in industrial and agricultural occupations, although many still follow hunting and fishing as a means of livelihood. The franchise was, in 1886, extended to those who possessed the necessary property qualifications. In the North-west Territories and British Columbia the Indians are located upon reserves, are being instructed in agricultural and other work by officers of the government, and own implements and livestock to a considerable value. Endeavours are also being made to encourage the education of the children by the establishment of schools. The Indians are supervised by the Superintendent-general of Indian affairs, which office is held by the Minister of the Interior, a member of the Dominion cabinet. The government expenditure for the Indian service in 1887 was \$1,201,300.

Religion.—There is no state church in Canada, and the utmost religious liberty prevails. According to the census of 1881, the population included 1,791,982 Catholics, of whom 1,170,718 were in Quebec, and 320,839 in Ontario; 574,818 Church of England; 676,165 Presbyterians; 742,981 Methodists; 290,525 Baptists; 46,350 Lutherans; 26,900 Congregationalists.

Education.—Long before school boards were established in Great Britain, Canada was in the enjoyment of free and unsectarian education. In 1846 compulsory taxation for the support of public schools was for the first time embodied in the law of Canada. It was also adopted subsequently by the other provinces. The details differ somewhat in the various provinces, but, generally speaking, the system, which is more or less compulsory, is as follows: Every township is divided into sections sufficiently large for a school. Trustees are elected to manage the affairs, and the expenses are defrayed by local rates and provincial government grants. In districts where the inhabitants are strongly divided in their religious opinions, and mixed schools are not possible, the law enables separate ones to be provided. This applies only to

Ontario, Quebec, and Manitoba. Teachers are trained at normal schools at the public expense. For those who can afford it—and the cost is very small—there are schools of a higher grade, managed also by trustees. At these, as well as at many excellent private establishments, a classical education is given, and pupils are prepared for the professions. There are also colleges and universities open to youths prepared in the lower schools. Toronto, Kingston, Montreal, and other places have schools of medicine, and the leading religious denominations have institutions at which young men are prepared for the ministry. For the higher education of girls there are also schools. In no country in the world is good education more generally diffused than in Canada, and the highest prizes the country offers are open to all, rich and poor alike. The principal universities are, in the order in which they were founded, as follows: Dalhousie (N.S.), 1820; McGill (Que.), 1821; New Brunswick, 1828; Toronto (Ont.), 1828; Queen's, Kingston (Ont.), 1841; Laval (Que.), 1852; Manitoba, 1877. The government also established (1874) the Royal Military College at Kingston (Ont.). The following are the chief scientific societies: Royal Society of Canada; Natural History Society of Montreal; Canadian Institute, Toronto; Nova Scotia Institute; Natural History Society, New Brunswick; and Scientific and Historical Society, Winnipeg.

Social Conditions.—The distinctions of caste do not exist to the same extent as in the mother-country, although there is a careful preservation of those traditions which give the general features to English society. Almost every farmer and agriculturist is the owner of his acres—he is his own master, and is free to do as he wills. This sense and state of independence permeates the whole social system, and produces a condition of freedom unknown in older countries. Canada has passed beyond the mother-country in many social questions. Thus, as regards the liquor traffic, local option prevails; by an Act of the Dominion Parliament in 1882, marriage with a deceased wife's sister was legalised; religious liberty prevails; there is practically free and unsectarian education, and a free and liberal franchise; members of parliament are paid for their services; the parliaments are quinquennial; and there is no system for legalising pauperism, although orphans and the helpless and aged of both sexes are not neglected.

Public Lands.—The public lands in the various provinces are under the control of the local governments, excepting in the case of Manitoba and the North-west Territories, where the lands are retained by the Dominion government, the object being, by sale, &c., to obtain a refund of the money expended in acquiring the territory, and in constructing the Canadian Pacific Railway. Every encouragement is held out to immigration, free grants of land being obtainable in most of the provinces, while improved farms, with buildings, implements, and machinery, can be purchased from the holders on favourable terms in many parts. In Manitoba and the North-west the government offer free grants of 160 acres of land to male settlers over eighteen years of age, and to females if heads of families, with the right to pre-empt a similar quantity at from 8s. to 10s. per acre.

Trade and Commerce.—The value of the imports in Canada for the year ending June 30, 1887, was \$112,892,236; \$105,639,428 being entered for consumption. The duty collected amounted to \$22,469,705, equal to \$4·63 (19s.) per head of the population. In 1887 the imports from the United States were 42·7 per cent. of the whole, from Great Britain 42·3, the balance of the imports being from

foreign countries and other colonies. The following table (taken from the official handbook issued by Canada at the Colonial and Indian Exhibition, 1886) will give an idea of the nature of the import trade. Similar figures are given for 1875 for purposes of comparison.

	1875.	1886.
Manufactures of iron and steel	\$19,095,716	\$11,657,189
" metal other than iron	1,491,384	2,309,771
" silk	2,219,100	2,305,103
" cottons	9,830,836	6,241,283
" woollens	12,767,575	9,053,626
All other manufactures	21,339,091	17,258,514
Food and drink	29,042,973	18,089,941
Raw material	10,662,870	20,035,767
Coin and bullion	2,210,085	2,954,244
Miscellaneous	10,908,067	12,571,009

It will be observed that considerable changes have taken place since the former year, largely owing to the development of the manufactures of Canada. The imports of manufactured goods have decreased, but the corresponding industries of the Dominion have increased in a still greater ratio. In evidence of this statement, take the importations of raw material. The raw cotton imported from 1874 to 1878 (five years) aggregated 25,641,000 lb. From 1881 to 1885 it increased to 104,528,000 lb., or more than quadruple that of the first period. In the same time the importation of wool increased by 15,439,124 lb., and the exports decreased 6,627,563 lb., or a difference—comparing the two periods—of 22,066,687 lb. for manufacturing. The importation of pig-iron has more than doubled also, apart from the large quantity manufactured in the country. The position of the manufacturing industries of Canada in 1881, and the advance made during the previous ten years, may be gathered from the following table taken from the census returns:

	1871.	1881.
Capital invested	\$77,694,020	\$165,302,023
Amount of yearly wages	40,851,069	59,420,002
Total value of articles produced	221,017,773	309,676,068
Hands employed	187,942	254,935

The exports of Canada in 1887, were valued at \$89,515,811, made up of Canadian produce, \$77,964,020, other produce, \$8,549,333, coin and bullion and estimated short returns, \$3,002,458. The Canadian produce is subdivided as follows: The mine, \$3,805,959; the fisheries, \$6,875,810; the forest, \$20,484,746; animals and their produce, \$24,246,937; agricultural products, \$18,826,235; manufactures, \$3,079,972; miscellaneous, \$644,361.

These figures do not give an accurate idea of the total trade of Canada, and the same remark applies to the imports. They only embrace the outside trade, and do not include the large business which naturally takes place between the provinces. It is impossible to estimate the amount of the inter-provincial trade. The freight earnings on the various railways amounted in 1886 to about \$21,000,000 for the carriage of about 15,700,000 tons, and the canal tolls to \$317,643, for 2,317,009 tons of freight, which shows the magnitude of the local-carrying trade. The principal countries to which goods were exported in 1887 were: Great Britain (49·6 per cent.), the United States (41·3 per cent.), Newfoundland, West Indies, South America, and Australasia. With other countries the trade is rapidly growing, particularly with China and Japan, France, Germany, and other European countries.

Fisheries.—These are, as regards the area available, the largest in the world, embracing nearly 5600 miles of sea-coast, in addition to inland seas, innumerable lakes, and a great number of rivers. The display made by Canada at the Fisheries Exhibition in London in 1883 attracted much attention. The products of the fisheries exported and sold in the Dominion markets in 1886 amounted to

\$18,679,288. The fresh-water fisheries are also of great importance, the immense lakes and rivers supplying an abundance of fish of great commercial value, both for home consumption and export, besides providing sportsmen with some of the finest salmon and trout fishing to be found anywhere. The values of the yield of some of the principal fishes in 1886 were: Cod, \$4,553,079; herring, \$2,211,498; lobsters, \$2,638,394; salmon, \$1,370,856; mackerel, \$1,556,424; haddock, \$747,685; trout, \$421,400; sardines, \$735,642; white-fish, \$434,349. Much attention has of late years been given to the development of the fisheries. The Dominion Government has granted a yearly sum of \$150,000 as a bounty, to be divided, according to catch, among the vessels and boats engaged in the prosecution of the sea fisheries. One result has been an increase in the number, and a great improvement in the build and outfit of fishing-vessels. It has also provided fish-breeding establishments, of which there are twelve, in different parts of the Dominion; and millions of edible fishes are yearly hatched and placed in the rivers and lakes.

Minerals.—The exports under this head are chiefly coal, gold, copper, iron, phosphates, salt, antimony, mineral oils, and gypsum. Gold mines have been and are being worked in Nova Scotia, in Quebec, and Ontario, and largely in British Columbia, where there are yet immense fields to open up. Silver mines are being worked in Ontario; and that at Silver Islet, Thunder Bay (on Lake Superior), has been the richest yet discovered in Canada. Iron ore is found all over the Dominion. Copper has been mined to a considerable extent both in Quebec and Ontario, and the deposits of the ore are of great extent. There are very large coal-deposits in Nova Scotia. The coast of British Columbia is rich in coal of a quality which commands a preference in the markets of San Francisco, notwithstanding the high duty. Coal is known to exist over a vast region stretching from 150 to 200 miles east of the Rocky Mountains, and north from the frontier for about 1000 miles.

Forests.—The forest-products of Canada constitute one of her most important sources of wealth. They find their way to all parts of the world—to the United States, to the United Kingdom, and to the Australian colonies. The Canadian sawmills are extensive and well appointed. The industry in all its stages employs large numbers of men, as well as affording freight to railways and shipping. Among the varieties of trees are the maple (hard and soft), elm, hickory, ironwood, pine, spruce, cedar, hemlock, walnut, oak, butternut, basswood, poplar, chestnut, rowan, willow, black and white birch, and many more.

Animals and their Produce.—Exports under this head include live animals, meat, butter, cheese, eggs, furs, hides and skins, and wool, and form the largest item in the classification of the exports. It is a trade which has been largely the growth of recent years. In 1874 the total exports of cattle were 39,623 head, of which only 455 went to Great Britain. In 1887 the number had increased to 116,274, of which 63,622, valued at \$5,344,375 sterling, were shipped to Great Britain. In addition, the exports under this head included 18,779 horses and 443,495 sheep. The cattle are of good quality, many pedigree and highly priced cattle having been imported for the improvement of the flocks and herds during the last ten years. Herds of Shorthorns, Herefords, Galloways, Polled Angus, and Jerseys are to be found in many parts of Canada. Great progress has been made in dairy-farming, and the factory system has

been latterly introduced in the older provinces. There are factories for the manufacture of cheese, and creameries for the manufacture of butter. The export of Canadian cheese to the United Kingdom has largely increased within the last few years (in 1868 the total was only 1,577,072 lb., and in 1887 it was 73,185,517 lb., valued at \$7,065,983). The export of butter was nearly 5,000,000 lb. In 1887 poultry to the value of \$107,909 were shipped, largely to the United States, and nearly 13,000,000 dozens of eggs. Bee-keeping is profitably carried on in many parts of the Dominion.

Agricultural Products.—The agricultural exports include general farm-produce and fruit. There is a Dominion Department of Agriculture, with a member of the cabinet at its head; and legislative authority has recently been obtained for the establishment of five government experimental farms in various parts of the Dominion—one at Ottawa, for Ontario and Quebec, one each for the maritime provinces, Manitoba, the North-west Territories, and British Columbia—which are expected to prove valuable to the farming community. Agriculture is the leading interest of the country, and must remain so for a long time, considering the immense areas of land that have still to be occupied and tilled. With a population of about 5,000,000, about \$43,000,000 of farm-produce—including animals and their products, and agricultural produce—was exported in 1887, in addition to that required for home consumption. Mixed farming is generally carried on, the growing of grain and fruit, stock-raising, and dairy-farming being more or less combined.

Manufactures.—Since 1878 the development in manufacturing industries has been more marked than during any previous period in the industrial history of Canada. The statistics of the increase in the capital invested, number of hands employed, &c.; given under the heading of imports, show the advance that took place in the decade from 1871 to 1881. A partial investigation made in 1884-85 indicated that in the older provinces there had been in 1884 an estimated increase (over 1878) of 75 per cent. in the number of hands employed, in the amount of wages paid, and in the capital invested; while in the value of the goods produced, the increase had been 93 per cent.

Banking.—The paid-up capital invested in banking on the 31st January 1888 was \$60,355,883, and the deposits amounted to \$106,351,330, as against \$32,808,104 in 1868. In addition to the ordinary chartered banks, there are the post-office and government savings-banks, the deposits in which have increased from \$1,422,047 in 1868 to \$40,832,275 in 1887, the number of depositors being now estimated at 120,000. These figures do not include the deposits in one or two chartered savings-banks, or investments in the various loan, friendly, and building societies.

Fiscal Policy.—The percentage of duty on the total value of goods imported, dutiable and free, in 1868 was 12 per cent.; in 1878 it was 13.74; in 1879 the 'national policy' was inaugurated, and a general increase in the tariff sanctioned by parliament. In 1880 the percentage was 16.34, and in 1887 it was 19.87. Too much significance must not be attached to these latter figures, as although some of the duties have been increased, many reductions have also been made, and many articles added to the free list. In 1880 the articles imported duty free formed 20 per cent. of the total imports, and in 1887 no less than 35 per cent. The amount of customs duty paid per head of population was 15s. 9d. and 19s. in the respective years. It is right to remark that no restrictions exist as to trade between the different provinces, and that

free trade prevails within the boundaries of the Dominion.

Shipping.—The following is the number of vessels owned in the Dominion in 1887: Number of vessels, 7178; number of steamers, 1240; gross tonnage (steamers), 178,189; total net tonnage, 1,130,247. Canada stands fifth on the list of the mercantile countries of the world, the difference in the tonnage and that of Germany, which occupies the fourth place, being very slight. Assuming the average value to be \$30 per ton, the value of the registered tonnage of Canada would be \$33,907,410.

Railways.—There are about 12,000 miles of railway in Canada at the present time. The three principal systems are the Canadian Pacific (4319 miles), Grand Trunk (2600 miles), and the Intercolonial (1190 miles). The balance of the mileage is made up of smaller lines in the various provinces. The total paid-up capital in July 1886 was \$626,172,145, to which the Dominion and local governments had contributed, in one way or another, \$145,196,561. The number of passengers carried in 1886 was about 10,000,000, and the freight 15,670,460 tons. The Canadian Pacific Railway is now complete from ocean to ocean. Its construction was one of the conditions under which British Columbia joined the Confederation in 1871. It was found impossible to complete it by 1881, the time fixed, and the date was extended to 1891. Prior to 1880 the work was undertaken by the government, but in that year the Canadian Pacific Railway Company was formed, and undertook to complete the line by 1891, in consideration of a subsidy of \$25,000,000, 25,000,000 acres of land, and the transfer of those portions of the line already under construction by the government (700 miles) when completed. The railway was finished in December 1885, nearly six years before the stipulated time, and through trains are now running daily from the Atlantic to the Pacific. By this route the distance from Liverpool to Japan and China is shorter by 1000 miles than *via* New York and San Francisco. The construction of this railway and the Intercolonial Railway has cost Canada about £24,000,000 sterling. The railway is not only of importance locally to Canada, as connecting the various provinces and opening up the vast North-west Territories for settlement, but it is of imperial importance as providing a new route to Australasia and the East, available for commerce, and for military and naval purposes. Lines of steamers are passing between British Columbia and China, and the Imperial and Canadian governments having agreed in 1887 to grant a subsidy of £60,000 (two-thirds being contributed by the former, and one-third by the latter) for ten years, the service is to be improved and accelerated. Negotiations were taking place in 1888 between the governments of Canada and Australasia, with a view to the establishment of steamship communication between Vancouver, New Zealand, and Australia. In addition, a proposal was also laid before the various colonial governments in 1886 and 1887 for the laying of a cable between British Columbia, New Zealand, and New South Wales. The matter was discussed at the Colonial Conference in 1887, and a unanimous resolution passed recognising the great importance of the work.

Canals and River Systems.—The canals of Canada and the river improvements have cost a large sum of money, and they are works of great utility and importance. The channel of the St Lawrence has been deepened, and vessels of 5000 and 6000 tons now reach Montreal, 700 miles from the Atlantic Ocean. There are nearly 5 miles of wharves at this city, and every facility for loading and discharging ships. At Quebec, also, there are facilities for an immense shipping-trade. There

is a system of canals to overcome the St Lawrence rapids, and the difference in the levels of the great lakes (600 feet) which affords uninterrupted navigation from the Straits of Belleisle to the head of Lake Superior, a distance of 2384 miles, of which 71½ miles are canals. The locks range from 200 to 270 feet long by 45 feet wide; some are 14 feet deep, others only 9 feet, but the intention is to make them of a uniform depth of 14 feet. A canal system connects the river Ottawa and Montreal, another opens navigation between Ottawa and Kingston, and another between Lake Champlain and the St Lawrence. In Nova Scotia the St Peter's Canal connects St Peter's Bay with the Bras d'Or lakes. There is also navigation on the lakes in the north-west and on the rivers Assiniboine and Saskatchewan, the latter being navigable for over 1000 miles.

Hudson Bay Route.—In 1884-5 6 the Canadian government despatched expeditions with a view to ascertain the length of time during which the Hudson Strait was navigable. The expeditions were under the command of Lieutenant Gordon, R.N., and H.M.S. *Alert* was placed by Her Majesty's government at the disposal of Canada for that and other purposes. The result of the investigations was that the strait was considered to be navigable from the first week in July to the first week in October in ordinary seasons for specially built ships. By this route, the distance between Great Britain and Manitoba and the North-west Territories would be much shortened, Fort Churchill being nearer to Liverpool than New York.

Revenue, Expenditure, and Public Debt.—The revenue for the year ending June 30, 1887, was \$35,754,993, and the expenditure \$35,651,161. The expenditure in the two previous years exceeded the receipts by \$8,074,631, mainly owing to unforeseen expenses in connection with the North-west rebellion in 1885. As against these deficits it may be stated that there was a surplus of revenue in the four previous years, amounting in all to \$18,267,843. Taxation, as represented by the customs and excise duties, amounted in 1887 to \$28,687,001, or 24s. 3d. per head, as compared with 40s. 6d. in the United Kingdom, 27s. 8d. in the Cape of Good Hope, and 53s. 9d. in Australasia (1885). The gross amount of the public debt on July 1, 1887, was \$273,187,626; deducting the assets, \$45,873,715, the net debt was reduced to \$227,313,911, or about £9, 5s. per head. \$171,675,735 are payable in England; the balance of the debt represents liabilities payable in Canada. The net debt since confederation has increased by \$151,585,270; but in that period the Canadian Government have expended nearly \$170,000,000 upon public improvements. This may be divided as follows: Debts allowed to provinces, \$30,743,392; Dominion lands, \$2,723,729; miscellaneous public works (including canals, light-houses, and government buildings), \$37,243,099; North-west Territories, \$3,213,917; Canadian Pacific Railway, \$61,760,785; Intercolonial Railway, \$32,049,420; other railways, \$1,790,099. Canadian government securities are a favourite investment in the British market.

Constitution.—The Constitution of Canada is contained in the British North America Act of 1867. The government of Canada is federal. The provinces have local legislatures, and they also elect the Federal Parliament which sits at Ottawa. The Executive Government and authority of and over Canada is vested in the Queen. The governor-general for the time being, whose emoluments are paid out of the Canadian revenue, carries on the government in the name of Her Majesty, with the assistance of a council, known as the cabinet, consisting of the heads of the various departments,

which is responsible to the House of Commons. The Dominion Parliament consists of an upper house, styled the Senate (78 members), and the House of Commons (215 members). The senators are nominated for life by the governor in council. The commons are elected every five years, unless the House be dissolved before its course has run. There is a special franchise distinct from that in force for the provincial assemblies; both are exceedingly liberal and extensive. The procedure is very much the same as in the imperial parliament at Westminster. At the head of each of the provinces is a lieutenant-governor, appointed by the governor in council, and paid by the Dominion, who is the medium of communication between the provinces and the Federal Government. In most of the provinces there are two Houses of Legislature, but in Ontario, Manitoba, and British Columbia there are only single houses. This, however, is a matter entirely within the control of the local authorities, as are also the election of members, franchise qualifications, and alteration of electoral districts; but the extreme length of the local parliaments is defined as four years. The executive in each province is responsible to the local legislature. The North-west Territories are administered by a lieutenant-governor and a council, partly elected and partly nominated. The powers of the respective Dominion and provincial parliaments, and the contributions to the revenues of the latter from the Dominion treasury, are defined by the original act and amending acts. Legislation upon local matters is delegated, as a general rule, to the provinces. There is also a very perfect system of municipal government throughout the Dominion. Both the counties and townships have their local councils, which regulate the taxation for roads, schools, and other purposes, so that every man directly votes for the taxes he is called upon to pay. Local taxation is very light.

History.—In 1534 Jacques Cartier, a French navigator, a native of St Malo, set out from that port with two small vessels of 20 tons each, landed on the shores of Gaspé (now part of the province of Quebec), and took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign, Francis I. He went again in the following year (1535), passed up the gulf and river, which he named the St Lawrence, and reached Stadaconé, the site of the present city of Quebec. Continuing his voyage, he arrived at Hochelaga, another Indian town, and gave it the name of Mont Royal, since corrupted into Montreal. After passing the winter at Stadaconé he returned to France. But little or nothing was done to promote the colonisation of the country until 1608, when Samuel de Champlain, a Frenchman of gentle birth, maritime and military experience, and much religious enthusiasm, visited Canada for the third time, with the object of extending Christianity and developing trade and commerce, and founded the city of Quebec, the name of which is said to be derived from an Indian word *kebek*, 'the rock.' The control of the immense region, extending eastward to Acadia (Nova Scotia), westward to Lake Superior, and down the Mississippi as far as the Gulf of Mexico, was from this time until 1763 claimed by France (see ACADIA). Recollet and Jesuit missionaries traversed it in all directions, suffering great hardships in their endeavours to convert the Indians. Their work was watched with much enthusiasm in France, and it is admitted that they were the first explorers of the country and the pioneers of civilisation in the Far West.

The claims of France were not, however, undisputed, as is shown by the grant of a charter in 1670 by Charles II. to Prince Rupert and his company, known ever since as the Hudson Bay Company, of

the exclusive right of trading in the territory watered by streams flowing into Hudson Bay. As already mentioned, they gave up their exclusive rights in 1869 on certain conditions, among others, a money payment of £300,000 and a large grant of land. The struggle between Great Britain and France for supremacy in North America was long and bitter, but it terminated finally in 1763 by the cession to the former under the Treaty of Paris of Canada with all its dependencies, except the islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, which were retained as fishing stations, not to be fortified or garrisoned. Hudson Bay with the adjacent territory, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland had been previously transferred to England by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The population of Canada in 1763 was about 70,000, of Nova Scotia, 8000. No time was lost in attempting to adapt British institutions to the new possession; but considerable friction occurred for some years, and it was not altogether allayed by the passing in 1774 of what is known as the Quebec Act. This gave the French-Canadians the free exercise of their religion, and secured their civil rights, laws, and customs. It annexed large territories to Quebec, including that part of the United States now forming Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, which passed from Great Britain in 1783. Quebec was eventually in 1791 divided into Upper and Lower Canada; but this did not prove satisfactory in either province, leading to conflicts between the popular and elected assemblies and the nominated or official councils, and ultimately to the rebellion in 1837-38.

In accordance with Lord Durham's recommendations, the two provinces were re-united in 1840 (population of Upper Canada, 450,000, of Lower Canada, 650,000), but the union was not a success politically, although it indirectly led to the great confederation in 1867. It should be mentioned that the inhabitants of Upper Canada consisted largely of United Empire loyalists, who remained loyal to British institutions, and who left the United States at the close of the War of Independence, while those of Lower Canada were almost exclusively French-Canadians. The representatives from each province in the united parliament were equal in number. Upper Canada, however, made greater progress than Lower Canada (the population in 1851 was 952,004 and 890,261 respectively, and in 1861, 1,396,061 and 1,111,566), and agitated for an additional number of members and claimed other concessions, but the demands were always opposed by the latter. The consequence was frequent legislative deadlocks and continual difficulties. Such was the state of things in 1864. It is now necessary to refer to the other colonies on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. In 1770 St John Island (renamed Prince Edward Island in 1780), and in 1784 New Brunswick, were formed out of Nova Scotia into separate colonies. In 1858, owing to the rush for gold and the influx of population, British Columbia was made a crown colony, and in 1866 Vancouver Island was joined to it. In 1864 the maritime provinces were discussing the desirability of local confederation, and advantage of the opportunity was taken by Canada to propose a broader scheme to cover all British North America, and after several conferences a basis of union was agreed upon which resulted in the formation of the Dominion.

Since the confederation of the provinces, the chief events of importance may be put in the following tabular form:

- 1869. The Red River rebellion, which collapsed in August 1870, on the arrival at Fort Garry of the expedition under Colonel (now Lord) Wolseley.
- 1871. Treaty of Washington signed, dealing, among other things, with the fisheries and the mutual use of certain canals.

- 1873. Defeat of the Conservative ministry (Sir John Macdonald, premier) on Pacific Railway question.
- 1877. Award of the Halifax Fishery Commission in favour of Great Britain of 5,500,000 dollars, as representing the value of the fishing privileges granted to the United States, over and above the concessions made to Canada under the Washington Treaty.
- 1878. Defeat of the Liberal ministry (Hon. A. Mackenzie, premier).
- 1879. Adoption by new Conservative ministry of the higher customs tariff, called the national policy, as a measure of protection against the United States fiscal policy, and to foster native industries.
- 1880. Contract for construction of Canadian Pacific Railway signed. It was ratified in 1881 by parliament.
- 1885. Outbreak of disturbances among the half-breeds, under Louis Riel, in the Saskatchewan district, North-west Territories, in March. Suppressed in July by the force under Major-general Middleton. The total force in the field was about 4000 men of the Canadian militia. Louis Riel tried, condemned to death, and executed. Last spike of the Canadian Pacific Railway driven (November 7).
- 1886. The first through train for the Pacific left Montreal (June 28).
- 1887. Agitation in Manitoba for abolition of monopoly clauses, Canadian Pacific Railway Act. Local Act passed for construction of Red River Valley Railway to boundary line to connect with United States railways. Act disallowed by governor-in-council, but railway commenced notwithstanding. Injunction obtained in provincial law-courts, and cessation of the work. Agreement arrived at between the British and United States governments to discuss the fishery disputes in conference at Washington. British plenipotentiaries appointed, Right Hon. J. Chamberlain, Sir Lionel Sackville West, and Sir Charles Tupper. Conference met early in December.
- 1888. Treaty for the settlement of the fishery disputes signed by the British and United States representatives (Feb. 15), subject to ratification by legislatures of respective countries. Recognised right of Canada to fisheries in three-mile limit, which was to follow the coast-line, except (a) in the case of bays of ten miles wide and under, when the line was to be drawn from headland to headland, and (b) in the case of certain bays specially exempted from the operation of the treaty. United States fishing-vessels to be allowed to land, sell, and tranship cargoes only in cases of distress; may enter the ports for wood, water, shelter, and repairs; and, on obtaining a license (given without charge), to purchase casual supplies and stores (excepting bait). Concessions are also to be made as to reporting at customs ports, and as to pilot, harbour, light, and other dues. If United States agree at any time to admit Canadian fish and certain fish products free of duty, then vessels may in addition, so long as privilege remains in force, land, sell, and tranship their cargoes, and also purchase bait and all other supplies. The treaty was to be ratified within two years, and, in the meantime, to avoid friction, a *modus vivendi* was offered, providing that United States fishing-vessels might have all the privileges mentioned above, on payment of a tonnage license fee of 150 dollars per ton. The discussion of 'Commercial Union' between the United States and Canada, in the Dominion House of Commons, closed on April 7. The motion for unrestricted reciprocity was rejected by 124 to 67 votes. The government amendment carried was to the effect that Canada was desirous, in the future as in the past, of cultivating and extending trade relations with the United States, in so far as it might not conflict with the national policy of Canada. The government arranged with the Canadian Pacific Railway Company for cancellation of monopoly clauses, on terms satisfactory to Manitoba. Conference to take place at Ottawa, in June, between Canada and Newfoundland, to discuss the question of the entry of the latter into the confederation.

The governor-generals of Canada, since 1867, have been: Lord Monck (1867-68), Lord Lisgar (1868-72), Lord Dufferin (1872-78), Lord Lorne (1878-83), Lord Lansdowne (1883-88), and Lord Stanley of Preston (1888).

The progress of Canada since confederation has been very rapid, but its varied resources are still practically undeveloped. Recent events, however, particularly the extension of railways and the completion of the trans-continental system, have placed Canada in a position of advantage which she had not previously occupied. In consequence, the volume of immigration to the immense areas of unoccupied fertile lands is increasing; the agricultural, manufacturing, and mining industries are becoming more important every year; trade and commerce is expanding both at home and abroad; and the wealth of the people is apparently becoming greater. Altogether there seems to be ample justification for the satisfaction and pride with which Canadians contemplate the present condition of the Dominion and the future that is undoubtedly before the country.

Literature.—Canada has been making steady progress in literature, and the future is full of promise in this respect; but as yet, few native writers, except Judge Haliburton ('Sam Slick'), Sir William Edmond Logan (Geology), Sir William Dawson (Geology and Natural History), Mr Alphons Todd, Mr Grant Allen, and Mr G. J. Romanes, have achieved a wide reputation. Mr Fr  chette of Quebec obtained the distinction of being crowned (1880) the poet of the year by the French Academy. Sir Daniel Wilson (Prehistoric Man) and Mr Goldwin Smith (History) are Canadians by adoption. In fiction much has been attempted, hitherto without any great success. Many historical works of value have been published; but these relate for the most part to the various provinces and to the several nationalities established within the Dominion. In miscellaneous literature much more has been done; and the contributions of Canadians to the magazines both of the United States and of Great Britain are yearly becoming more frequent and more important.

Besides works cited in Morgan's *Bibliotheca Canadensis* (Ottawa, 1867), reference may be made to the Histories of Canada by Faillon (French, 2 vols. Mont. 1865), Tuttle (Boston, 1878), Garneau (French, 4 vols. Mont. 1883), Dent (Toronto, 1883), R  veilland (French, 1884), Bryce (1887), and Kingsford (8 vols. 1888 *et seq.*). See also Parkman's Works (1872-84); Confederation Debates (1865); Todd's *Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies* (Boston, 1880); *Her Majesty's Colonies* (Colonial and Indian Exhibition Handbook, 1886); Grant's *Ocean to Ocean* (1873), and *Picturesque Canada* (2 vols. Toronto, 1884); Ryerson's *Loyalists of America* (1880), and *Story of my Life* (1883); Sandford Fleming, *Inter-colonial Railway* (1876); *Pacific Railway* (1880); the Marquis of Lorne's *Canadian Life and Scenery* (1885); Emile Petitot, *Traditions Indiennes du Canada Nord-ouest* (Paris, 1886); Silver's *Handbook*; the annual *Statistical Abstract and Record of Canada* (first published 1886); Clapin, *La France Transatlantique* (Paris, 1885); Lovell's *Gazetteer and History of Canada* (1887-89).

Canada Balsam is a kind of Turpentine (q.v.) obtained from the Balsam Fir or Balm of Gilead Fir (*Abies* or *Pinus balsamea*), a native of Canada and the northern parts of the United States (see FIR). It exists in the tree in vesicles between the bark and the wood, and is obtained by making incisions. It is a transparent liquid, almost colourless, and with an agreeable odour and acrid taste. It pours readily out of a vessel or bottle, and shortly dries up, and becomes solid. When fresh, it is of the consistence of thin honey, but becomes viscid, and at last solid by age. It consists mainly of a resin dissolved in an

essential oil, and its composition is approximately: Essential oil, 24 parts; resin, soluble in boiling alcohol, 60; resin, soluble only in ether, 16. Canada balsam was formerly employed in medicine as a stimulant for the cure of mucous discharges, and as a detergent application to ulcers, but it is now rarely used as a remedy. The balsam is much valued for a variety of purposes in the arts—as an ingredient in varnishes, in mounting objects for the microscope, in Photography (q.v.), and by opticians as a cement, particularly for connecting the parts of achromatic lenses to the exclusion of moisture and dust. Its value for optical purposes is very great, and depends not only on its perfect transparency, but on its possessing a refractive power nearly equal to that of glass. See BALSAM.

Canada Goose. See GOOSE.

Canadian River rises in the N.E. part of New Mexico, and runs generally eastward through Texas and Indian Territory to the Arkansas. Its length is about 900 miles, but it is rather shallow and not important for navigation. Its largest tributary is the Rio Nutria, or North Fork of the Canadian, which runs parallel to the main stream for about 600 miles.

Canal. A canal is an artificially-formed channel filled with water, and though it generally denotes a channel used for navigation, it is also applied to channels made for drainage and irrigation.

Drainage Canal.—A drainage canal is an artificial watercourse formed to supplement the rivers, which are the natural drains of a country, where, owing to a deficiency of fall and the low level of the adjacent lands, the rivers are inadequate for discharging the surplus rainfall in wet seasons, and the lands are in consequence exposed to floods. Many instances of such canals exist in Holland, and in the Fen districts of Lincolnshire and Norfolk, where they are termed drains or cuts, as for example the Hobhole Drain and the Eau Brink Cut; and they differ from ordinary Rivers (q.v.) merely in being straight artificial cuts, instead of natural channels formed by the flow of the drainage of the district. As these drains are generally constructed across a country where there is little slope towards the sea, they have to be given a large section in relation to the water they are designed to carry off, as the discharge of any watercourse is proportionate to its fall. By embanking each side with the material excavated in forming the canal, and especially by placing these longitudinal embankments a little distance back from the edges of the cut, an enlarged channel is economically provided for the flood discharge, as soon as the water rises above the ordinary surface-level, without exposing the land to inundation.

Irrigation Canal.—The object of an irrigation canal is to lend the waters of a river, flowing through a hot dry country, on to lands at a distance from the river bank, and so preserve them from drought, and increase their fertility. Considerable tracts of the Lower Nile valley are irrigated in this manner; the rice crops of India are largely dependent upon the supply of water conveyed by irrigation canals; and important irrigation works have been carried out in Italy and Spain, as also in California and Colorado. These canals, being designed like drainage canals for the conveyance of water, are made with a regular fall or slope, so that the water may flow along the canal. By increasing the fall, the size of the channel may be proportionately reduced for a given discharge; but it is inexpedient to augment the fall, even if practicable, beyond the limit at which the increased velocity of flow thereby induced begins to scour the bed of the channel—as occurred on the Ganges Canal, necessitating works for checking the

flow. Sluices and weirs have to be constructed at the intakes of these canals for regulating the supply, and sometimes for shutting it off on the approach of a high flood; and arrangements have to be provided for the due admission of the water into the branch canals and trenches which serve to distribute the water over the area to be irrigated. The details relating to these works appertain to Irrigation (q.v.); and the formulae for determining the flow, and consequently the requisite section of a drainage or irrigation canal with a given available fall, form a branch of hydromechanics.

Navigation Canal.—Though drainage and irrigation canals are sometimes used for the transit of vessels, they are designed for the passage of water; whereas navigation canals are level still-water channels solely constructed as a waterway for vessels, just as a road is formed for vehicles, and a railway for trains. Unlike roads or railways, however, canals cannot adapt themselves to the irregularities of the country they traverse, by varying slopes or gradients, but must be formed of a series of level reaches, at different heights according to the lie of the country, connected at their extremities by locks or other means of transferring boats from one reach to the level of the adjoining reach. This renders the laying out of canals more complicated than that of railways, owing to the necessity of selecting the most suitable routes for long level reaches; though the work is facilitated by cuttings, embankments, aqueducts, and occasionally tunnels, as in the case of railways.

A canal should be generally wide enough for two of the largest-sized barges navigating it to pass easily; and, to avoid the resistance to traction in a restricted waterway, it is expedient that the bottom width should be twice the greatest breadth of beam, the depth $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet more than the greatest draught, and the section of the waterway six times the greatest midship section of a barge. The bottom is made flat, and the sides with slopes of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet per foot; but through towns, vertical side walls are substituted to save space and provide quays. In tunnels and deep cuttings, the width is usually made only just sufficient for a single barge; and passing places are formed at suitable intervals. On embankments, and along cuttings in a porous soil, a watertight lining of clay-puddle or concrete has to be added, to retain the water in the canal. A towing-path along one side of the canal, raised about two feet above the water-level, affords facilities for haulage.

An ample supply of water is essential for a canal, to make good the losses occasioned by leakage, evaporation, and lockage. Leakage results from defects in the watertightness of the channel, and escapes of water under pressure at the lock-gates, and depends therefore upon the state of repair of the canal. The loss from evaporation is proportionate to the exposed water-surface, and is greatest in summer when the supply of water is the least. The expenditure of water in locking is dependent on the size of the lock-chambers, the difference between the levels of the reaches, which is termed the lift of the locks, and the amount of traffic on the canal. There is no difficulty in the supply of water to canals in low-lying districts, such as Holland and parts of Belgium; and even in most parts of river valleys, streams are generally available for introducing a supply at various points. When, however, a canal rises to the higher portions of a river basin, and crosses the ridge separating two adjacent basins, in a reach called the summit-level of the canal, a very common course for inland canals, it is sometimes difficult to secure an adequate supply, especially for the summit-level; so that occasionally an artificial Reservoir (q.v.) has to be formed, at a high level, by con-

structing a dam across the valley of a mountain stream, which, by storing up the winter flow of the stream, is enabled to furnish a continuous supply in the summer. A deficiency of water has led to the adoption of expedients for saving water in locking, and sometimes to the use of other means of transferring vessels from one reach to another, especially when the difference of level is considerable.

Vessels may be transferred from one reach of a canal to the next, either by a *lock*, an *incline*, or a *lift*.

Lock.—A lock is a watertight chamber, closed by gates at each end, separating two adjacent reaches of a canal, which by means of sluices can be filled with water from the upper reach to the level of the upper reach, or emptied to the level of the lower reach; so that vessels can be admitted from either reach, and raised or lowered to the level of the other reach by merely filling or emptying the lock-chamber. Where the difference of level is considerable, a series of locks are placed end to end in steps, forming what is termed a *flight of locks*. Locks involve a considerable expenditure of water when the traffic is large, for a lockful of water is required for each pair of boats passing through a single lock, when boats ascend and descend alternately; whilst, when the boats ascend and descend in a series, a lockful of water is expended on each boat, except the last or first of a series. With a flight of locks, boats passing up and down in a series cause the least expenditure of water; whereas each pair of boats passing up and down alternately, require as many lockfuls as the number of locks in the flight. Accordingly, to save water, a second flight is sometimes placed alongside the other, so that one may be used for ascending, and the other for descending boats. Side ponds, into which the upper layers of water may be discharged in emptying a lock, and utilised again for refilling the lock, are sometimes used for economising water in locking. For further details, see *LOCK*.

Incline.—Occasionally, where water is scarce, and the lift large, vessels are conveyed on an incline from one reach to the next, in a special carriage running on rails laid on the incline, and controlled by a cable. The vessel is either lifted on a cradle out of the water; or it is floated into a wrought-iron caisson, or trough, containing water, with lifting gates at each end, and supported on a frame so constructed that the caisson is conveyed in a horizontal position up or down the incline. In the cradle, the barge is conveyed on the incline in a sloping position, and the support afforded by the water to a loaded boat when immersed is removed; whilst, in the caisson, the vessel is carried in the same position, and under the same conditions, as in a canal; but the load on the incline is increased by the larger carriage and the water in the caisson. By connecting the cables of the ascending and descending loads on the drum at the top of the incline, the work of haulage is greatly reduced.

Very primitive inclines were employed on the ancient canals of China, the boats being hauled up by a capstan, and made to slide down the paved track. The first incline with counterbalanced cars running on rails appears to have been adopted on the Ketley Canal in Shropshire, in 1788, for surmounting a height of 73 feet; and others were soon after established on the adjoining Shropshire Canal. On the Morris Canal, in New Jersey, U.S., there are twenty-three inclines, with an average rise of 58 feet, on which boats of 80 tons are drawn in cars up a gradient of 1 in 10; four inclines on the Oberland Canal, in Prussia, of which the largest has a height of 80½ feet, were completed in 1860; and another has recently been substituted for the five lowest locks on the canal.

Caissons were first adopted for inclines on the Chard Canal, in Somersetshire, and subsequently, on a larger scale, on the Monkland Canal, near Glasgow. The largest caisson, weighing 390 tons when full, was put on the incline at Georgetown in 1878, which replaced two locks connecting the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal with the Potomac. The incline is 1 in 12, and 39 feet high; and boats of 115 tons are readily transferred from the lower to the upper reach in from 8 to 16 minutes, the haulage being effected by iron-wire cables moved by a turbine.

Lift.—A canal lift consists of two iron troughs, filled with water, which counterbalance one another, one going up as the other descends vertically, and thus raising or lowering a boat from one reach to the other. A lift has the advantage over a flight of locks in effecting an economy in water, space, time occupied in working, and even, under certain conditions, in cost of construction. A simple canal lift was erected in 1838 on the Grand Western Canal in England, which raised or lowered boats of 8 tons a height of 46 feet, in three minutes, by admitting an excess of one ton of water into the top trough, but it has been abandoned. Hydraulic canal lifts have been only recently introduced, the first having been opened for traffic in 1875, at Anderton, for connecting the Weaver with the Trent and Mersey Canal, the difference of level being 50½ feet. Two troughs, 75 feet by 15½ feet, each supported in the centre by a hydraulic ram, and containing 5 feet depth of water, balance one another; and the main portion of the motion is effected by removing 6 inches in depth of the water from the bottom trough, the final lift only of the ascending trough, of about 4½ feet, being accomplished by the hydraulic ram, 3 feet in diameter, underneath it. A barge of 100 tons can be lifted in the trough in two and a half minutes; and barges can be transferred from one level to the other, in both directions, in eight minutes; whereas over one hour is expended in passing through a flight of locks having an equal rise. Another similar lift has been erected at Les Fontinettes, near St Omer, on the Neufossé Canal, with a lift of 43 feet, in substitution for a flight of five locks which had become inadequate for the large traffic from Boulogne, Calais, and Dunkirk, to Paris, which is carried on the canal in barges of 300 tons. Each trough is 132½ feet long and 18½ feet wide, with a depth of water of 6½ feet; and the weight moved is 700 tons. On one of the sections of the Canal du Centre, in course of construction in Belgium, a difference of level of 220 feet, in a distance of 5 miles, is to be surmounted by four lifts, of which the first was commenced at La Louvière in 1885. The troughs are similar to those at Les Fontinettes; but as they are to receive boats of 400 tons, the depth of water has been increased to 8½ feet, and the total weight raised is about 1100 tons.

History of Canals.—Canals were constructed in Egypt, China, Assyria, and India, in remote antiquity; but till the invention of the pound lock, supposed to have been first introduced in Italy in the 15th century, canals could not be suitably adapted for traversing irregular country; after which canals were gradually extended throughout Europe. The first European canals on the Continent were constructed in Italy, in the 12th century, for irrigation, and were subsequently utilised for navigation. The earliest canal in France was carried out in 1605–41, for connecting the Seine and the Loire, a very useful class of canal, forming a link between two river navigations, of which numerous examples now exist with great advantage to the development of inland navigation. The second canal constructed in France, in 1666–81, was a

more ambitious scheme; and by connecting the Bay of Biscay with the Mediterranean, thus avoiding the long detour by the Strait of Gibraltar, proved the prototype of modern ship-canal; though, as its depth is only 6½ feet, it is not adapted for vessels of above 100 tons. The Gironde and the Garonne give access up to Toulouse; and from this point, the Languedoc Canal, or Canal des deux Mers, 148 miles long, rises gradually by locks to a summit-level of 600 feet at Naurouse, and then descends in a similar manner to Narbonne on the Gulf of Lyons, the number of locks being 119. A scheme was under discussion in 1887 for enlarging the canal so as to render it available for the sea-going craft of the present day. The enlargement and extension of canals and the improvement of rivers have been vigorously pursued by the French government simultaneously with the development of railways; and a large proportion of the bulky goods (amounting to over 1384 million tons carried 1 mile in 1882) are conveyed by water in France. There are about 3000 miles of canals in France, and 2000 miles of canalised rivers, in addition to nearly 2000 miles of open river navigation; and many of the waterways are free of toll, the costs of construction, improvement, and maintenance being paid by the state. To obtain uniformity in the principal canals, constructed at different times and under variable conditions, a law was passed in 1879, for securing eventually a depth of water of 6½ feet, locks 126½ feet long and 17 feet wide, and a clear height of 12 feet under the bridges, along the main lines of traffic. As soon as the necessary works are completed, boats of 300 tons, 126½ feet long, 16½ feet wide, and 6 feet draught, will be able to traverse all the principal waterways of France.

Canals were introduced into Holland and the level parts of Belgium in the 12th century; and being independent of locks in a flat country, and amply supplied with water in a low-lying district, they promoted the traffic which rendered Flanders the emporium of commerce in the 14th century. The canal system has continued to flourish in these countries; and Amsterdam and Rotterdam, like Venice, are intersected by canals.

The Russians have executed considerable canal works for connecting their large rivers; for instance, the Volga and the Neva are connected by a canal which admits of the passage of vessels of 500 to 1000 tons. A scheme for connecting the Volga and the Don is in contemplation, to afford the Volga an outlet into the Black Sea, by a canal, 35 miles long, which will have to surmount a difference of level at its extremities of 126 feet, with a greater height at its summit-level, and is to be available for vessels of 500 tons. Its estimated cost is nearly £4,000,000.

The earliest canals in England were the Foss Dyke and Caer Dyke, in Lincolnshire, 11 and 40 miles long, constructed by the Romans, and improved in the 12th century; and the Foss Dyke is still navigable. The opening of the Aire and Calder Navigation, towards the close of the 17th century, was the first important step in inland navigation in England; but the development of canals in Great Britain, in the latter half of the 18th century, was mainly due to the energy and resources of the Duke of Bridgewater (q.v.), and the skill of his engineer, James Brindley (q.v.), who designed and carried out several of the earlier canals, commencing with the Bridgewater Canal, completed in 1761. A great number of canals were constructed between 1788 and 1805; a canal mania, similar to subsequent railway manias, occurred in 1791–94; and the last inland canal was completed about 1834. The depth of most of the canals ranges between 3½ and 5 feet; the smallest lock is 72 feet long, 7 feet wide, and 4 feet depth of water over the sill, and

the largest, on the Aire and Calder, 215 feet by 22 feet by 9 feet, with a variety of intermediate sizes. Railways have caused a great decrease in the canal traffic in England; but some waterways, such as the Aire and Calder and the Weaver navigations, and the Gloucester and Berkeley Canal, compete successfully with railways for heavy goods. Indeed; if the canals had not partially fallen into the hands of the railway companies, and if an effort had been made to secure uniformity in depth and in the size of locks on the principal lines, as in France, it is probable that a fair traffic would have been maintained with great benefit to the country. There are 2688 miles of canals in England, 85 miles in Scotland, and 256 miles in Ireland, making 3029 miles of canals in the United Kingdom; whilst

120 miles of canals have been converted into railways. The largest canals of Great Britain are the Gloucester and Berkeley Canal, with a depth of 15 feet, enabling vessels of 600 tons to go from Sharpness to Gloucester, a distance of 17 miles; the Aire and Calder Navigation, 9 feet deep, on which steam-towage with a train of barges has been successfully carried out; the Caledonian Canal (q.v.), with a depth of 17 feet, which, by the aid of intervening locks, crosses Scotland and affords a passage for vessels of 300 tons; the Crinan Canal, 12 feet deep, across the peninsula of Kintyre, providing a short cut for vessels of 160 tons; and the Forth and Clyde Canal, with a depth of 10 feet.

America, with its vast extent, and large rivers and lakes, affords ample scope for canals connecting separate navigations. The Erie Canal in New York, connecting Lake Erie with the Hudson River, is 365½ miles long, with a total rise and fall of 656½ feet; it is from 53 to 79 feet wide at the bottom, from 70 to 98 feet at the surface, varies from 7½ to 9½ feet in depth, and can be traversed by vessels of 240 tons. The Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, of about the same size as the Erie Canal, was commenced near Georgetown on the Potomac in 1828, and carried out for 186 miles, as far as Cumberland, by 1850; but its completion to Pittsburgh on the Ohio, making a total distance of 341 miles, has not yet been effected, though it was proposed, in 1875, to cross the Alleghany Mountains with a series of inclines, and a tunnel at the summit, 3½ miles long. The connection between the St Lawrence and the large lakes of North America has been completed by the St Lawrence canals between Lake Ontario and Montreal, and by the Welland Canal for avoiding the falls and rapids of Niagara. The size of these canals has been increased thrice since 1825; and locks 270 feet long, 45 feet wide, and 14 feet deep, were decided upon in 1875. The Welland Canal having been deepened to 14 feet, widened to 100 feet at the bottom, and provided with locks of the above dimensions, was reopened in 1882; and by the completion of the works on the St Lawrence canals, vessels of 1000 to 1500 tons will be able to go from Lake Erie to Montreal. The Morris Canal connects the Delaware at Philipsburg with the Hudson at Jersey City, crossing a spur of the Alleghany by the inclines already mentioned; it is 102 miles long, and accommodates vessels of 80 tons.

SHIP-CANALS.—A few canals of larger dimensions, and capable of admitting large ocean-going steamers, have recently been constructed, or are in course of construction. These canals are designed either to cut across isthmuses, and thus greatly shorten the distance by sea between certain countries, or to place inland towns in direct communication by water with the sea. The Suez, Panama, and Corinth canals are examples of the

first class; and the Amsterdam and Manchester ship-canal of the second.

Suez Canal.—The canal cutting through the Isthmus of Suez, and thereby connecting the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, was commenced in 1860, and completed in 1869. The Suez Canal (q.v.) is about 100 miles long, and has a bottom width of 72 feet and a depth of 26 feet, with passing places at suitable intervals (fig. 1). The traffic, however, of the canal has so much increased, and

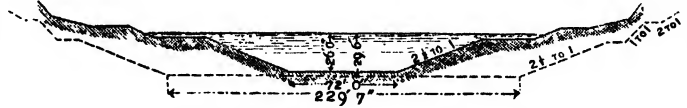


Fig. 1.

the advantages of an increased draught for vessels has been so clearly established, that the canal is about to be widened to a bottom width of about 229½ feet, and deepened to 28 feet, and eventually to 29½ feet as shown by the dotted lines on the section.

Panama Canal.—The route preferred by M. de Lesseps for connecting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, is at about the narrowest part of the isthmus, between Aspinwall (Colon) and Panama, nearly along the line of the Panama Railway. A canal along this route, 47 miles long, was commenced in 1882, known as the Panama Canal (q.v.), which was designed to be level throughout, like the Suez Canal, and to traverse the Culebra range in a cutting of 300 feet maximum depth; but the increased cost of the work, and the difficulty of raising sufficient additional capital, has compelled M. de Lesseps to reduce the amount of cutting by resorting to a locked canal, which originally he had rejected as inadequate for the anticipated traffic. The canal is to be 72 feet wide at the bottom, with side slopes of about 1½ to 1, and a depth of water of 27 feet (fig. 2),

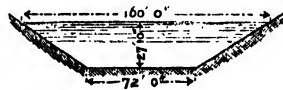


Fig. 2.

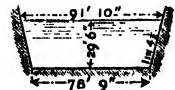


Fig. 3.

except through the rock cutting of the Culebra, where the depth and width are to be increased as shown on the section (fig. 3).

Nicaragua Canal.—Another scheme for crossing the Isthmus of Panama by water, designed by an American engineer, and for which a concession was granted in 1887, and a company formed, consists in uniting Lake Nicaragua by a canal with the San Juan River, and thus with the Atlantic, and forming another portion of canal connecting the lake with the Pacific. This route will be 180 miles long; and it will be necessary to rise to the summit-level at or near the lake, which is to be effected by two or three locks, on either side, having each a lift of from 50 to 120 feet, and to improve the San Juan River. Harbours also will be required at either end; and as the mouth of the San Juan River, at Greytown, is liable to be exposed to accumulations of silt, it is proposed to place the harbour on the Atlantic side a little to the north.

Isthmus of Corinth Canal.—A canal was proposed across the Isthmus of Corinth long before the Christian era; and works for it were actually commenced in the reign of Nero, of which traces still remain. The canal, which will shorten the distances between several of the ports of the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, has been again undertaken, the

works having been commenced in 1882. The canal is 4 miles long; and the central portion traverses a cutting in rock, of which the maximum depth



Fig. 4.

will be 285 feet, the section of the canal at this part being shown on fig. 4. It is open throughout, with bottom width 72 feet, and its depth 26½ feet, like the original Suez Canal; and solid jetties have been built out into the sea for protecting the entrances at each end. Its estimated cost is over £1,000,000.

Baltic Canal.—The Holstein Canal, 26 miles long, connecting the river Eider, which flows into the North Sea, with the Baltic, near Kiel, was opened in 1785, for enabling vessels of 120 tons to pass from the Baltic to the North Sea by a transit across Holstein of about 100 miles, saving the circuitous and difficult voyage round Jutland. As this canal is only 51½ feet wide at the bottom, and 9½ feet deep, it can only be traversed by small vessels; so the Baltic Canal (q.v.) has been projected for enabling large sea-going vessels to take a short cut, saving 237 miles, between the Baltic and North seas, by traversing Holstein. The canal is to start from Holtenau on the Baltic, near Kiel, where a lock has been commenced, and using a portion of the Eider, will join the Elbe at Brunsbüttel; its length will be about 60 miles, bottom width 85 feet, depth 28 feet, water-level same as the Baltic, greatest depth of cutting 100 feet, and cost about £8,000,000.

Amsterdam Ship-canal.—Though the canal connecting Amsterdam with the North Sea, severs the peninsula of North Holland, and unites the Zuider-Zee with the North Sea, its object was to afford more direct outlet for the trade of Amsterdam to the ocean than the shallow Zuider-Zee and the North Holland Canal could give, as this trade was being seriously imperilled by the better access to the sea possessed by Rotterdam and Antwerp. The direct route lay through Lake Y and Wyker Meer, so that only a narrow neck of dry land, 3 miles wide and of small elevation, had to be excavated between Velsen and the North Sea; and the reclamation of these lakes, by banks formed along the canal by dredged material raised from the bottom for deepening, defrayed a portion of the cost of the work (fig. 5). The canal is suited for sea-

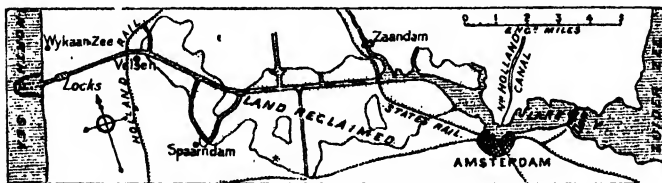


Fig. 5.

going vessels of large size, being wider at the base (fig. 6), and only 3 feet shallower than the original Suez Canal section; its length is 16½ miles. Locks near each end of the canal, with gates pointing both ways, give perfect control over the water-level of the canal, which is kept only 14 inches above low-water in the North Sea to maintain the drainage of the reclaimed lands, and the adjacent low-lying lands which formerly drained into the lakes. The drainage water which flows in from the branch canals, and is also pumped into the canal from the reclaimed lands, is lifted from the canal, and discharged into the Zuider-Zee, by pumps adjoining the locks situated in the dam which shuts off the Zuider-Zee from the canal and the reclaimed

lands. Two converging concrete breakwaters protect the entrance channel, which has been dredged through the shallow sandy foreshore of the North

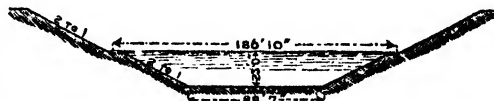


Fig. 6.

Sea coast. The works were commenced in 1865, and completed in 1876, at a cost of about £2,600,000; and the canal has proved of great benefit to the trade of Amsterdam.

Ghent-Terneuzen Canal.—The access to Ghent by the river Scheldt is so circuitous that various ways have been resorted to, since 1251, to give Ghent more direct communication with the sea. As the earlier, partially natural, routes had silted up, a new outlet was provided by a canal joining the estuary of the Scheldt at Terneuzen, completed in 1827; this route being only 21 miles, as compared with 105 miles along the Scheldt. As this canal had become inadequate for the present class of vessels, it was enlarged and deepened in 1870-85, being given an available depth of 19½ feet, which can be easily increased to 22½ feet, and a bottom width of 55½ feet, with side slopes of 3 to 1; so that now vessels of from 1400 to 1700 tons can go up to Ghent.

St Petersburg and Kronstadt Ship-canal.—A canal was commenced in 1877, and completed in 1884, for enabling sea-going vessels to reach St Petersburg, which the bar at the mouth of the Neva, and the want of depth in the Gulf of Finland as far as Kronstadt, a distance of 18½ miles, had previously prevented. The canal starts from the Neva at St Petersburg, and after going south-west for about 2 miles, it curves round, and proceeds in a straight line north-west to Kronstadt. It is 22 feet deep throughout; it has a bottom width of 207 feet for the first portion, enlarging to 275 feet; and its embankments terminate 10 miles from Kronstadt, whence it proceeds in an open channel dredged through the Gulf. The total cost of the work was about £1,240,000.

Manchester Ship-canal.—The scheme for connecting Manchester with the sea, by a canal from Manchester to the Mersey estuary, which excited vehement opposition from the Liverpool and railway interests during three sessions, was finally authorised by parliament in 1885. The canal starts in deep water at Eastham, on the left bank of the Mersey, above Liverpool, and nearly opposite Garston; and after skirting the shore of the estuary up to Runcorn, it cuts into the land, and following approximately the course of the Irwell

higher up, it terminates at Trafford Bridge, in Manchester, where docks, 85½ acres in extent, are to be constructed. The canal will be 35 miles long; its depth will be 26 feet, and its bottom width 120 feet, with slopes of 1 to 1 in good ground (fig. 7), well pitched

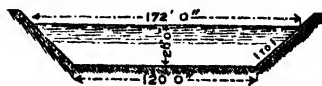


Fig. 7.

with stones to secure them against erosion by wash. The tidal locks at Eastham will have their sills 20 feet below low-water, so that vessels will be able to enter and leave the canal at about half-tide; and

the lift of these locks will be $16\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The canal will be divided into four reaches, $20\frac{1}{2}$ miles, $7\frac{3}{4}$, $2\frac{1}{2}$, and 4 miles long, between Eastham and Trafford Bridge, by locks at Latchford, Irlam, and Barton, with lifts of $16\frac{1}{2}$ feet, 14, and 14 feet respectively. There will be three sets of locks at each place, 550 feet long by 60 feet wide, 300 feet by 40 feet, and 100 feet by 20 feet, with intermediate gates in the two larger locks, to accommodate a great variety of vessels. The passage through a lock is to be accomplished in eight minutes, and the transit along the canal in eight hours, steamers going at a speed of 5 miles an hour. The cost of the works, which were begun near Eastham in the latter half of 1887, is estimated at £5,330,000. The Bridge-water Canal will be carried over the ship-canal in a swing aqueduct, which will have to be opened for the passage of masted vessels along the ship-canal; and a hydraulic lift will afford communication between the two canals.

Various Ship-canal Schemes.—Several other schemes, besides the works referred to above, have been proposed. Thus a ship-canal across the projecting peninsula of Florida has been contemplated; schemes have been brought forward for enabling sea-going vessels to reach Paris and Brussels; and a plan was proposed in 1887 for improving the waterways between Birmingham and the Bristol Channel, at a cost of £1,890,000, to enable vessels of 200 tons to get up to Birmingham. A design has also been worked out for shortening the route to the east coast of India, by about 350 miles, by cutting through the island of Rameswaram, and thus making a navigable channel between Ceylon and India, through the Gulf of Manar and the Palk Straits, at a cost of about £1,000,000.

A company was started in 1888 for the construction of a canal, $7\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, through the Isthmus of Perekop, which connects the Crimea with the mainland of Russia. This canal will connect the Sea of Azov at the Don basin, with the north-western part of the Black Sea and the Dnieper basin. This Black Sea and Azov Canal is to be made 14 feet deep; and its construction is expected to occupy four years.

A scheme for forming another junction between the Mediterranean and Red seas, consists in cutting a canal, 25 miles long, from Haifa, in the Bay of Acre, through the plain of Esdraelon, to the Jordan valley, and another canal, 20 miles long, from the Gulf of Akabah towards the Dead Sea into the Araba defile, whereby the waters of the Red Sea would flow into the depression of the Dead Sea, 1308 feet below the level of the Mediterranean, flooding this hollow and the Jordan valley. A vast inland lake would thus be formed, on which vessels could steam at full speed without the hindrances of the narrow Suez Canal. But the elevation of the land between the Red Sea and the Dead Sea is so great as to render this scheme almost impossible.

Another scheme aims at flooding a vast depression in the African desert, south of Algeria and Tunis, by cutting a canal from the Mediterranean, which would be enlarged by natural seepage, and thus create an inland sea, 3160 sq. m. in extent, which would transform the climate of the adjacent lands, and afford them easy access to the sea.

These proposals show that the resources of canal enterprise are far from being exhausted; and that though railways have, for a time, affected the prosperity of small canals, the advantages of inland water-communication are becoming more clearly recognised, and the great value of ship-canal for sea-going trade has been firmly established.

THE CANAL-BOATS ACTS, 1877 and 1884, provide for the proper sanitary condition of canal-boats

when used as dwellings. These acts also contain provision for the registration of such vessels by the local sanitary authorities through whose districts the boats ply; such boats being officially numbered and marked in a conspicuous place. Power is also given to fix the number, age, and sex of persons permitted to dwell in a boat. The local sanitary authority has the power, in the case of infectious diseases, of enforcing the Public Health Act of 1875. The education of children residing in these registered boats is assumed by the Elementary Education Acts to be as if residing in the place of registration, unless actually attending a school. Canal companies are empowered to establish schools for canal children. Masters and owners who do not satisfy the requirements of the Canal-boats Acts are liable to fines recoverable on summary conviction before two justices. The Local Government Board and also the Education Department must report each year to parliament on the execution of these acts—the former being also compelled to appoint inspectors, who are invested with powers similar to those of the Poor-law inspectors, to see that the provisions of the Canal-boats Acts are duly carried out.

Canaletto, or CANALE, the name of two Venetian painters, celebrated for their landscapes and views of towns. The elder, ANTONIO, was born in 1697, and studied at Rome. He painted a series of views in Venice, among which those of the Grand Canal are especially admirable for their fresh colouring, faithfulness, and the invention displayed in accessory objects. He paid two visits to England, but died in his native city, 20th August 1768. His nephew, BERNARDO BELLOTTO, surnamed CANALETTO, was born in 1720, and attained high excellence as a painter, and also as an engraver on copper. He practised his art in his native place, and afterwards in Rome, Verona, Brescia, Milan, and Dresden. Correct perspective, powerful effects of light and shade, and beautiful sky-tints, are the most prominent characteristics of his works. Canaletto visited England, where, among several other excellent works, he painted a masterly interior of King's College Chapel, Cambridge. He died in Warsaw, 17th October 1780. See R. Meyer, *Die beiden Canaletti* (Dresden, 1878).

Canandaigua, the capital of Ontario county, New York, at the north end of Lake Canandaigua, 28 miles SE. of Rochester by rail. Pop. (1880) 5726.

Canarium, an oriental genus of Amyridaceæ (see TEREBINTHACEÆ). *C. commune* is a native of the Moluccas, but introduced into many parts of tropical Asia. It is a tree about 50 feet high; its fruit is a drupe, of which the large kernel is eaten raw like almonds, roasted like chestnuts, or even made into a kind of bread. The tree also yields a resin. Other species yield a black dammar—like pitch (see DAMMAR), and also afford one of the sources of Elemi (q.v.).

Canary Bird, a beautiful but very common cage-bird, much esteemed for its musical powers. It is one of the family of finches (Fringillidæ), and is *Fringilla Canaria* of Linnaeus. Some modern ornithologists place it in the genus *Carduelis*, others in *Linota*; it is indeed intermediate between these genera, the goldfinches and the linnets. It is found in Madeira, the Canary and Cape Verd Isles; frequents the neighbourhood of human habitations; builds its nest of moss, feathers, hair, &c., in thick, bushy, high shrubs or trees; and produces from two to four broods in a season. In its wild state its plumage is olive-green or greenish-yellow, tinged with brown, and the yellow cage-birds have been produced by selective breeding in domestication. It was brought to Europe in the beginning of the 16th century. It breeds readily in confinement,

seems thoroughly reconciled to its cage-life, and if handled when young becomes very tame and fearless. In confinement the canary often breeds three or four times a year, laying from four to six eggs each time. The eggs are pale blue. The male assists the female in building the nest and in feeding the young. Besides canary and millet seed, which are their principal food, canaries are very fond of flowering groundsel and chickweed, a very small supply of which is necessary for their health; and one of their favourite luxuries is sugar. The canary not unfrequently lives 15 or 16 years. It can be taught various notes and airs, and even learn to articulate words. The rearing and training



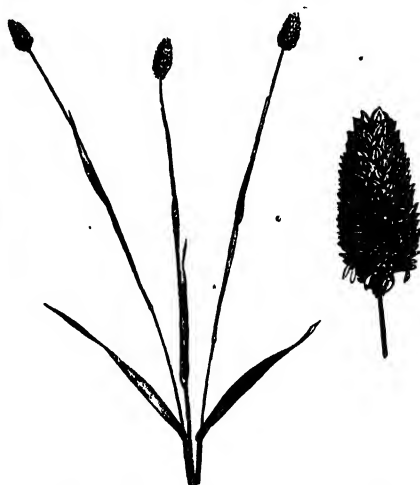
Norwich Canary.

of canaries afford occupation to no small number of persons, particularly in the Tyrol. The canary hybridises readily with some other species of finch, producing 'mules,' some kinds of which are valued as song-birds. There are several species very closely allied to the canary, one of which, the Saffron Finch, a beautiful little bird, a native of Brazil, is sometimes sold in Britain as a song-bird, but its musical powers are very inferior to those of *Fringilla Canaria*.

Distinct varieties have been produced by scientific selective breeding, and these reproduce their distinctive characteristics, and 'like breeds like' so long as the varieties are not crossed. The hardest are the Norwich; the largest are Lancashire Copsies; the most costly and delicate are Belgians; and Lizards, London Fancies, Yorkshires, Scotch Fancies, and Cinnamons complete the list. By giving sponge-cake and cayenne pepper mixed, instead of seed at the period of moult, the plumage is artificially coloured, becoming very brilliant; and canaries apparently relish this fiery diet and thrive upon it. See CAGE-BIRDS; and works by Blakston (1880), Gedney (1884), Holden (1883); and F. Smith (1876).

Canary Grass (*Phalaris canariensis*), a grass of which the seed is much used, under the name of *canary-seed*, as food for cage-birds, and which is on that account cultivated to some extent in the south of Europe, and in certain districts of Germany and England. It has become naturalised in many parts of Northern Europe, including Britain, but is a native of Southern Europe and the Canaries, where it sometimes furnishes a wholesome and palatable addition to or substitute for wheaten flour. It is largely grown for seed in Southern California. The large Reed Canary Grass (*P. arundinacea*), common on river banks, is an abundant source

of coarse fodder. A striped variegated variety is



Canary Grass (*Phalaris canariensis*).

cultivated as 'gardeners' garters,' 'ribbon grass,' or 'ladies' traces.'

Canary Islands, a group of islands belonging to Spain in the Atlantic Ocean, off the NW. coast of Africa, in 27° 40'—29° 25' N. lat., and 13° 25'—18° 16' W. long., forming a Spanish province. The group consists of seven large and several small islets, with a joint area of about 2800 sq. m., and a pop. of (1887) 280,000. The principal islands, proceeding from east to west, are Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, Gran Canaria, Tenerife, Gomera, Palma, and Hierro or Ferro. The distance from Fuerteventura to the African coast is about 62½ geographical miles. The coasts are steep and rocky, and the surface is diversified with high mountains, narrow gorges, and deep valleys. All the islands are volcanic, and everywhere show plain marks of their origin, in the shape of cones, craters, beds of tuff and pumice, and streams of lava; but eruptions have taken place within the historical period only in Tenerife, Palma, and Lanzarote. There are no rivers, and on several of the islands water is very scarce. The springs on those better supplied are diverted by long artificial channels for the purpose of irrigation.

Upwards of 900 species of wild flowering plants have been found on these islands. About 420 of them are peculiar to the group, and 48 others are common to it and to the other groups of North Atlantic islands, but found nowhere else. Above the region of cultivated plants in Tenerife and Grand Canary are found four species of laurel and other evergreen trees belonging to the genera *Notelara*, *Ardisia*, *Visnea*, *Rhamnus*, &c. Higher still are forests of the handsome *Pinus canariensis*, and large tracts are covered with arborescent heaths and brooms of many species. Looking at the flora as a whole, it is seen to be mainly of a South European character, with a large infusion of genera allied to African types. As to the cultivated plants, the warmth of the lowest region allows of the growth of the sugar-cane, sweet potato, bananas, date-palm, and other natives of hot climates; whilst above, to the height of about 3000 feet, the vine and various cereals are cultivated in a climate resembling that of the south of Europe.

Minerals are few and of little importance. The temperature near the sea is genial. Taking Puerto Orotava on the north coast of Tenerife as an example, the annual mean is about 69·5° F.; the mean

of January and February, the two coldest months, is 62°25'; the mean of August, the hottest month, is 77°2'; the daily range during the colder months is from 10° to 17°. The mean annual fall of rain amounts to about 14 inches, and the mean number of days on which rain falls during the year is 52. Rain falls irregularly on the coast from November to April; for the rest of the year the cultivators of the soil rely upon artificial irrigation. The north-east trade winds prevail for eight months, April to October; during the remaining months south-west winds are prevalent. Occasionally the islands are visited by hot east and south-east winds from Africa, which bring dust and are otherwise disagreeable. In consequence of the higher temperature, the less rainfall, and drier atmosphere compared with Madeira, and of the much increased facilities for reaching the islands, Orotava and Las Palmas are coming into note as winter-resorts for invalids.

A few years ago cochineal was the staple production, but the competition of aniline dyes has been severely felt, and cochineal, no longer bringing in a good profit, has fallen into neglect. The cultivation of the vine (almost ruined after 1853 by the grape disease—see VINE) and sugar-cane is extending: wine being exported to the European continent, and sugar to Spain. Tobacco is also grown. The Spanish government is making great efforts to ameliorate the condition of the islands, and to attract commerce. Excellent roads have been formed; the ports of Santa Cruz and Las Palmas are being improved; a large harbour of refuge is in process of construction at Las Palmas, and the ports have been made free, no duties being levied on goods wherever they may come from. The steamers of many English and French lines now touch at the Canaries, and there are coal depôts at Santa Cruz and Las Palmas. British consuls or vice-consuls are stationed at these and other places in the islands. Submarine cables connect them telegraphically both with the continent of Europe and the African coast.

TENERIFE, the largest island of the group, has an area of 877 miles, with a population of 112,000. The chief town and port is Santa Cruz de Santiago (q.v.), on the south-east coast. It is the seat of the officials of the general government. The other towns are Laguna, a few miles from Santa Cruz, on a plain 1800 feet above the sea; Puerto Orotava, on the north coast; Villa Orotava, 1060 feet higher; and Icod de los Vinos, near which the largest existing dragon-tree grows. The famous Peak of Tenerife (q.v.) is in the north-west of the island.

GRAN CANARIA, which is next in importance, has an area of 758 sq. m., with a population of 80,000. Its culminating peak is El Cumbre, with a height of 6648 feet. The capital, Las Palmas (q.v.), on the east coast, is the largest town of the archipelago. The surface of this island is so broken that only a small part is under cultivation. At Artinara, at a height of 3850 feet, there is a village of caves, with a population of 1100 persons. A few miles from Las Palmas is the cone of Vaudama, 1800 feet high, with an extinct crater, circular and perfect, 800 feet deep.

PALMA, a classic spot for geologists, has an area of 718 sq. m., and a population of 36,000. Its highest peak, Pico de los Muchachos, has an elevation of more than 7600 feet. The ancient crater of the Caldera is of enormous size, though open to the sea on one side. Capital, Santa Cruz de las Palmas (q.v.), on the east coast.

The area and population of the other islands are as follows: LANZAROTE is 323 sq. m., pop. 19,000; FUERTEVENTURA, 326 sq. m., pop. 15,000; GOMERA, 169 sq. m., pop. 13,000; HIERRO, 82 sq. m., pop. 5000. In former times the first meridian of longi-

tude was commonly drawn through Hierro. The chief towns of these islands are small.

The Canaries are supposed to have been the Fortunate Islands of the ancients. The geographers of Greece and Rome were acquainted with their position, and King Juba's account of them has been preserved by the elder Pliny. For many centuries they were lost sight of, and not rediscovered until 1334, when a French vessel was driven amongst them by a storm. In 1402 the Norman Jean de Bethencourt fitted out an expedition for the purpose of subduing the islands, and in 1404, having obtained assistance from Spain, he succeeded in mastering four of them. His successor having sold his rights in Spain, they were afterwards acquired by the king, who sent a large force in 1477 to conquer the Guanches, a brave and intelligent race of large stature, and comparatively fair. Their origin is unknown, but they are assumed by many to have been of Berber or of Libyan stock. Their resistance was so stubborn, that it was not until 1495 that the last of the islands was mastered. They have been ever since the property of Spain. The Guanches suffered terribly from their conquerors, and have long ceased to exist as a separate people; but in the local museums may be seen specimens of their mummies, skeletons, weapons, and pottery works. See Pegot-Ogier, *The Fortunate Islands* (Eng. trans. 2 vols. 1882); Olivia Stone, *Tenerife and its Six Satellites* (1888).

Canary Plant. See TROPÆOLUM.

Canary Wine. also known as TENERIFE, is the produce of the Canary Islands, the best known being called Bidogne or Vidonia wine, which is a dry white wine resembling Madeira, but with less body and perfume. It is produced chiefly on the island of Tenerife. The name *Canary* was formerly applied generally to dry white wines, which were frequently seasoned with sugar, cinnamon, nutmeg, roasted apples, and eggs.

Cancale, a town and bathing-place in the French department of Ille-et-Vilaine, 8 miles ENE. of St Malo, on the bay of the same name, famous for its oysters. Pop. (1886) 3610; with the port, La Houle, 6562.

Cancan is an ungraceful dance, something of the nature of a quadrille, but accompanied by violent leaps and indecorous contortions of the body, practised in French dancing-saloons. The earlier and usual meaning of the word in French is noise, racket, scandal; and is derived, oddly enough, from the Latin conjunction *quamquam*, 'although,'—a great squabble having arisen in the French medieval law-schools as to the pronunciation of this word.

Cancellaria, or LATTICE-SHELL, a large genus of Gasteropods (Snails) in the order Prosobranchiata, and not far removed from the cone-shells. The shell is usually buckie or whelk-like, but the transverse lines are crossed by longitudinal bars, which produce a pretty lattice-like pattern. The animal differs from its neighbours in being vegetarian. There are 115 living species, and more than half as many fossil in the Tertiary strata. *C. reticulata* is a common South Atlantic species.

Cancelling of Deeds and Wills. The word cancel comes from the Lat. *cancelli* (lattice-work), and a deed was formerly said to be cancelled when lines were drawn over it in the form of lattice-work. The word cancel is now used to signify any sort of obliteration, as where a banker cancels a paid cheque. The common forms of cancellation known to the law are the cancellation of an English deed by striking out the signatures and tearing off the seal, and the cancellation of a will in England

or Scotland by striking out the signatures or the whole contents. In the case of writings for valuable consideration little difficulty occurs, for where parties mean to annul the obligation, the cancelled writing will be generally given to the former debtor. The Chancery Division of the High Court of Justice has always exercised a jurisdiction for the cancelling of contracts and settlements which are void or voidable, especially on some ground of constructive fraud against public policy.—e.g. a marriage settlement on which marriage has not followed; also in cases where a purchaser after time given refuses to pay the price of land bought. In testamentary matters, as the cancelled writing remains in the repositories, it is sometimes difficult to know whether the intention really was to revoke or destroy. The English Wills Act presumes against revocation, except in cases of actual burning and tearing. The Scottish law would generally take the cancellation of a signature as conclusive, but such cases depend on circumstances. Difficult questions have arisen under the Joint Stock Companies Act as to cancellation of shares and the effect of that on the liability of a contributory. See Snell's *Principles of Equity*, and Buckley on the Companies Act.

Cancer, the *Crab*, the fourth of the twelve constellations of the zodiac. See ZODIAC; also ECLIPTIC, PRECESSION; and for the TROPIC OF CANCER, see TROPICS.

Cancer (Lat., 'a crab'), or CARCINOMA (Gr.), is the medical name for an important group of malignant tumours (see TUMOUR). The term cancer used to be applied to malignant tumours generally, but recent research, with the aid of the microscope, into their structure has led to their division into two groups—Carcinomata and Sarcomata (q.v.); and cancer is now used only of the first. To prevent confusion, carcinoma is generally used in preference to cancer in scientific works, but the more familiar name will be retained here.

Cancer may be defined as a tumour consisting of masses of cells of an epithelial type, grouped together irregularly within the spaces of a framework of fibrous tissue. The form of the cells, as seen under the microscope, usually corresponds in some degree to that of the normal epithelium of the part in connection with which the primary tumour has developed, and on this the classification of the different forms of cancer is partly based. *Flat-celled* cancer or *epithelioma* occurs most commonly as a primary tumour on the lips, tongue, penis, and near the anus; *Columnar-celled* or *adenoid* (gland-like) cancer, in the stomach and intestines. *Scirrhus* or *hard*, and *encephaloid* or *soft* cancer, have cells of less characteristic form, but usually more or less rounded, and differ from each other structurally only in the greater or less abundance of the fibrous framework. They are most common as primary tumours in the female breast, the womb, and certain parts of the alimentary canal. *Colloid* cancer is a hard or soft cancer in which the cells undergo rapid and extensive degeneration into a gelatinous mass.

These different forms of cancer differ widely in their rate of growth and degree of malignancy. Epithelioma is the slowest in its progress, and comparatively rarely gives rise to growths in internal organs. Soft cancer usually grows with great rapidity, and secondary tumours in internal organs are apt to appear early.

The general structure of the secondary tumours usually corresponds to that of the primary; but they are often softer and show greater activity of growth, so that when they appear the progress of the disease is accelerated. These secondary tumours are believed usually to result from a transference of

infective elements from the primary growth, either in the lymph or the blood, to some resting-place where they determine the growth of a new tumour. The lymphatic glands in the neighbourhood of the primary growth are usually first affected, and are by far the most constant site of secondary growths. But any portion of the body, even the most distant, may suffer; most commonly the liver or the lungs.

The symptoms attending the early development of cancer, even cancer affecting the same part of the body, are very variable. If the disease affect an external organ or tissue, the tumour is generally noticed at an early stage; if an internal organ, on the other hand, some disturbance of its functions, or pain, or general deterioration of the health often appears before the presence of a growth is suspected. But wherever or however it begins, a cancerous tumour always tends to increase, with breaking down of the older portions, ulceration, and fetid discharge, to encroach upon neighbouring tissues, to set up secondary growths, and ultimately to cause the death of the patient. The cases where an undoubtedly cancerous tumour has spontaneously disappeared are so very rare, that the above statement, for practical purposes, hardly needs qualification. The duration of the case may be a few months or many years, according to the part affected and the malignancy of the tumour. The symptoms produced, and the mode in which the disease causes death, are almost as various as the organs affected. But in the later stages there is nearly always loss of appetite, flesh, and strength, and a peculiarly unhealthy, sallow appearance. Cancer is popularly believed to be an intensely painful disease, and in many cases really is so; but it is most important that it should be known that it may, and often does, run its whole course to the fatal issue without any pain whatever.

The causation of cancer is a most complex and obscure problem. It is rare before middle life, and after that period becomes increasingly frequent as age advances. The tendency to its development is frequently hereditary. It is more common in the female sex, because the womb and female breast are its most common situations; excluding these organs, it is probably more common in the male than the female. It sometimes occurs in situations where an injury has been sustained, and more frequently where there has been long-continued irritation. But here our certain knowledge with regard to it ends. It has been maintained by some that cancer is always from the first a constitutional disease; that the local tumour is merely an expression of a vitiated state of the constitution, or *cachexia*, and therefore that its removal is useless. But it is undoubted that in the vast majority of cases the patient's health is otherwise good when the growth begins, and that it remains for a time limited to its original seat; moreover, cases are not uncommon where early removal of the primary tumour has been followed by no return of the disease. It seems reasonable therefore to conclude that cancer is at first a merely local process, at least in many cases, and only secondarily becomes a constitutional disease.

The analogy between the behaviour of cancer and that of certain diseases known to be produced by microscopic parasites (e.g. leprosy, tuberculosis) has led to a suspicion that some such agent may be present in cancer too; but no positive evidence has yet been found in support of this view.

The leading character of cancer being a tumour or morbid growth in a part, it is important to observe that not all, nor even the majority, of morbid growths are cancerous. A very large proportion of growths, involving swelling or change of structure in a part, are either determined by a previous process of inflammation—leading to chronic

abscess and induration—or belong to the simple or non-malignant order of tumours.

Now, the practical distinction, or *diagnosis*, to use the technical phrase, of these different tumours is founded upon a very careful and delicate appreciation of the characters of the malignant and non-malignant tumours, considered as morbid products, and also upon a thorough knowledge of the anatomy and relations of the textures in which they arise. The attempt, therefore, to determine the character of a particular growth must always call for the highest qualities of the surgeon—large experience, minute and thorough knowledge of natural and morbid structure and function, and a full and judicial consideration of all the various facts of the case. Indeed the difficulties of the inquiry are such that even in the dead body, or in a tumour excised from the living body, all the resources of the anatomist, aided by the microscope, will occasionally fail in distinctly and surely discovering the true character of the morbid structure.

Generally speaking, a tumour may be said to fall under the suspicion of being cancer when it more or less completely infiltrates the texture in which it arises, and passes from it into the surrounding textures; when it invades the lymphatic glands adjoining the part first affected; when it is attended by stinging or darting pains, or by obstinate and slowly extending ulceration, not due to pressure; when it occurs in a person having impaired health, or past the middle period of life, and is not traceable to any known cause of inflammatory disease or local irritation, nor to any other known constitutional disease, such as syphilis or scrofula. The probabilities are of course increased if the tumour be in one of the habitual seats of cancer, or if it be attended by evidence of disease in some internal organ known to be frequently thus affected. But it is hardly necessary to point out that the very complex elements of diagnosis here referred to ought to be always submitted to the scrutiny and judgment of a well-educated medical adviser, whose skill and personal character place him above suspicion, before the disease has assumed such a form as to be beyond the reach of remedial procedure. The patient who broods in secret over a suspicion of cancer, or who declines to apply for advice from a fear of encountering the truth, is in all probability only cherishing the seeds of future suffering; while if, as often happens, the suspicion is unfounded, a few minutes' careful examination would suffice to remove a source of misery which otherwise would poison the mind for years.

These remarks apply still more emphatically to the misguided persons who trust to the non-professional *cancer-curer*, or to the quasi-professional specialist. The charlatan who pretends to hold in his hands a secret remedy for this most terrible disease, will invariably be found to pronounce almost every tumour cancer, and every cancer curable. By this indiscriminating procedure, and by the fallacious promise of a cure without an operation, many persons who have never been affected with cancer at all, have been persuaded to submit to the slow torture of successive cauterisations by powerful caustics, at the expense of needless mutilation and no small risk to life. In other cases, truly cancerous tumours have been removed slowly and imperfectly, at the cost of frightful and protracted sufferings, only to return at the end of a few weeks; and Sir Spencer Wells has shown that in some notorious instances persons were reported as cured when they had actually died of the disease at no long period after the supposed cure was stated to have taken place. (*Cancer and Cancer-curers*, 1860.)

The occasional spontaneous disappearance of

cancerous tumours alluded to above warrants the hope that a means may some day be found of inducing by drugs or otherwise the occurrence of a curative process thus shown not to be beyond the possible. As yet, however, it is only a hope; for none of the many remedies that have been suggested has ever stood the test of experience. The only means of cure yet recognised is complete removal of the tumour by operation or by caustics. It is only in the earliest stage of the disease that there is any prospect of a successful result; and unfortunately the majority of patients present themselves to the surgeon when that stage has passed. Moreover, even in cases where the tumour has been early and freely removed, recurrence too often disappoints the hopes of the patient and the surgeon. But when the tumour is seen early, when there are no secondary growths, and when the patient's health is good, it is considered by the great majority of surgeons that he should be given the chance of cure which an operation affords.

In aged persons the question often resolves itself into a calculation of the chances of life, founded on a great number of conflicting data, and only to be solved by a careful attention to the state of the general health, as well as to the rate of progress of the local disease. Operations are now very rarely performed after the lymphatic glands are involved, or when there is evidence of a deteriorated constitution, or of internal disease; but sometimes great pain, or profuse and exhausting discharge from an external tumour, may justify its removal, as a palliative measure, even under these unfavourable circumstances. For the mode of removal of cancerous and other tumours, see TUMOURS; and see also the articles HEART, STOMACH, &c.

Among the lower animals this disease is more rare; nevertheless, cases are not unfrequent, presenting the same malignant characters as those observed in the human subject.

Cancer Root, or BEECH-DROPS (*Epiphegus virginiana*), a parasitic herb of the order *Orobanchæ* (q.v.), a native of North America, growing on the exposed roots of beech-trees. The whole plant is powerfully astringent, and the root is especially bitter and nauseous. In conjunction with arsenious acid, it is believed to have formed a medicine once famous in North America under the name of *Martin's Cancer-powder*.—Another American plant of the same order, *Phelipæa biflora*, sometimes shares the same name and repute in popular medicine; and an infusion of the Common Broomrape (*Orobanchæ major*)—a native of Britain and of the south of Europe, parasitic on the roots of broom, furze, and other leguminous plants—has been employed as a detergent application to foul sores.

Cancioneiro (Span. ; Port, *cancioneiro*, 'song-book'), in general, a collection of lyrical pieces by one or more authors; in particular, the designation of the, so to say, official collections of the poetic guilds which flourished in the middle ages at the courts of Spain and Portugal. The oldest of these works, which in their completeness present a view not only of the poetry, but of the life and thoughts of their time and place, is that of Dom Diniz of Portugal (1279-1325) and his court, a MS. copy of which is in the Vatican; the best edition is the *Cancioneiro Português* of Theophilo Braga (Lisbon, 1878). There are also *cancioneiros* of the courts of Aragon and Castile. These collections were succeeded by others of a more general character, in which the period and locality of the authors were equally disregarded, and the pieces classed simply according to subject. The earliest *Cancioneiro General* was published about the end of the 15th century (2d and enlarged ed. Valencia, 1511). The term is also sometimes applied to a collection

of poems by various authors on one subject, such as the *Vita Christi* (Saragossa, 1492), and improperly in the title of the first collection of Spanish ballads, the *Cancionero de Romances* (Antwerp, n.d.; 2d ed. 1550).

Cancerum Oris, known also as *Noma*, *Water-cancer*, and *Water-canker*, is a peculiar form of mortification or gangrene (q.v.), arising apparently from defective nutrition. The disease seldom occurs except between the second and eleventh years, and is usually preceded by measles, remittent or intermittent fever, or some other serious disease. The following is the ordinary train of symptoms: more or less general disturbance of the system, accompanied by loss of appetite, followed by swelling of the salivary glands, and a profuse flow of fetid saliva, which escapes from the mouth involuntarily during sleep; ulceration of the gums, which swell and become livid; looseness of the teeth; and the appearance of ash-coloured spots on the gums and adjacent mucous membrane, which turn into dark-coloured sloughy sores. These sores spread rapidly by a gangrenous process, expose the bone, and finally make a large aperture in the cheek. In some cases the entire cheek has been destroyed in a very few days. Fortunately, this terrible disease is more rare in this country than in some parts of the Continent, and most of the cases recorded are described by foreign writers. Van Swieten describes a case in which he saw the first set of teeth fall out, the second set destroyed, the lower jaw exfoliated, and the lips, cheeks, tongue, and chin eaten away before the child died. The obvious indications of treatment are to remove the patient to pure air, to administer tonics, nourishing food, and (in moderation) stimulants; to touch the diseased parts with nitrate of silver, or glyceride of carbolic acid, and to wash out the mouth frequently with a weak solution of Condy's fluid.

Candahar. See KANDAHAR.

Candelabrum (Lat. *candela*, 'a candle') is properly a candlestick, but is regularly used also for a lamp-stand. There were hardly any articles of furniture more beautifully wrought than the finer forms of the ancient Roman candelabra. Often from 3 to 10 feet high, they were of great variety of form, and were made of marble, bronze, and the precious metals. The bronze candelabra of the Renaissance are also notable art objects.

Candia is the name of the capital of the island of Crete, and was long the only name by which the island was known in Western Europe. The island is described as CRETE. The city of Candia stands on the north coast of the island, north of Mount Ida, the seat of the governor-general and of the Greek archbishop, and has many old fortifications dating from the time of the Venetian supremacy. Its harbour is sanded up, and its 12,000 inhabitants (mostly Mohammedans) have no manufactures save of soap.

Candle, a cylinder of wax, paraffin, or fatty matter, inclosing a central wick, and intended for giving light. The chief raw materials employed in the manufacture of candles are wax and spermaceti for the more expensive kinds, and tallow, palm-oil, and paraffin for those in general use. Candles are made in three ways—viz. by basting and rolling, by dipping, and by moulding. The first method, basting followed by rolling, is employed in the case of wax, which cannot be moulded satisfactorily on account of its great contraction on cooling and the tenacity with which it adheres to the moulds. Dipping is employed in the case of tallow dips and the more modern 'snuffless dip' candles, both of which are used when a large flame is desired that is not readily extinguished in a draught. The bulk of the candles in use are made by the third method—

viz. moulding. As a large proportion of the candles consumed in the present day are composed of stearin or paraffin, or mixtures of these, the production of these substances therefore deserves most attention. Paraffin candles are most largely used in the United Kingdom, but on the Continent stearin candles are preferred.

Stearin.—This is the trade name for stearic and palmitic acids and mixtures thereof. Previous to the classical researches of Chevreul (1814–25) oils and fats were regarded as simple organic substances, but he proved them to be compound bodies. The neutral fats as they occur in nature are mixtures in variable proportions of the solids stearin or palmitin, and the liquid olein. Thus, fresh tallow consists of a mixture of stearin and olein, and neutral palm-oil of palmitin and olein. These bodies are known to chemists as glycerides or saponifiable fats—that is to say, when heated with an alkali, alkaline earth, or metallic oxide, in the presence of water, soap is formed, and glycerin is set free. When an alkali is used, the soap is soluble in water; but when an alkaline earth—e.g. lime—is employed, an insoluble soap is formed. When the soap is decomposed by the action of sulphuric acid, the fatty acids are liberated, and an insoluble sulphate of lime produced. Thus, from olein are obtained glycerin and oleic acid; from stearin, glycerin and stearic acid; and from palmitin, glycerin and palmitic acid. Chevreul, in conjunction with Gay-Lussac, began the industrial attempt of applying the scientific principles he had discovered, but he was unsuccessful, and it was left to another Frenchman, M. de Milly, to lay the foundation of the stearic acid industry in 1832. The researches of Messrs G. Wilson and Jones in 1842–43, which showed how dark fats could be converted into white fatty acids, gave a great impetus to the manufacture. Up to the time of the introduction of Messrs Wilson and Jones' acidification method, only tallow of good colour was available for conversion into fatty acids.

The process in most general use for converting fats into glycerin and fatty acids (distilled stearin) is briefly as follows: A mixture of palm-oil and tallow is digested in a copper vessel, called an 'autoclave,' with water and a small quantity (about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.) of lime under a pressure of eight atmospheres, and the result is the production of a dilute solution of glycerin ('sweet water') and a mixture of palmitic, stearic, and oleic acids, partly in combination with the lime used as the decomposing agent. The contents of the autoclave are transferred to a tank whence the 'sweet water' is drawn off, and the lime is then separated from the fatty acids by means of sulphuric acid. The fatty acids, which are dark in colour, are now treated with sulphuric acid at a high temperature, and subsequently well boiled with water, and then distilled. The distillate is of a good white colour, and may be used for composite or snuffless dip candles. The next stage in the process is the separation by hydraulic pressure, cold and hot, of the liquid oleic acid from the solid fatty acids. The oleic acid (technically 'olein') is used chiefly by wool-workers for oiling the wool. The solid fatty acids (technically 'stearin') is now ready for the candlemaker. The process here described is employed for the manufacture of what is known in the trade as 'distilled stearin'; but a harder and more expensive material, known as 'saponified stearin,' is prepared from tallow of good colour by saponification and hydraulic pressure, but without acidification or distillation.

Paraffin.—This substance was practically unknown to the candlemaker until 1847–50, when the late Dr James Young discovered the method of producing hydrocarbons by the distillation

of coal at a low red heat. It is now produced in Scotland from shale in large quantities, in the United States from petroleum, in Germany, in smaller quantities, from brown coal, and in Burma, in yet smaller quantities, from Rangoon petroleum. Crude paraffin (technically 'scale') contains, in addition to the harder paraffins suitable for candles, soft paraffin (used by match-makers), and a small proportion of oil. The refining of paraffin is a very simple matter, and is now generally carried on in the way introduced into the works of Price's Patent Candle Company, by the inventor, Mr. Hodges. The scale is melted and cast into thin cakes, which are then placed on sloping shelves in an oven kept at a regulated temperature sufficiently high to melt the soft paraffin. The soft paraffin and oil flow away, and leave behind a mass of hard paraffin, which, after a treatment with ivory or other black, is ready for the candlemaker.

Candle Moulding.—Before describing the manner in which stearin, paraffin, and other candles are moulded, the wicks need attention. Previous to the introduction of plaited wick almost all candles needed to be snuffed from time to time—that is to say, the imperfectly consumed wick standing in the midst of the flame had to be removed by snuffers, a necessary domestic instrument resembling a pair of scissors with a small box attached to one of the limbs. With the plaited wick (which was introduced in France in 1825 by (unbaccères) snuffing is not required, for during combustion the wick bends over, so that the heated extremity receives a supply of oxygen, and is completely consumed. Before being used the wick is steeped in a solution of borax and sulphate of ammonia, and afterwards thoroughly dried, the object of this chemical preparation being to allow of the regular removal during combustion of the ash of the wick in minute glassy particles. But for this treatment the ash would remain to impede the capillary action of the wick.

The modern candle-moulding machine is the result of the labours of several inventors, both English and American. It may be described as an oblong cast-iron box, a little deeper than the length of the candles, supported and fixed to frames at each end. On the top of the box, and partly within it, are fixed two cast-iron dishes or troughs; at the bottom of these troughs, and also at the bottom of the box, are drilled holes to receive the candle-moulds, to which they are securely and accurately fitted so as to be quite watertight. Under the box is an iron plate, called the rising table, having holes coinciding with the holes in the box; this is actuated by a rack and pinion or wheel fixed to the frames so that the table can be raised or lowered at pleasure. Under the table is fixed a box to hold the bobbins on which the wick is wound, one bobbin for each mould.

The moulds may be described as tapered tubes, one end being contracted inside so that a nut may be screwed thereon; the part of the mould in which the tip of the candle is cast or moulded is made separate from the body of the mould, but it is accurately fitted to the bottom part of the mould so that no hot candle material can leak past it; this tip is fixed to one end of an iron tube, the other end of the tube being fixed to the iron table, so that when the table is raised or lowered the tips are raised and lowered also; the tips thus become a plunger to force the candles out of the moulds. There is a small hole through each tip just large enough to admit the cotton wick, and when the table is lowered the wicks are pulled down so as to be straight and central in the moulds. To complete the machine it is necessary to have two movable clamps to hold one set of

candles while another set is being moulded. It is necessary also to attach a steam and water pipe to the cast-iron box so as to warm or cool the moulds. The candle is cast downwards, the top of the candle being at the bottom of the mould.

The bobbin-box having been filled with the bobbins upon which is wound the properly prepared wick, one end of each wick is pulled through the tubes and little holes in the tips by means of an elongated crochet-hook, the table is lowered and the moulds brought to a proper temperature by the surrounding water that had been warmed by turning on the steam for a short time. The candle material in a melted state is then poured into the dishes or troughs, so filling the moulds and partly filling the troughs—the material in the troughs being needed to make up for the contraction while cooling. As soon as the moulds are full, cold water is turned into the box in order to cool the candles speedily; and when they are sufficiently cooled, the superfluous material is scraped out of the troughs. The table is now raised, forcing the candles out of the moulds and into the clamps which had been placed on the machine to receive them. The clamps are then closed, thus holding the candles over the moulds, and the tips are withdrawn by lowering the table, leaving the candle-machine ready for a second lot of candles.

The production in the United Kingdom of paraffin, stearin, and composite candles is estimated to be about 36,000 tons per annum. The largest candlemaking establishment in the world is that of Price's Patent Candle Company, whose works are situated near London and Birkenhead.

Corpse candles are candles used at the watching of a corpse before interment, and the name is given also to Will-o'-the-wisp, as portending death. For candles in public worship, see LIGHTS (USE OF).

Candleberry, CANDLEBERRY MYRTLE, WAX TREE, WAX MYRTLE; TALLOW TREE, or BAYBERRY (*Myrica cerifera*), a small tree, or more generally a low spreading shrub, a native of the United States, most abundant and luxuriant in the south. The evergreen leaves are dotted with resin glands, and are fragrant when bruised. The drupes—popularly called berries—are about the size of peppercorns, and when ripe, are covered with a greenish-white wax; the wax is collected by boiling them and skimming, and is afterwards melted and refined. A bushel of berries will yield four or five pounds. It is used chiefly for candles, which burn slowly with little smoke, and emit an agreeable balsamic odour, but do not give a strong light. An excellent scented soap is made from it. Several species are found at the Cape of Good Hope, one of which (*M. cordifolia*) bears the name of Wax Shrub, and candles are made from its berries. The well-known Bog Myrtle (q.v.) or Sweet Gale is *M. Gale*.

Candle-fish (*Thaleichthys pacificus* or *Osmerus thaleichthys*), a remarkable fish of the family Salmonidae, nearly allied to the smelt (*Osmerus cyprinus*), if not in the same genus with it. It inhabits the Pacific Ocean, near the western shores of America, from Vancouver's Island northwards, and is common in the bay of San Francisco. It is probably the fattest or oiliest of fishes, if not of animals, and is used by the Indians not only as an article of food, but for making oil. The extraction of its oil is now a regular business. To broil or fry it is nearly impossible, because it almost completely melts into oil. When dried it may be burned as a lamp. It is also known as *Eulachon* or *Oulachon*.

Candlemas, an ecclesiastical festival observed on 2d February in honour of the Purification (q.v.) of the Virgin Mary, when she presented the infant Jesus in the temple. The great feast of expiation and purification (*Februa*) in ancient Rome was held

on the 15th of February, and the origin of the Christian festival is explained by some as a mere turning to Christian account of the ancient heathen rite. At anyrate, the festival seems to have been instituted by the Emperor Justinian in 541 or 542. A principal part of the celebration is a procession with many lighted candles, and those required for the service of the ensuing year are also on that occasion consecrated; hence the name *Candlemas Day*.

The candle-bearing, as old at least as 665, was early explained as a reference to the words of Simeon, when he took the infant Jesus in his arms and prophesied that he should be 'a light to lighten the Gentiles.' The two ideas became associated in the popular mind, and it became customary for women on being *churched* after their recovery from child-birth to carry candles with them. The practice of lighting up the churches in England was prohibited by an order of council in 1548, but still continues in use in the Roman Catholic Church. One old Scotch custom was that the schoolmaster was on this day presented with small offerings by his pupils; and in Scotland, this day is one of the four term-days. See *TERM*.

There is a tradition all over Christendom to the effect that a fine *Candlemas* portends a severe spring. Sir Thomas Browne in his *Vulgar Errors* quotes a Latin distich expressive of this idea. In Scotland, the prognostication is expressed in the following distich:

If *Candlemas* is fair and clear,
There'll be twa winters in the year.

Christ's Presentation, the Holiday of St Simeon, and, in the north of England, the Wives' Feast-day, were names given to *Candlemas Day*. See Ellis's edition of Brand's *Popular Antiquities*.

Candle-nut (*Aleurites triloba*), a small tree of the order Euphorbiaceæ (q.v.), a native of the South Sea Islands, Madagascar, Molucca, Java, &c., which produces a heart-shaped nut with a very hard shell, and a kernel good to eat when roasted, although in a raw state it possesses in a slight degree some of the active properties so common in the Euphorbiaceæ, and is apt to cause purging and colic. It is about as large as a walnut. An excellent bland oil is procured from it, used both for food and as a lamp-oil. The inhabitants of the Society Islands, after slightly baking these nuts in an oven, and removing the shell, bore holes through the kernels, and string them on rushes, hanging them up in their houses, to be used for torches, which are made by inclosing four or five strings in a leaf of the screw-pine (*Pandanus*). These torches are often used in fishing by night, and burn with much brilliancy. The lampblack used in tattooing was obtained from the shell of the candle-nut. A gummy substance exudes from the candle-nut tree, which the Tahitians chew.

Candlish, ROBERT SMITH, a great Scottish ecclesiastic, was born in Edinburgh in 1806, but was brought up and educated at Glasgow. Entering the university at twelve, he graduated five years later, and after the usual studies in divinity, and living two years at Eton as private tutor to a Scotch pupil there, was licensed as a preacher in 1828. In 1834 he became minister of St George's, Edinburgh, and at once became famous for the fervid eloquence and intellectual force of his sermons. Ere long also he plunged into the thick of the fight then raging within the church, and became one of the boldest and most vigorous leaders of the popular or 'non-intrusion' party. After the Disruption he co-operated with Dr Chalmers in organising, consolidating, and extending the newly-formed Free Church of Scotland, and from the time of Chalmers's death down to his own,

was its virtual leader. In 1847 he was chosen to succeed Chalmers in the chair of Divinity in the New College, Edinburgh, but did not assume the functions of this office. He was Moderator of the Assembly in 1861, was made in 1862 Principal of the New College, and in 1865 D.D. by Edinburgh University. Candlish took a foremost part in all the questions discussed within the first thirty years of the life of the Free Church, but his name was most permanently associated with public education, and the movement for union with the other dissenting Presbyterian bodies. He died at Edinburgh, October 19, 1873. Candlish's works were *Contributions towards the Exposition of the Book of Genesis* (1842); *The Atonement, its Reality and Extent* (1845); *An Examination of Mr Maurice's Theological Essays* (1854); *The Fatherhood of God* (1865); and an *Exposition of the First Epistle of St John* (1874). See his Life by Dr W. Wilson (1880).

Candolle. See DECANDOLLE.

Candy. See SUGAR-CANDY; and for the town, KANDY.

Candytuft (*Iberis*), a genus of Cruciferræ, familiarly distinguished by unequal petals, the two larger being towards the circumference of the dense corymbs. The species are chiefly found in the Mediterranean countries, and the English name is supposed to be derived from that of the island of Candia (Crete), the name *Iberis* from Iberia (Spain). One species, *I. amara*, remarkable for its bitterness, is a doubtful native of England. Some species are slightly shrubby, some are herbaceous perennials, some annuals. Some are among the most familiar ornaments of our flower-gardens.

Cane, a term sometimes indiscriminately applied to any small and smooth rod, of the thickness of a walking-stick or less; but more correctly limited to the stems of the smaller palms and the larger grasses. We thus speak of sugar-cane, bamboo-cane, &c., among the latter; while among the former this name is particularly appropriated to the species of the genus *Calamus*, also called Rattan (the Malay name or a corruption of it). To this genus belong the canes largely imported from the tropical regions of the East for making bottoms of chairs, couches, &c. See BAMBOO, RATTAN, WALKING-STICK.

Canea (Gr. *Khanía*), the chief commercial town of Crete, situated on the north-west coast, with a fine harbour. It occupies the site of the ancient *Cydonia*, but the present town is due to the Venetians, from whom it was wrested by the Turks, after a two years' siege in 1669. Canea is the principal mart for exporting the productions of the island. In 1885 the tonnage of ships entered and cleared exceeded 150,000 tons. Pop. 12,000, of whom about 5000 are Mohammedans.

Cane-brake (*Ludolfia (Arundinaria) macrosperma*), a colossal reed, nearly allied to the bamboo, which reaches a height of 30 or 40 feet, and forms dense swamp-jungles (sometimes of wide area) in marshy places, and along the banks of the Red River, the Arkansas, and the Mississippi, and their tributaries.

Canella (*Cinella alba*), a small tree belonging to the gamboge order (Clusiaceæ), common in the West Indies, where it is often called Wild Cinnamon. The bark of the young branches is the *C. Bark* (White Cinnamon) of apothecaries, and is imported from the Bahamas. It is aromatic and stimulant, but now seldom employed in medicine; in the West Indies it is used as a condiment.

Canelones, a fertile department of Uruguay. Area, 1827 sq. m.; pop. (1885) 64,974. Capital, Guadalupe, 30 miles N. of Monte Video by rail; pop. 3000.

Cang, or CANGUE, an instrument by means of which petty offenders in China are punished. It consists of a large wooden collar fitting close round the neck, varying in size and weight, but not to be removed by day or night during the whole period of punishment, which may vary in length from a fortnight to three months. Its form prevents the victim from stretching himself at full length, and upon this depends in great part the severity of the punishment. He is left also to be starved or fed by the public at their pleasure. The prisoner's name and the nature of his offence are written on the cang in large letters.

Canicatti, a town of Sicily, on the Naro, 24 miles ENE. of Girgenti by rail. Near it are sulphur mines. Pop. (1881) 19,599.

• **Canicular Days**, named from Canicula, Sirius, or the Dog-star, are the Dog Days (q.v.). Canicula is in the southern constellation of Canis Major, near which was that of Canis Minor. For the canicular year, counted from the heliacal rising of the Dog-star, see YEAR.

Canidae, or CYNODEA, a family or section of Carnivora, occupying a position midway between the cats on the one hand and the bears on the other. The number and disposition of the teeth is less specialised than that of other Carnivora. Other distinctive characters are noted under CARNIVORA. Professor Huxley divides the family into two parallel series: (a) *Thooil* or *Lupine* types—e.g. Dogs, Wolves, Jackals; and (b) *Alopecoid* or *Vulpine* types—e.g. Fox, Fenec, Lycan or Cape Hunting Dog, and the primitive Otocyon. Some fossil Canidae such as Anphieyon and Cynodictis are still more generalised carnivores. See DOG, FOX, JACKAL, WOLF, &c.

Canina, LUIGI, architect, born at Casale, in Piedmont, 23d October 1795, was for some time professor of Architecture at Turin, and afterwards lived in Rome, where he published works of great value on the antiquities of Rome, Veii, Etruria, and Tusculum. He died at Florence, 17th October 1856.

Canister Shot. See CASE SHOT.

Canker is a malignant disease of the horse's foot, which is sometimes hereditary, and affects certain localities more than others. It usually attacks horses which have large fleshy-looking frogs, and commences by discharge from the heels or the cleft of the frog. The horn becomes soft and disintegrated, the vascular structures beneath become inflamed, and the pain which the animal endures is sometimes intolerable. It is therefore very lame on one, two, or all feet, according to the number affected. Though there is no constitutional fever, the horse becomes emaciated and unfit for work. During wet weather, and on damp soil, the symptoms increase in severity. The sore structures bleed on the least touch, and considerable fungoid granulations, commonly called proud flesh, form rapidly, and there is a continuous discharge of a whitish-coloured fluid, which has an offensive smell. This disease is occasionally hereditary, and it is most frequently seen in lowbred draught or coach horses, though it also, with too much frequency, affects thoroughbred Clydesdale and other stallions. Dirt, cold, and wet favour the production of the disease, and there is always a tendency to relapse when once an animal has been affected. By way of treatment, pare away detached portions of horn, and, in mild cases, sprinkle powdered acetate of copper over the sore; apply over this pledgets of tow, fixed over the foot by strips of iron or wood passed between shoe and foot. In severe cases, tar and nitric acid, creosote and turpentine, chloride of zinc paste, and other active caustics, have to be

used for a time with the regular employment of pressure on the diseased surface. The animal requires to be treated constitutionally by periodical purgatives and alteratives. Good food, fresh air, and exercise often aid much in the treatment of the disease. Unfortunately, many cases, though subjected to every possible treatment, become worse and worse. The disease spreads under the sole of the foot, and causes such great pain and lameness that the animal dies. Other cases again do not get better, though the inflammation subsides, but remain at a standstill; and such horses, if the canker is carefully dressed daily, may do slow work for a year or two.

Canker, a disease of plants especially fatal to fruit-trees in many gardens. The *canker-worm* of the Bible is also translated *caterpillar*. See PLANTS (DISEASES OF).

Canna, one of the Argyllshire Hebrides, 12 miles SW. of Skye, and 3 NW. of Rum. It is 4½ miles long, 1 mile broad, and 4½ sq. m. in area. The surface, nowhere higher than 800 feet, consists of trap. A hill here of basalt, called Compass Hill, reverses the magnetic needle. Pop., with adjoining island of Sanday, 1 sq. m. in area, (1841) 225; (1881) 119, mostly Catholic.

Cannabinaee, a sub-order of Urticaceae (q.v.), containing only two plants, both of them valuable, Hemp and Hop (q.v.).

Cannae, an ancient town of Apulia, in Southern Italy, not far from the mouth of the Aufidus (now Ofanto), and 1½ mile N. of the modern Canosa. Here, in the summer of 216 B.C., Hannibal (q.v.) with 50,000 men defeated with prodigious slaughter a Roman army of 86,000 men under Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro.

Cannanore, a seaport and military station of the district of Malabar, in Madras, about 50 miles to the N. of Calicut. The town stands at the head of a bay; while the fort and cantonment occupy the bluff headland which shelters the inlet on the side of the Arabian Sea. The town has several mosques, and there is a lighthouse in the old fort. Pop. (1881) 26,386.

Cannes, a watering-place in the French department of Alpes-Maritimes, charmingly situated on a bay of the Mediterranean, 19 miles SW. of Nice by rail. Founded by the Romans on a promontory between their *Via Aurelia* and the sea, during the middle ages it was held as a fief by the convent of the Lérins, and Abbot Adélgert began to build the *Vigie* or watch-tower in 1070. It was repeatedly attacked by the Barbary pirates, and twice entered by Charles V., who slept here in 1536. The most disastrous year ever known was 1580, that of the great plague; though during the wars of religion it was sacked by the Duke of Savoy. When Massena lived in it and Murat gave a ball on the shore (1815), it contained about 3000 inhabitants. It was in the roadstead of the Golfe Jouan that Napoleon landed when he returned from Elba. Entering Cannes after dusk, he made his bivouac on the shore, but left it at 2 A.M. of the 2d March 1815, to march by the hill road, *viâ Grasse* and Digne, upon Grenoble and Paris. Lord Brougham first (1836) selected Cannes as a health-resort. The town in April 1886 contained 15,002 inhabitants, but in winter has upwards of twice that number, including the visitors. These are of all kindreds and tongues. Alexis de Tocqueville, Prosper Mérimée, Louis Blanc, Victor Cousin, Auerbach, and J. B. Dumas have died in Cannes. The Duke of Albany died at the Villa Nevada in the spring of 1884. In 1887 Queen Victoria came to Cannes to visit the place, and to see the beautiful Albany Memorial Church of St George of

England, erected with funds raised by the Prince of Wales.

Cannes is celebrated for the salubrity of its climate. A range of low wooded hills shelters it from the north, and it occupies the centre of the great curved bay, 14 miles in width, of which the Cap Roux and the Cap d'Antibes form the extremities. It has a small port, and a trade in flowers, which becomes yearly of greater importance. There are farms of violets, roses, oranges, tuberose, jessamine, and cassia. See Miss Dempster's *Maritime Alps and their Seaboard* (1884).

Cannibalism, or **ANTHROPOPHAGY**, the act of eating human flesh as food, a practice widely spread at the present moment among many of the lower races, but which has not infrequently held its place even among peoples at a comparatively high level of culture. There is perhaps no quarter of the globe which has been free from what appears to our eyes a practice essentially so degrading to human nature, but one hardly so repellent to minds that hold no very exalted notions of the inherent superiority of the human animal. The emotional and religious attributes of man that have become current in civilisation have created the widespread horror that prevails against such disrespect to the temple of the soul; and the elemental idea of the spirit-life's survival in disembodied form, but with all its old or even added power, has perpetuated the idea of its being an imperative necessity to conciliate the good-will of such powerful forces by reverencing such symbols of them as are accessible. Exalted ideas of the value and dignity of the human soul must needs be accompanied by a corresponding increase in the respect due to the sensible envelope from which it cannot be separated without disruption; and thus the fleshly body would simultaneously gain the benefit of the reverence that was recognised as due to the sentient mind and animating soul. Such we might expect to be the uniform evolution of the reverence paid to the body as an indissoluble part of the complex nature of the living man; but when we turn to the actual ascertained facts, we find that the movement has been by no means so normal throughout as our theory would seem to require. In fact, other and novel considerations have come in to complicate the problem, and the result as it actually presents itself before our eyes is so puzzling and uncertain that we are not yet able to lay down sound foundations for an absolute philosophy of cannibalism.

According to our theory, primitive man would eat human flesh from mere famine or necessity—as has often been done in extreme cases even in the higher races under the pressure of the same forces—but would leave off the practice as he climbed successively to higher steps in culture. But this is by no means always the case, and it is enough to name the ancient Mexicans as a people of exceptionally high native culture who were yet excessively addicted to cannibalism. And even at the present day the Monbutts, Zandeis, Fans, and other tribes in the large central zone of anthropophagy that crosses Africa along the equator from east to west, who habitually practice cannibalism in its most repulsive forms, even to the length of buying and selling human flesh for ordinary diet, include some of the most advanced and advancing of negro races. Again, the New Guineans are fine men physically and intellectually, and the same is true of the Battas of Sumatra, and still more of the Maoris of New Zealand, who were cannibals but half a century since. Nowhere was the practice more widespread than in Polynesia, especially in the Fiji, New Hebrides, and New Caledonian groups; but here it has been almost completely eradicated by the efforts of the mission-

aries and the spread of European ideas. The absence of wild or domestic animals in the Polynesian islands may account to some extent for the wide prevalence of cannibalism, if it be true that the primitive reason for the practice is sheer hunger, or at least the desire to eat flesh. The habit, once contracted, would naturally enough become persistent and be indulged in afterwards for its own sake, for much of the evidence goes to show that the relish for human flesh once acquired tends to grow into a confirmed appetite. Upon cannibalism from necessity or mere gluttony follows easily enough cannibalism from warlike fury, as was very common with the North American Indians, among whom eating the flesh and drinking the blood of an enemy meant something more than a metaphor. Cannibalism from a kind of morbid filial affection, as customary among the Battas, is a moral refinement of the same feeling. This has not been uncommon in the social history of mankind elsewhere—the *locus classicus* of this particular form of anthropophagy is the description in Herodotus (iv. 26) of the funeral feasts of the Issedones of Central Asia. The pious desire to preserve the spirits of dead friends from passing into the power of those who might wreak vengeance upon them may even have suggested the idea of giving the dead relative the safety of a friendly grave in the stomachs of his living relatives. Aged relations and newborn children, as well as friends or children who had died by mischance or mere accident, have been eaten by many primitive peoples, notably in Australia—a practice intelligible enough on the principle that 'the life is not allowed to go out of the family.' Indeed, ideas akin to the philosophy that underlies this notion seem to mark an almost universal elementary stage in cannibalism, originating, no doubt, in the primitive idea that any property characterising an aggregate inheres in all parts of it, and that the eater of anything animate became endowed with the qualities of the thing eaten—thus a savage would desire to eat the flesh of a valiant enemy in order that his courage might pass into himself. A belief in the transmigration of spirits of course underlies this notion, but we know that this is almost universally a commonplace of primitive animism. This magical or religious cannibalism, as a kind of eucharistic rite, marks the highest development of the practice, and we find it not only among the Maoris and Australians and North American Indians, but also maintained with what would otherwise be a completely unintelligible persistence in the semi-civilisation of the Aztecs. The notion of presenting food to the gods is almost universal among savage peoples, and this would naturally be human flesh among a people to whom cannibalism was customary. Of this, again, the best evidence is that from Mexico, but Mr Lang has proved conclusively that human sacrifices with no other origin than cannibalism survived even in cultured Greece. At least where the victim offered was a captive enemy or stranger, the human sacrifice may be safely regarded as a survival of cannibalism, for the disinclination to eat one's own kindred is after all a very widespread feeling among primitive men. Just as they do not eat their own totem, so savage men commonly observe the same restriction in preferring not to eat members of their own stock. Indeed, we often find raids made with no other object than to procure supplies of human flesh as food, while some South American tribes actually bred from captive women, in order to provide constant supplies of such flesh as could be eaten.

But the puzzling question of *exophagy* and *endophagy* has not yet been at all well worked out, and in the meantime it is impossible to establish any hard and fast generalisations that will

account for all the contradictory facts. For example, we find, as has been said above, North Australian tribes who eat their slain friends but not their enemies, while others eat their newborn children, or in some cases only the eldest. In the case of one tribe, the Dieri, as Mr Frazer points out (*Totemism*, p. 80), a mother eats her own children, and the children their mother; while the father does not eat of his offspring, nor the offspring of their father—an undoubted survival of female kinship, when the father, as a member of a different tribe, had no right to eat the flesh of his own child. Our folklore, European as well as savage, is full of cannibalism. Our children from their cradles are familiar with at least the notion of giants and ogres—mere magnified men—capable of devouring them with delight at any moment, and seem to find nothing at all unnatural in the idea. Montaigne in a well-known essay finds apologies for the practice with characteristically grave whimsicality, and some modern travellers have done their best to mitigate our abhorrence by detailing the due decorum with which it is practised. Dr Robertson Smith (*Kinship and Marriage in Early Arabia*, p. 204) tells us that the Arabs practised it at a comparatively recent date, and points out that the prejudices against eating certain animals—prejudices amounting to absolute disgust, and based on the theory that these animals are men in disguise—cannot all have sprung up after cannibalism ceased, and must therefore have been in the first instance prejudices confined to certain stocks which objected to eat animals of one blood with themselves. Our own Celtic ancestors were dainty in their cannibalism, on the excellent authority of St Jerome, and indeed we find traces of the practice in the pre-history of almost every people. Not only were the early Christians supposed capable by their pagan neighbours of eating children—a belief no doubt due to a misunderstanding of the words, often anthropomorphic enough, in which the Eucharist was spoken of by an impressionable and imaginative people; but even so late as 1782 in Hungary it was possible to execute as many as forty-five gypsies on a charge of cannibalism. The origin of the word itself conveys not a little information on the subject. The Spanish *carnibal* is merely a corruption of the native *caribal*, 'a Carib', or 'Caribbean,' synonymous with 'brave'; but an early confusion in meaning with the Spanish word *canino*, 'like a dog,' 'voracious,' undoubtedly implies a reproach to the man-eating habits of these islanders.

A question that remains to be answered is the very interesting and much-contested one, whether in prehistoric times anthropophagy was a general habit of the human race. Those who assert that it was, base their arguments mainly on the fact that the human bones discovered in ancient sepulchral graves are not in their natural position, but are often disposed in the most irregular manner; further, that the bones are occasionally found broken, evidently for the sake of the marrow within them; and besides, that many of them bear marks of the action of fire. The opponents of this theory explain that the confusion of the bones is due to the fact that these sepulchral graves and mounds were common burying-places, usually too contracted in space to permit of the bodies being laid aside permanently separate from each other, and that the bones of the earlier bodies were from necessity pushed aside to make room for the new-comers. Again, they assert that those human bones that contain no marrow are quite as frequently found broken as those that do, while the fractures that are found made from whatever cause, bear no resemblance to the fractures that appear on the bones of other animals presumably cracked for their marrow. The explanation of the

charred bones is that it was the custom of early men, for their own protection, to light fires to purify the sepulchral caves of noxious gases. It is perhaps still stronger proof that these caves were too small to serve as places for cannibal feasts, while in all have been found objects that pertain merely to burials. The balance of proof is in favour of the conclusion that cannibalism was not a condition of the life of primitive man, whose dentition and digestive organs of themselves point rather to a diet of fruits; but that originally it was no more than an occasional practice, exactly as in historic times. Its real origin then was actual hunger; the religious and magical side of it was a later development. The whole question of pre-historic anthropophagy was thoroughly discussed in the sessions of the International Congress of Anthropology and Archaeology at Paris in 1867, Brussels in 1872, and Lisbon in 1880.

See an admirable monograph by Richard Andree, *Die Anthropophagie* (Leip. 1887), and eight papers, containing many valuable supplementary facts, by Henri Gaidoz, in vol. iii. of *Mémoires* (1886-87); also the articles by E. B. Tylor in vol. iv. (1876) of the ninth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and by Ch. Letourneau and G. de Mortillet in vol. i. (1884) of the *Dictionnaire des Sciences Anthropologiques*; and the Introduction (pp. xli. and civ.-cxi.) to Lang's edition of Perrault's *Popular Tales* (Oxford, 1888).

Canning, CHARLES JOHN, EARL, third son of George Canning, was born 14th December 1812, and was educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford, where he obtained high honours. He entered parliament in 1836 as Conservative member for Warwick, but next year was raised to the Upper House as Viscount Canning by his mother's decease, both his elder brothers being already dead. In 1841 he became Under-secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in Sir Robert Peel's government, and afterwards Commissioner of Woods and Forests. When Lord Aberdeen came into office, he was made Postmaster-general; and in the beginning of 1856 he succeeded Lord Dalhousie as Governor-general of India. The first important event of his government was a war with Persia, which was brought to a successful close in 1857. In the same year (10th May 1857) the Indian Mutiny began with the outbreak at Meerut. Lord Canning's conduct during the awful crisis was decried at the time as weak and pusillanimous; he was nicknamed 'Clemency Canning'; but the general opinion now, when all the circumstances of the case are better known, is that he acted with singular courage, moderation, and judiciousness. In 1858 he became the first Viceroy; next year he was raised to an earldom; but having lost his wife in 1861, he retired from his high office in March 1862, and died in London on 17th June in the same year. As he left no children, his title became extinct.

Canning, ELIZABETH, the heroine of a remarkably obscure story, was born in 1734. Already she had been in domestic service for some years and borne a good character, when about nine o'clock on the night of New-year's Day, 1753, she disappeared on her way home from a visit to an uncle and aunt's house. Neither the loudest hue and cry nor prayers in the churches had done anything to solve the mystery, when late at night (29th January), four weeks after her disappearance, the girl knocked at her mother's door, hungry and half clad. She said she had been seized by two men and carried by force to a house on the Hertfordshire road, where she had been ill used by an old woman, and starved in an upper room, to compel her to an immoral life. She identified Susannah Wells and an old gypsy named Mary Squires as her persecutors, and these were accordingly arrested, and they passed in the first stage before the novelist Henry

Fielding, then a Bow Street magistrate, who afterwards published a paper on the case; next they were tried at the Old Bailey and sentenced, in spite of an alibi for Squires sworn by three witnesses, Squires to be hanged, Wells to be burned in the hand. The lord mayor, Sir Crisp Gascoyne, felt unsatisfied with the verdict, and made further investigations, which resulted in so strong an accumulation of fresh evidence to fortify Squires's alibi, that a free pardon was granted her by the crown. The case now became the excitement of the town, and opinions were fiercely divided between the 'Canningites' and 'Gypsyites,' so that the heroine of this miserable story became in Churchill's phrase, 'with Gascoyne's help, a six months' feast.' On the 29th April 1754 she was put on trial at the Old Bailey for perjury, and after an eight days' trial, in which the jury seem to have been completely puzzled between the thirty-eight witnesses who swore that Squires had been seen in Dorsetshire, and the twenty-seven who swore to her having been in Middlesex, was found guilty, and sentenced to transportation for seven years. She was sent to New England, and died in Connecticut in 1773. See Paget's *Paradoxes and Puzzles* (1874).

Canning, GEORGE, a distinguished British statesman and orator, was born in London, April 11, 1770. His father, who claimed descent from William Canynge of Bristol, incurred the displeasure of his family for marrying beneath his station, and died in poverty when his son was only a year old. His mother tried the stage with but little success, married an actor, and subsequently a linen-draper; but lived to rejoice in the success and participate in the good fortune of her boy, whose education was liberally provided by his uncle, Stratford Canning, a banker. Canning was sent to Eton, from which he passed at the age of eighteen to Christ Church College, Oxford, where he greatly distinguished himself, especially in classics. While here, he cherished the friendship of the Hon. Charles Jenkinson (afterwards Lord Liverpool), who was of considerable service to him in after-life. From Oxford he went in 1790 to Lincoln's Inn, but on the suggestion of Burke, as it is said, he soon relinquished the bar for a parliamentary career. He entered the House for Newport, Isle of Wight, in 1794, as the protégé and supporter of the minister, Pitt. In 1796 he was appointed an under-secretary of state. It was not, however, until 1798 that Canning made a reputation as an orator and a statesman, by his speeches in favour of the abolition of the slave-trade and against Tierney's motion regarding peace with the French Directory, the latter of which, especially, was regarded as a masterpiece of eloquence, alike by the House and the country. In many important questions Canning gave valuable assistance to the ministry, not only by his voice in parliament, but by his pen in a satirical paper called the *Anti-Jacobin* (1797-98), in which he especially lashed the 'New Philosophy,' as it was called, promulgated by the French republicans. The 'Needy Knife-grinder' is one of the best known and happiest of his efforts in this line. In 1800 he made a happy marriage with Joan Scott, a lady of fortune, and sister to the Duchess of Portland. In 1801 Pitt resigned office, and Canning joined the opposition from the ministerial side of the House against the Addington ministry.

When Pitt again became premier in 1804, Canning was made treasurer of the navy, an office which he held until Pitt's death in 1806. His opposition to the short-lived Grenville ministry which succeeded savoured of the bitterness of party feeling, and his treatment of Fox in his last days, and of his memory after his death, was far

from generous. When the Portland ministry was formed in 1807, Canning was appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs, a position for which he was specially qualified, and his despatches, written at this time, are models of manliness and lucidity. During his tenure of office Canning planned the expedition for the seizure of the Danish fleet, which did so much to upset the schemes of Napoleon; and he recommended the energetic prosecution of hostilities in Spain both under Moore and Wellesley. His disapproval of the Walcheren expedition led to a misunderstanding with Castlereagh (q.v.), secretary-at-war, which resulted in a duel with that statesman. Soon afterwards the Portland ministry came to a close, and Canning did not hold high office again for many years. His absence from the Foreign Office during the critical period at the close of the Napoleonic wars was to Canning a subject of lasting regret. In 1812 all his eloquence was enlisted in favour of Catholic emancipation. During the same year he was elected for Liverpool, which sent he exchanged for Harwich in 1822. In 1814 he went as ambassador to Lisbon, returned in 1816, and was made President of the Board of Control, and supported the Liverpool ministry in all their arbitrary and repressive measures until 1820, when he resigned, in consequence of the action of the government against Queen Caroline.

Nominated Governor-general of India in 1822, he was on the eve of departure when the suicide of Castlereagh, now Marquis of Londonderry, called Canning to the head of Foreign Affairs. In this capacity he conferred lasting benefits on his country. He infused a more liberal spirit into the cabinet, he asserted the independence of British politics against the diplomacy that would have entangled the nation with the Holy Alliance, and gave a new direction and impetus to commercial affairs by a gradual laying aside of the prohibitive system. He arranged the relations of Brazil and Portugal; drew the French cabinet into agreement with the British respecting Spanish-American affairs; was the first to recognise the free states of Spanish America; promoted the treaty combining England, France, and Russia, for the settlement of the affairs of Greece, which was signed July 6, 1827; protected Portugal from Spanish invasion; contended earnestly for Catholic emancipation; and prepared the way for a repeal of the corn laws. In February 1827 a stroke of paralysis forced the Earl of Liverpool to resign, and Canning was called upon to form a new administration, which he did with the aid of the Whigs. His health, however, gave way under the cares of office, and he died 8th August of the same year at the Duke of Devonshire's Chiswick villa, in the room where Fox had died twenty-one years earlier. He was buried, near Pitt, in Westminster Abbey. As a parliamentary orator Canning holds a prominent place in British annals. His acuteness, power of expression, and well-pointed wit were remarkable; but, on the whole, he was inferior to Pitt, Burke, and Fox. He lacked the imposing characteristics of the first, the overpowering enthusiasm of the second, and the winning address of the last. He was intensely British, and his foreign policy was of the character best calculated to promote British interests.

See his *Speeches* edited by Therry (6 vols. 1828); Stapleton's *Political Life of Canning* (1831), and *George Canning and his Times* (1859); and the masterly sketch in Lord Dalling's *Historical Characters* (1867).

Cannock, a town of Staffordshire, 8 miles NNW. of Walsall. It is the seat of important iron industries. Pop. (1851) 2099; (1871) 6650; (1881) 17,125.

Cannon is a general name for large pieces of ordnance or artillery, as distinguished from those

which can be held in the hand while being fired. The first cannons were clumsy, wider at the mouth than at the chamber, and made of iron bars hooped together with iron rings, a form of construction very similar to that adopted for many modern guns. The balls fired from them were first stone, afterwards iron. Such a cannon is 'Mons Meg,' at Edinburgh Castle, which is believed to have been made in 1455 for the siege of Threave Castle by James II., who five years later was killed at the siege of Roxburgh by the bursting of a similar cannon, the 'Lion.' Various names for these early guns were bombards, culverins, serpentines, &c. At what exact date cannon were first used is not known (see GUNPOWDER); but under the name of 'crakys of war,' they were employed by Edward III. against the Scots in 1327, by the French at the siege of Puy Guillaume in 1338, and by Edward III. at Crécy and at Calais in 1346. Bombards of great length and power were employed by Louis XI. during his Flemish campaign in 1477; and as early as 1401 cannon had been cast in bronze at Nuremberg, Augsburg, and Marienburg in West Prussia. They were not cast in iron until the latter half of the 15th century. Probably the largest cannon of the 17th century was the Bijapur cast-iron gun, 'Malick é Meidan,' or 'Lord of the Plain,' made either by Aurungzebe or by the Mahrattas; it was 14 feet long, 28 inches bore, and fired a ball of 1600 lb. weight.

After the great European wars of the 17th century vast improvements were effected in the manufacture and use of cannon, which have, however, been far surpassed by those of recent years. The use of wrought-iron first, and then of steel, in their manufacture has enabled much more powerful guns to be made, thus meeting the demand for such weapons that has been created by the introduction of armour-clad vessels of war. The application of rifling to cannon has made it possible to fire from them elongated projectiles, which are at the same time heavier than the spherical shot suited to the same weapon and are better adapted by their form to penetrate the iron armour. All modern British guns are therefore rifled.

Smooth-bore cannon and Mortars (q.v.) of cast-iron and bronze are, however, still found in the armaments abroad, and some have also been retained in the British service at home for the defence of the flanks and ditches of fortresses, and to cover short avenues of approach at close quarters. For these purposes some smooth-bores are even being converted into breech-loaders. The following is a list of them:

BRONZE—Guns: 12, 9, 6, and 3 pounders. Howitzers: 32, 24, and 12 pounders; and $4\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter of bore. Mortars: 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ inch.

CAST-IRON—Cannonades (q.v.): 32 and 24 pounders. Guns: 8-inch; 68, 32, 24, 18, 12, 9, and 6 pounders. Howitzers: 10 and 8 inch. Mortars: 13, 10, and 8 inch.

In 1864 a few wrought-iron smooth-bore 100 and 150 pounder guns were made for the navy, but they are now obsolete. In order to utilise the cast-iron guns in stock when rifled artillery became necessary, and because the granular nature of the metal was not suited to the process of rifling, many of them were bored out, and a coiled wrought-iron tube inserted. These are called converted guns. A few bronze rifled guns were made in 1870, but only two natures, the 9-pounder and the 7-pounder mountain-gun, for service in India, because it was thought that native artificers could work this metal; but the results were not on the whole considered satisfactory.

All cannon for the British service are now made either of steel or wrought-iron, or a combination of these two metals. The various sizes are very numerous. The following is a list of the principal

armour-piercing guns, and their penetration into wrought-iron at a distance of 1000 yards:

	Calibre, inches.	Weight, tons.	Length, feet.	Weight of shell, lb.	Powder charge, lb.	Penetration, inches.
M. L.	17-72	100	35	1805	450	22-8
	16	80	27	1684	450	23-3
	12-5	38	19	805	210	17-7
	7	4-5	12	112	22	6-5
B. L.	10	32	27	500	250	21-2
	8	14	21	210	125	15-6
	6	5	17	100	50	10-3
	4	1-3	10	25	12	6-7

The muzzle-loading Howitzers are the 8-inch, 6-6-inch and 6-3-inch. The muzzle-loading field-guns are the 40, 25, 16, 13, 9, and 7 pounders, and the 2-5-inch jointed gun for mountain service, formed in two parts, and screwed together when in use. Each part forms the load of one mule; and a 25-pounder on a similar plan has been made at Elswick to be carried on elephants. The breech-loading field-guns are the 20, 12, and 6 pounders. Quick-firing breech-loading 3, 6, 8, and 36 pounders have been recently introduced, and a 70-pounder has been made. These guns fire from 10 to 15 aimed, or 20 to 30 unaimed shots per minute, as against 2 from an ordinary field-gun. Their introduction marks a distinct epoch in the history of cannon, and they are likely to be so useful for naval purposes, especially against torpedo boats, as to supersede all others of similar power. The rapidity with which they can be worked depends chiefly upon the manner in which the recoil is treated. There are two recoil-presses to each gun, consisting of pistons working in cylinders partly filled with water. The piston-rods are attached to the front of the trunnion-bearings; the cylinders form part of the mounting of the gun, and are slightly conical. When the gun recoils after being discharged, the water, passing freely round the piston, offers no resistance at first, but by degrees brings it to rest. At the same time two springs in rear of the trunnions are compressed, and at once return the gun to its first position.

This principle has been applied to a 12-pounder field-gun, as shown in fig. 1; it is an adaptation of the hydraulic buffer used for many years to

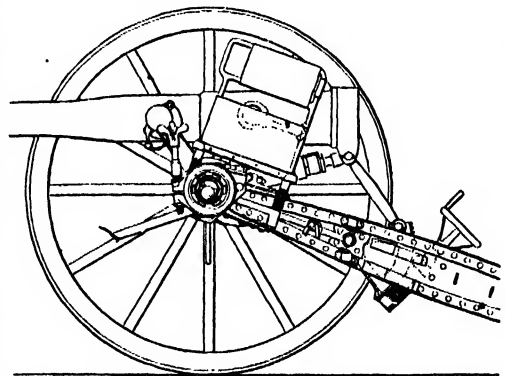


Fig. 1.—Hydraulic Field Gun Carriage: 12-pounder Breech-loader.

check the recoil of large cannon, but lately much improved by Mr Vavasseur. In his recoil-cylinders the piston-head is in two parts, one of which is rotated by means of rifling. It is perforated with holes, which at first stand wide open, but are gradually closed by the revolving head of the piston as the gun moves backwards, thus equalising the strain.

Until 1888 the largest cannon was the 119-ton

Krupp, made in 1884 for Italy. With 615 lb. of powder this gun sends a shell 1632 lb. in weight through 29·3 inches of wrought-iron at a distance of 1000 yards. The most powerful was the 110-ton Elswick gun in H.M.S. *Victoria*. It penetrates 30·5 inches of armour at the same distance with a shell 1800 lb. in weight and 900 lb. of powder. This gun, which is entirely of steel, has no trunnions, but is tied to its carriage by a strong steel band. Both are surpassed by the 150-ton gun undertaken in 1888 by Krupp.

A comparison of modern field-guns shows that the new Woolwich 12-pounder breech-loader (fig. 4) has the greatest muzzle velocity—viz. 1720 feet per second. The quick-firing 8-pounder (British) comes next with 1650, the French field-gun shows 1608, the German 1545, the quick-firing 6-pounder and 3-pounder (British) 1510, and the Russian field-gun 1350.

Range and Accuracy.—Some of the most powerful modern cannon are sighted for 8700 yards, and at that distance may be relied upon to strike an object 10 feet high. The newest pattern field-gun, the 12-pounder, is sighted for as much as 6000 yards, and the little 7-pounder mountain-gun for 3185 yards. In battle, however, fire would rarely be opened at a greater distance than 3000 yards owing to atmospheric difficulties and the limited range of human vision. The latter difficulty has to a great extent been surmounted and great accuracy of fire obtained by the use of telescopic sights, the invention (1879) of Lieutenant-colonel L. K. Scott, R.E., and by improvements in Rangefinders (q.v.). The presence of fog, mist, rain, &c. will always, however, interfere with artillery-fire at very long ranges.

Non-service Cannon.—Of the numerous varieties of cannon that have been produced by English manufacturers, but not adopted in the service, the type invented (1859) by the late Sir Joseph Whitworth is by far the most important. It is made of compressed steel, and its characteristic is a spiral, polygonal bore, taking a shot as shown in fig. 2, which is the counterpart of it. No rifling is therefore necessary. This gun has given excellent results, and has been supplied to many foreign powers.

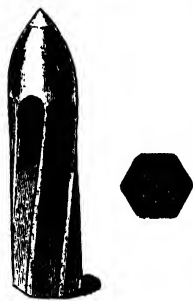


Fig. 2.—Whitworth Forged Shell and Section.

The chief peculiarity of the gun invented (1874-84) by Lieutenant-colonel Hope, V.C., is the mode of igniting the cartridge, which is of abnormal length, and has inside it a little gun charged with a small amount of powder. This latter, on being ignited, starts the projectile, and at the same time fires the large cartridge at a great number of places through holes bored in the small gun at certain calculated distances along it. This device is stated to prevent the sudden strain to which a gun is subjected when fired, by the sudden expansion of the powder gases before the shot has actually moved, and therefore to enable a larger quantity of powder to be fired with useful effect. Very good results have been shown experimentally by this gun, but it has not been favourably received by artillery experts.

Experiments have been carried on with a pneumatic gun, designed by Lieutenant Zaluski of the United States Artillery, to throw a shell charged with dynamite. Such a gun, 8 inches in calibre, was fired in 1887 at a vessel 2000 yards off, which its second shell, charged with 55 lb. of nitro-gelatine, completely destroyed. This weapon is 40 feet long,

but light. The barrel, which is not rifled, is made of $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch wrought-iron, lined with $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch seamless brass tubing. The air-reservoirs have a capacity of 137 cubic feet. The projectile is made of seamless brass 40 inches long, with a conical cast-iron point 12 inches long, and spiral vanes attached to the base to give it rotation. It is exploded by an electric fuse which can be adjusted so as to act an instant before impact, or, if the object is missed, an instant after striking the water, by which means the maximum effect is obtained in both cases.

A portable gun in two parts has also been designed for field or siege operations.

Construction of Cannon.—Previous to 1854 cannon were cast in iron, brass, or an alloy called gun-metal or bronze. This alloy, consisting of 90 parts of copper to 10 of tin, was expensive and difficult to work. The tin was often not properly amalgamated, and collected in patches, which, if in the bore, owing to its fusibility, soon formed holes. Gun-metal was therefore only used for the smaller natures, and after 1870 its use was generally abandoned, though a similar alloy called phosphor-bronze or steel-bronze has lately been used by Field-marshal von Uchatius for the Austrian field-guns. See BRONZE.

The heavier cannon were made of cast-iron, and in the United States Rodman's process of casting them hollow round a core filled with water was adopted. The interior of the bore being by this means cooled first, the metal was placed in a state of tension most favourable to resist the shock of discharge. By this process a cannon of 44 tons weight, capable of firing a shot of 9 cwt., was made at a cost of one-fourth that of a steel gun of the same power.

The process of converting cast-iron guns by Sir W. Palliser's method has already been alluded to.

About 1850 Herr Krupp in Germany, and Sir Joseph Whitworth in England, began to make guns wholly of cast-steel, and Lord Armstrong (then Sir William) introduced the system of coiled wrought-iron, which was adopted in 1859 by the Royal Gun Factories at Woolwich Arsenal as the cheapest and most reliable for the manufacture of cannon.

The strains to which a gun is subjected in firing are of two kinds, longitudinal and transverse or circumferential. The fibre of the metal is so disposed in the Armstrong 'built-up' guns as best to resist them. The process of manufacture is as follows: The bore, which must be of hard metal, is a tube of steel toughened and tempered by being plunged when heated into a bath of oil. Wrought-iron bars are then coiled, at red heat, round a mandrel, and welded under the steam-hammers into cylinders of sufficient interior dimensions to just pass over the tube when heated. On cooling they grip it tightly, and are thus most advantageously placed to resist any circumferential strain. They are also finished with interlocking shoulders which resist the longitudinal strain. Other similar coils are shrunk on over them for the larger guns. A solid trunnion-ring is hammered out and shrunk over the coils near the centre of gravity of the gun, and a 'casable' or breech-loop screwed into the breech. At first many small coils were used, each finished in a lathe before the next was put over it, but Mr Fraser of the Royal Gun Factories introduced the method of shrinking on a few large coils in the rough, and thereby economised the process of manufacture. This Armstrong-Fraser method was long successfully employed. Owing, however, to the cheaper manufacture of steel by Bessemer's process, and to greater facilities in working it, that metal has gradually superseded wrought-iron, and though, when alloyed with manganese, it could be coiled in the same way, it was determined after

experiments in 1881 to discard that system of manufacture. Hoops of cast-steel are now cut out of the ingot as discs, then punched and mandrelled out into rings, or the ingot is drawn out under the steam-hammer and trepanned; the latter process being specially adapted to the manufacture of the inner tube of a breech-loading gun, and the former to that of the outer rings. Additional precautions are taken to prevent the hoops slipping over one another. In some cases grooves are cut on the outer surface of one and the inner surface of the other, so as to form annular spaces, which are then

filled up with a bronze alloy said to expand on cooling. In others the ends of the hoops are slotted away so as to form alternate projections and intervals which correspond. The outer hoop, expanded by heat, is passed over the inner one, and turned round so as to bring the projections opposite to one another. Long steel wedges are then driven into the intervals to prevent any slipping round. The largest cannon have four layers of hoops round the inner tube from the breech to the trunnions, after which they gradually decrease in number to one at the muzzle. The inner tube, in the most

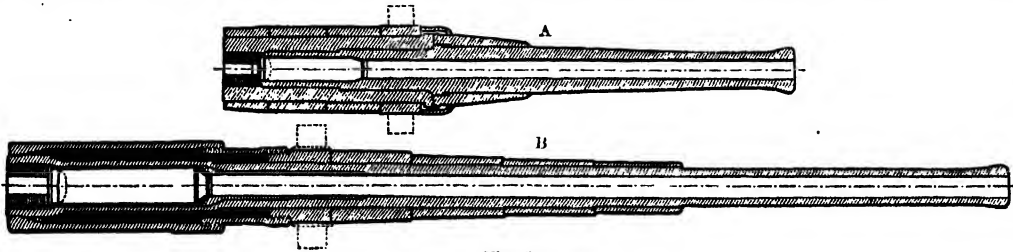


Fig. 3.

A, 8-inch Breech-loading Gun, 12 tons, Typical Design; B, Breech-loading Wire Gun, 19 tons, Royal Gun Factories.

recent patterns, has a thin steel lining extending for about two-thirds of its length from the breech, which, when damaged, can be easily taken out and replaced by a new one, thus practically giving the gun a new life.

Both Lord Armstrong's factory at Elswick and the Royal Gun Factories at Woolwich experimented in 1883-88 with wire guns. The construction is similar to the above, except that the inner tube is at first made thicker at the breech end and then turned down at the part which incloses the powder chamber, and therefore requires to be the stronger. Round this part is then coiled a flat steel wire or riband having a breaking strain of 100 tons to the square inch, and over the wire are shrunk outer hoops of forged steel locked together as above described. Such a gun (fig. 3, B), 9.2 inches calibre, weighing only 19 tons, has been made at Woolwich Arsenal, and when fired with a charge of 330 lb. of powder and a shell of 380 lb. weight, it penetrated 23.2 inches of wrought-iron at 1000 yards. This weapon may be considered the best and newest specimen of heavy cannon.

No heavy gun can be made under fifteen months, and a much longer time is usually required, especially if the steel ingot from which the inner tube is to be made turns out faulty. The following approximate figures in round numbers are of interest:

Cost of 17.72-inch 100-ton Woolwich gun	£19,500
Turret carriage, and slide	3,850
Cost of one discharge	35
Cost of 10-inch 32-ton breech-loading gun	6,000
Turret carriage, and gear	1,013
Cost of one round	12
Cost of 12-pounder field-gun and carriage	550
Cost of one round	11 shillings.

It may be noted that the German government subsidises Baron Krupp's establishment at Essen, which supplies it and many foreign nations with cannon, and that the British government, on the other hand, maintains the Royal Gun Factories at Woolwich, and merely gives orders to the Elswick, Whitworth, and other factories for guns, steel forgings, and armour plates, on the same principle that it employs private shipbuilders to supplement the resources of the royal dockyards. Several

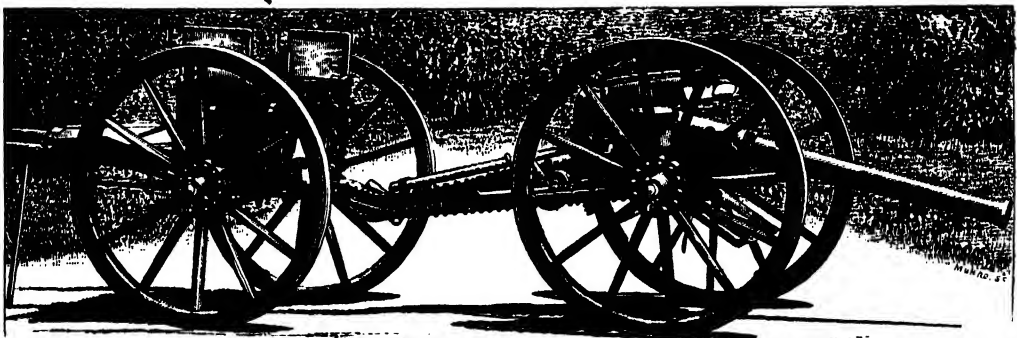


Fig. 4.—English Breech-loading Field-gun and Limber—12-pounder.

officers have, however, after retiring from the Royal Artillery and Royal Navy, joined Lord Armstrong's firm, and one of them has since been employed on the Ordnance Committee.

France constructs all her own cannon. As recently as 1877 her field-guns were of bronze, and her heavy ordnance of cast-iron strengthened by

wrought-iron or steel hoops. These have now (1888) been superseded by steel guns on De Bange's system. Their construction is very similar to that described above, and rifled breech-loading guns 74 tons in weight, capable of piercing 24.9 inches of iron at 1000 yards, are in the service.

Russia until 1876 was dependent upon Krupp for

rified guns, and still obtains steel projectiles from his factory; but in that year the Obukhov works commenced the construction of cannon, similar to his, of steel compressed by Whitworth's process. The field-guns from these works rank next in ex-

factured others up to 7-inch calibre from the same alloy, but procures larger weapons from Baron Krupp.

The United States have always excelled in casting heavy iron guns on Rodman's system, and a

great many are on hand. It is also found impossible to produce the steel required for modern guns in the country, and the South Berlin workshop has therefore been engaged in converting cast-iron smooth-bore guns into rifled weapons by tubing them with steel, and strengthening them with steel jackets and coils. In 1885 such a converted breech-loading gun of 12-inch calibre, fired with 265 lb. of cocoa powder and an 800-lb. shot, gave a muzzle velocity of 1711 feet per second, and a pressure of 14.35 tons. In the same year the steel tube and coils of a 6-inch breech-loading gun of 5 tons were put together at South Berlin, and a 12-inch breech-loading steel wire gun of 53 tons was commenced, the steel

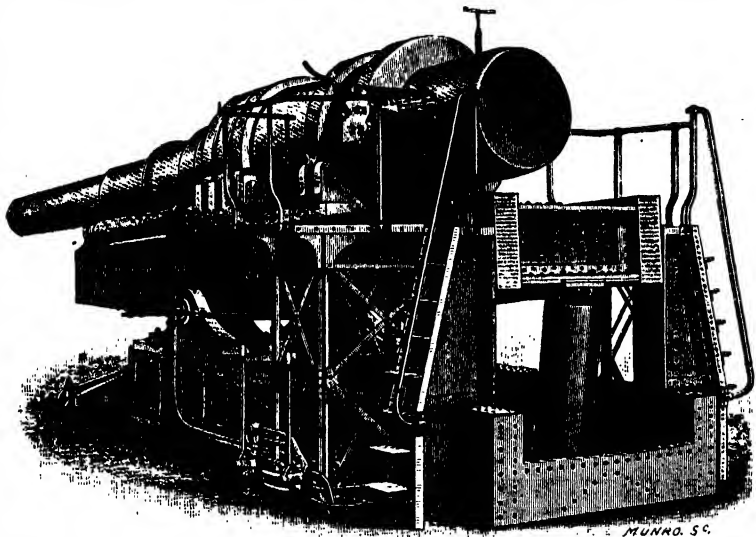


Fig. 5.—Krupp's 15.6-inch Breech-loading Gun (breech open); Hydraulic Elevating Gear.

cellence to the French, which are considered by artillerymen second only to the British. The most powerful gun they have yet turned out (1888) is the 12-inch rifle breech-loader of 50 tons. Its penetration into iron at 1000 yards is 22.3 inches. An 8-inch screwed-up gun of 5.5 tons, in four pieces, was designed in 1876 by Captain Kolokolzor, of the Russian Artillery, and did good service at Rustschuk against the Turks in the following year.

Italy has some field-guns of compressed bronze, and others of cast-steel from Krupp's factory, which also supplies her naval and coast defence weapons. In 1878 a tube, 50 tons in weight, was cast in iron at Turin by Rodman's process, and afterwards strengthened with three concentric steel rings, making up a total weight of 100 tons. This

being procured from the Whitworth foundry. These are now (1888) in the service.

Gun-carriages.—These vary with the nature and use of the cannon. Field-guns, intended to move across country, are mounted as in fig. 4, which shows one fitted with steel limber-boxes. When in action the 'trail' is unhooked from the 'limber,' in which ammunition is carried. This is the new weapon which is now (1888) being supplied to the British Field Artillery. Heavy guns are mounted on carriages working on platforms in the trenches, and on slides in fortresses or on board ship. Fig. 5 shows one of the latter class with hydraulic appliances for elevating or depressing the gun by raising or lowering the slide, and for training it to the right or left. Hitherto the first of

these movements was effected by elevating gear under the breech of the gun, and the other by mounting the slide on trucks running on racers. Hydraulic power is now used also for raising the heavy projectiles, and for ramming them home, as well as for rotating the turret when a gun is mounted in one. The lighter natures of quick-firing guns are mounted, when in forts or on board ship, on fixed pedestals, and on carriages similar to those for field-guns when intended to accompany troops in the field. The brackets which support the slide of the heavier natures work on trunnions and rotate on a central pivot. Elevation or depression is given by moving the brackets on their trunnions, so that the axis of the gun, and therefore the direction of the recoil, is always parallel to the slide on which it rests.

Except the wheels and shafts of field-gun carriages, steel is the material now used for all the chief parts of these constructions, the smaller fittings being of gun-metal.

A form of carriage by which the recoil is utilised so as to cause the gun to disappear, will be found described under MONCRIEFF PITS.

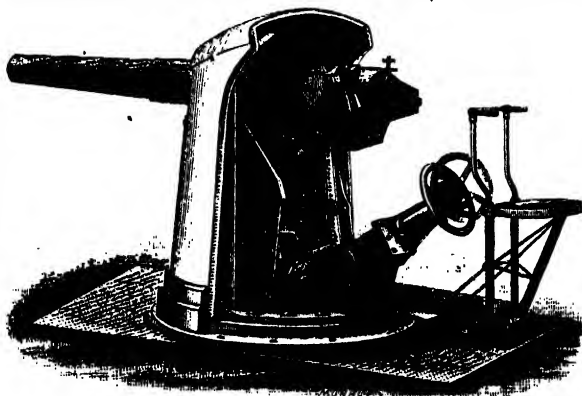


Fig. 6.—Krupp's 3.3-inch Quick-firing Gun.

gun, 17.72-inch calibre, was designed by General Rosset of the Italian army, and with a muzzle velocity of 1480 feet per second, penetrated 23 inches of iron at 1000 yards.

Austria having adopted compressed steel-bronze (Uchatius metal) for her field-guns, has also manu-

The various methods of closing the breech of a gun are described under BREECH-LOADING, the system of rifling under RIFLED ARMS. See also CARRONADE, CARTRIDGE, GUNPOWDER, HOWITZER, MACHINE GUN, MORTAR, and SHELL.

Cannon-ball Tree (*Lecythis bracteata* or *Couroupita guianensis*), a large tree of the order Lecythidaceæ, a native of Guiana, but introduced into the West Indies; the fruit is large, 'about the size of a 36-pound shot,' nearly round, and is sweet, fragrant, and wholesome. The hard woody shell of this fruit is used for drinking-vessels.

Cannstatt, a town of Württemberg, beautifully situated on the Neckar, 3 miles NE. of Stuttgart by rail and tram. It owes its origin to the Romans, many traces of whose presence still are found. It has two royal residences; thirty mineral springs, which are much frequented during the season; and manufactures of iron, cottons, tobacco, &c. Pop. (1875) 15,064; (1885) 18,031.

Cannula (dim. of Lat. *canna*, 'a reed; ' often incorrectly written *canula*), a term applied to small tubes of different kinds used in surgery; especially to a tube inclosing a *trocær*, or perforator (withdrawn after it has effected the introduction of the tube), used for evacuating air or fluid from any cavity in the body; and to the tube for the patient to breathe through, which is inserted into the windpipe after the operation of Tracheotomy (q.v.).

Cano, ALONSO, a Spanish painter, born at Granada in 1601, received his first instructions in the principles of art from his father, who was an architect, and attained celebrity so early that in 1638 or 1639 he was appointed court painter and architect to the king. Cano was of a hasty temper, and was accused of having murdered his wife in a fit of jealousy, but the accusation appears to have been quite groundless. He was subjected to the torture; but no confession having been elicited, he was acquitted and received again into the royal favour, named residentiary of Granada, and spent his last years in acts of devotion and charity. He died 3d October 1667. In Fuseli's opinion, he excelled all his contemporaries except Velasquez. His eminence in the three departments of the fine arts—sculpture, painting, and architecture—obtained for him the hyperbolical title of the 'Spanish Michael Angelo.' His pictures, marked by graceful design and pleasing colouring, are very numerous, and are preserved in Granada, Seville, Madrid, Malaga, and other Spanish cities.

Canoe (from a Caribbean word through the Span. *canoa*), originally, a light narrow boat, made of the hollowed stem of a tree or of bark, and propelled by paddles. The ancient British and many native canoes are 'dug-outs,' being simply stems



Canadian Trapper's Canoe.

of trees hollowed by stone implements, shells, or fire, and then shaped, and often sharpened at either end; canoes hollowed out of the trunks of oaks have been dug up in considerable numbers in the United Kingdom. The Canadian birch-bark canoe is a light, buoyant, frail-looking, but serviceable bark. In building it a skeleton is made of light wood, the casing of birch-bark is put on

transversely, with the broadest strips amidships, and sewn together with the fibrous roots of fir-trees, while the seams are dressed with gum. It has no keel, and neither stem nor stern, but runs to a point at each end; and neither nails nor pegs are used in its construction. The outer skin of the 'Canadian' canoes so popular on the Thames is made of alternate strips of light and dark hard-grained woods, $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, grooved, bound, and glued together; a layer of broader strips, placed crosswise, forms the inner skin. The timber used is steamed and bent when moist on to a mould the exact size of the proposed canoe. The birch-bark canoes of South America and the native Australian gum-tree bark canoe are made of one piece of bark. Esquimaux canoes are generally of seal or walrus skin stretched over whalebone; some Labrador canoes have a round hole or well in the centre for the occupant, and are light enough to be carried on the head. The canoe of Greenland and Hudson Strait is flat-bottomed and flat-sided. Many of the Polynesian canoes are hollowed out of a single log. Others are of planks cunningly fastened together, and fitted with outriggers. The Malay and Dyak canoes are long and narrow. The largest Fiji canoes are 100 feet long, and the double ones—with deck placed between them—of 70 feet can carry from 40 to 50 persons. Those of the Solomon Islands have a palette-shaped sail made of a mat. The war canoes have often elaborately carved ends. Mr Stanley in his descent of the Congo encountered a war canoe with 40 men rowing on each side, and 10 in the bow, while 8 men guided at the stern with ivory-tipped paddles. Two or three of his own canoes for exploring purposes were of teak, 70 feet long, and very heavy. Others, on the inland African lakes, are made of reeds.

Modern British canoes have been made of paper, tin, and india-rubber, but they are usually constructed of oak, cedar, or pine. A tin canoe was sailed on the Thames in 1847, and an Esquimaux canoe had been exhibited there prior to that date; but the revival of British canoeing is due to the efforts (since 1850) of Mr John MacGregor, who when an infant was rescued from the burning Indianan *Kent*, and the profits of whose lectures and published works—upwards of £100,000—have been handed over to a number of philanthropic institutions. His *Rob Roy* canoe for navigating eastern waters was 14 feet long, 26 inches wide, with a 7-foot paddle; and its weight, including paddles, masts, and sails, was 72 lb. It was of oak below, decked with cedar, had an apron of white waterproof, and the sails were dyed blue to resist the glare of the sun. But of late years the type of canoe has greatly changed. Messrs Tredwen and Baden-Powell's *Pearl* and *Nautilus* canoes have both the head of the boat raised and its shoulder broadened, the modern cruising canoe being on an average 15 feet long, with a 30-inch beam; they are mostly fitted with two larger sails, and, with a metal centre-board and deep rudder, catch sail as close to the wind, when tacking, as a yacht. Mr T. H. Holding's *Severn* canoe (1887), weighing 136-175 lb., has been largely adopted both in England and Scotland. The Royal Canoe Club rules limit the weight of cruising canoes to 200 lb., and the sail area to 75 square feet. A minor improvement of some importance was the invention of the back-board on movable centres, with a deviation which leaves the spine untouched, by means of which the canoeist can lean back at any angle. A speed of 40 miles a day has been covered on lakes and smooth water; racing canoes 20 feet long, and 18 inches broad, attain a speed of 8 miles an hour. Latterly a new mode of sailing has come into use; instead of sitting in the well, the crew sits on the side of the deck, just aft

amidships, and thus leans outward to balance the wind pressure, steering the boat by a tiller fitted on deck. The long-voyage equipment for a canoeist must include most of the following articles for boat gear—tent, cooking apparatus, compass, cork seat, painter, air-bed, pistol or revolver, lamp, water-bottle, waterproof sheet, fishing appliances, &c.; and for dress—a pith hat, woven cap, Norfolk jackets, flannel trousers, shirts, and under-vests, cape and hood, sou'-wester, shoes, Macintosh coat, waterproof boots, slippers, and brushes and comb, &c.

The Royal Canoe Club, of which H.R.H. the Prince of Wales is commodore, was founded in 1866, and has now 200 members in different parts of the world. There are some honorary lady members. It is said that only one member of the club has lost his life, and on that occasion his canoe came safely to land with its sails and flags flying: the occupant had fallen out and perished in bog water. Indeed, the modern canoe, in spite of its great sail area, is the safest type of pleasure-boat existing, and will ride out open boats many times its size. Hull, Liverpool, Newcastle, Sunderland, Birmingham, Glasgow, and Leith have all their contingent of canoeists. The British Canoe Association (founded in 1887) has about 70 members, and holds an annual meet. The American Canoe Club numbered some 5000 members in 1888. The *Octoroon*, 16 feet long and 23 inches broad, crossed from Boulogne to Dover in 11 hours, 19th August 1867; Mr Fowler crossed from Boulogne to Sandgate, standing in an india-rubber twin canoe (the *Podoscaphe*), in 12 hours, 19th August 1878; and in 1887 a youth named Henderson paddled from Dover to Calais in a very small canoe in 11 hours, having with him neither food nor water.

See MacGregor's *A Thousand Miles in the Rob Roy Canoe*, and *Rob Roy on the Baltic, Jordan, and Zuyder Zee*; Baden-Powell's *Canoe Travelling* (1871); Inwards' *Cruise of the Kingleader*; R. L. Stevenson's *Inland Cruise*; Holding's *Cruise of the Osprey* (1878), and *Watery Wanderings* (1886); and Bishop's *Voyage of Paper Canoe* (1878). A useful list of works on canoeing is appended to the rules of the R. C. C. The *Model Yachtsman and Canoeist* is the only organ of the sport in England, though the *Ficht* contains weekly reports; the *American Canoeist* represents the American Canoe Association.

Canon, a word originally Greek, connected with *kanna*, a 'cane or reed,' and (like the Hebrew *ginech*) signifying a straight staff used as a measuring-rod, is applied in various arts and sciences to what serves for a rule or standard. From this general sense, which it bears—e.g. in Galatians, vi. 16, the word by the middle of the 3d century had come to mean the type of Christian doctrine recognised as orthodox by the Catholic Church, and afterwards was particularly employed to designate collectively the Scriptures which were accepted by the Christian church as the standard or rule of faith (see BIBLE and APOCRYPHA). The first instances of the latter meaning are found in the 59th canon of the Council of Laodicea (363 A.D.), and in the *Epistola festalis* of Athanasius. Hence arose the use of the word to signify a list (e.g. that of the clergy at the Council of Nicea in 325), and in this sense it is still used to denote the catalogue or register of Catholic saints. The use of the plural form to denote church precepts occurs about 300, and it begins to be specially transferred to the decrees of church councils about the middle of the 4th century (see CANON LAW). The same word is used to designate the fixed form of prayer said by the priests of the Roman Catholic and Greek churches before, at, and after the consecration of the Host.

Canon (Lat. *canonicus*), an ecclesiastical dignitary (so called as living under a rule, or as following the rule or canon of divine service, or again, most probably, as inscribed on the canon or roll of ecclesiastical officers) holding a prebend in a cathedral or collegiate church. His office is of no great antiquity. According to Pasquier, canons are mainly divided into Canons Regular and Canons Secular. This, however, is not precisely true, for the term canon was applied in the 4th century to cenobites living under a common rule; and the office of canon is supposed by some antiquaries to have been introduced by Baudin or Baldwin, Archbishop of Tours (546-52) under Clothaire I., but was more probably first instituted by Chrodegand, or Chrodegang, Bishop of Metz, in 783. It is at least certain that he was the author of the oldest canonical rule, which was simply an adaptation of the monastic rule commonly but erroneously attributed to St Augustine, to the priests and 'clerks' specially attached to the service of a cathedral or other church, but differing therefrom chiefly by omitting the vow of poverty, and allowing canons to retain a life-interest in private property. It enjoined on the canons manual labour, the practice of silence at certain times, confession twice a year, and other duties needless to specify. The canons formed the council of the bishop, and assisted him in the government of his diocese. They lived in a house called a monastery, slept in a common room, ate at the same table, and were originally supported out of the episcopal revenues. This institute was encouraged by Charlemagne, under whom provisions concerning it were enacted at the Councils of Aix-la-Chapelle in 788, and Mentz in 813. In 816 Louis the Pious induced the Council of Aix-la-Chapelle to draw up a general rule of 147 articles for the whole body of canons. Canons found their way not long afterwards into England, Scotland, and Ireland. Various reforms of canons were made in the 11th and beginning of the 12th century, notably the institution for the canons regular of rules for community of life and abolition of private worship imposed by Pope Nicolas II. in 1059, and by Alexander II. in 1063, and the foundation of the Austin canons by Gervase, Archbishop of Rheims, in 1067, followed up by Ivo, Bishop of Chartres (1090-1115). Although the so-called rule of St Augustine was adopted in various places, it was not till 1139 that Innocent II. decreed, and the Council of Lateran, that all canons regular should be bound by that rule, and from that time they took generally the title of canons regular of St Augustine, or Austin Canons (see AUGUSTINIANS). They were further dealt with in a reform enforced by a bull of Benedict XII. in 1339. Gradually, however, many began to emancipate themselves from the restrictions of monastic life, and to live independent of any rule, which is not at all surprising, for the canons were wont to keep apart from the 'lower clergy,' as they called parish priests and others who really laboured to impart religious instruction. They were often of noble families, loved titles—at Lyons, one of the 'noble chapters,' every member of which had to prove several descents of nobility in the case of both his parents, they were called *counts*—and in general were men of the world rather than true churchmen. Most of these reformed or remodelled canons were called Black Canons, from wearing a black cassock; others, White Canons, from wearing a white habit, like the *Premonstratenses* of Picardy in France, and the canons of St Victor at Paris and Marseilles. In England, while there is some ground for holding that the clergy established by Augustine at the church of Canterbury were rather canons regular than monks, there is no positive evidence of the

introduction of canons regular till the beginning of the 12th century, when they appear at Gloucester, and somewhat later in London. They were reformed by Cardinal Wolsey in 1519, in virtue of a bull of Leo X., but shared in the general fall of monastic institutions in 1539. The class of *secular* canons, whose manner of life was not conventual, and who therefore escaped destruction in England when the monasteries were abolished by Henry VIII., probably originated in a tendency to relax the severity of rule enjoined on the regulars, which indeed was hardly less stringent than in the case of ordinary monks. Secular canons still exist in the Anglican Church, and their duties—making allowance for the difference between the Roman Catholic and Anglican religions—are much the same in kind as they were before the Reformation. See CATHEDRAL.

Canon, in Music (from the Gr. *kanōn*, 'a rule'), is the species of Imitation (q.v.) most strictly according to rule. The melody given out by one part is repeated note for note by the successive parts which follow at any interval of time and position in the scale. When produced between two parts it is called 'two in one,' when between three, 'three in one,' at the octave, fifth, or any other interval. Two or more canons may be carried on simultaneously; a piece for eight parts, consisting of four canons each between two voices heard simultaneously, is termed a canon 'eight in four.' Other parts may be heard, not in imitation, along with those in canon. The imitation may also be made by means of the devices of inversion, diminution, augmentation, retrogression, &c. The latter is termed a canon 'cancrizans,' from its crab-like motion. When a canon terminates by a few notes not in imitation, forming a cadence, it is called finite; but when it returns again to the commencement it becomes 'circular,' or 'infinite.' Canons are found in both instrumental and vocal works, and composers of all ages have shown their skill in constructing them. They abound in the works of the older writers, and occasionally considerable works were constructed wholly in canon—e.g. a Mass by Alessandro Scarlatti. Frequently they were more curious and enigmatical than beautiful; in modern music they appear in their proper aspect as incidental, or as merely an ingenious play upon notes. Byrd's well-known *Non nobis Domine* may be referred to as a specimen of canon. A full treatment of the subject will be found in the works upon counterpoint and fugue by Marpurg, Cherubini, or Ouseley.

Cañon (sometimes spelt *canyon*; Span. 'a cannon,' 'tube,' 'gorge'), the name given in western North America to a deep gorge or river ravine, between high precipitous cliffs. One of the best examples is the far-famed cañon of the Colorado (q.v.); see also SNAKE RIVER.

Canoness (*canonica*). The title of canoness was given at the close of the 8th century to a class of women living in common under a somewhat laxer rule than that of nuns, and originating in the Frank empire in imitation of the chapters of canons then recently instituted. They took the vows of chastity and obedience, but not that of poverty, and were not cloistered, though they had a common table and dormitory, and were bound to the recitation of the breviary, as were nuns. Their occupations were chiefly education of girls, transcription and embellishment of church office-books, and embroidery of vestments. The advantages of such institutions as asylums in a rough age were soon visible, and they multiplied in consequence, but as in many houses the religious motive had little to do with entrance, a distinction was drawn ere long between canonesses

regular and secular. The secular canonesses were for the most part members of princely or noble families, practised much state and luxury, and retained none of the rule save the common dormitory and the recitation of the Hours in choir. In Germany, several abbesses of canonesses were princesses of the empire, kept up feudal state, and furnished contingents to the imperial army from their vassals; and at the Reformation some chapters adopted the new opinions, and subsist to the present day as Protestant foundations, enjoying the revenues, and admitting to membership only ladies of noble birth or daughters of distinguished members of the military and civil services, whose sole obligation is celibacy during membership. The institute never spread beyond the limits of the empire, and the non-German houses were chiefly in Hainault, Flanders, and Lorraine.

Canonical Hours are the hours of day and night fixed for the reciting or chanting of the several parts of the divine office in the Church of Rome, but they are no longer strictly adhered to except in certain monastic orders. See BREVIARY.

Canonicals, a term used to describe the proper ecclesiastical dress of the clergy. See VESTMENTS.

Canonisation in the Roman Catholic Church is a solemn act by which the pope publicly proclaims the sanctity of a servant of God, whom he thereupon proposes to the veneration and *cultus* of the universal church. As a rule it is the final act of a lengthy juridical process, of which a former stage has been completed by the decree of Beatification (q.v.). To obtain this preliminary honour, the reputed saint must pass a strict examination of his virtues, and give proof of his performance of miracles. The decree of beatification declares him to be among the citizens of heaven, and accords him the title of Blessed, but the *cultus*, including the celebration of his feast-day, proper offices in missal and breviary, and the public veneration of his image or relics, is permitted only in a specified country, diocese, or religious order. Canonisation, which follows only on evidence being produced of fresh miracles performed by the *Beatus*, gives him the full title of Saint, and enjoins his *cultus* upon the whole church.

This formal grant of a heavenly rank and dignity to a deceased person has an analogy with the *Apotheosis* (q.v.) of ancient Rome. In the primitive Christian church the germs of the modern custom are to be found in the honours publicly paid to the martyrs. Altars were set up at their tombs, the anniversaries of their triumphs were celebrated with religious rites, and their names commemorated in the liturgy. Similar honours came shortly to be bestowed on the confessors or those who suffered imprisonment or pains short of actual martyrdom for their faith; and finally, when the days of persecution were over, the status of a confessor and the title of saint were extended to all who died with a reputation for eminent sanctity or for the working of miracles, which was taken as an almost infallible token of sanctity. For many centuries the appellation of saint was given to individuals, as it were, by popular acclamation. Martyrologies, menologies, calendars, and the like, were composed, which gave with more or less discernment and authority the names of the generally acknowledged saints, while it would fall to the bishop to decide to whom he should assign a feast-day or ritual commemoration within the limits of his own jurisdiction. Grave mistakes were admittedly made. Thus, St Martin of Tours is said to have miraculously discovered that a pretended martyr much honoured in his diocese, and over whose tomb the bishop had erected an altar, was no other than a

robber executed for his crimes. Legendary 'acts,' migrating from country to country, were a frequent source of confusion, a curious instance of which may be found in the story of Barlaam and Josaphat (q.v.), which has procured a place in the Roman martyrology for the pious memory of Buddha.

It was not until a comparatively late period that a regular form of procedure equivalent to canonisation was adopted. Application had, indeed, in early times been made to Rome for sanction of the cultus of some holy person, as in the case of Vigilius, Bishop of Trent, said to have been martyred in the first decade of the 5th century. But the earliest acknowledged instance of a solemn decree of canonisation is that of Udalric or Ulric, Bishop of Augsburg, declared to be a saint by John XVI. in 993 A.D. A little short of two hundred years later (1170 A.D.) Alexander III. reserved the right of canonising exclusively to the Holy See, and made it unlawful to render public cultus to any person, however celebrated for miracles, without the sanction of the pope. There had apparently been some ground for the decree; for in the pontificate of this same Alexander, the monks of a certain convent had publicly venerated as a saint a member of their community, who, in a fit of drunkenness, had been beaten to death by his religious brethren. The new rules were, however, not strictly observed, and abuses continued. Urban VIII., in two constitutions, 1625 and 1634, made more stringent regulations, and laid down the procedure in cases of canonisation, which, with slight modifications, is in force at the present day. It was strictly forbidden to give any public honour whatever to a reputed saint, to exhibit his picture in church, or even to apply to such a one the title of 'saint,' without explanation. The pope, however, declared that he did not thereby intend to prejudice the case of those who had received immemorial cultus through the general consent of the church, or whose cultus had obtained any special sanction from his predecessors. The exception is important.

Canonisation, without a special dispensation, cannot be decreed until fifty years have elapsed since the decease of the claimant for the honour. The process which precedes the decree observes all the forms of a suit at law. Two things must be established by competent witnesses—eminent virtues, technically called virtues in an 'heroic degree,' and the performance of miracles. The virtues, however heroic, will not be enough without miracles, and the miracles, however numerous and extraordinary, will not suffice without heroic virtue. In the case of the martyrs only, the requirements under the head of virtue are naturally less rigorous, all that is needed being proof of certain dispositions regarded as a proper preparation for true martyrdom. The first step is taken in the country or diocese of the servant of God by the ordinary, who sets up his court and examines witnesses, who speak, not now of virtues in particular, nor in proof of definite miracles, but of the existence of *fama*, or a reputation for sanctity. The bishop, or his vicar-general with assessors, sits as judge. The postulator selects and summons the witnesses in favour of the cause. An official corresponding to the *promotor fidei*, or the 'devil's advocate,' at Rome, watches the case to see that all the forms of the law are strictly observed, and a notary takes down the evidence, which, with all the documents 'compulsed' or put into court, is transmitted to Rome, to be there laid before the Congregation of Rites, whose business it is to sift and examine the evidence; and finally, but not until the expiration of ten years, report to the pope.

It is not necessary to describe the several stages

through which the process is conducted. If the promoter of the faith is satisfied, the pope takes the cause into his own hands, issues remissorial letters to a committee of the Congregation of Rites, which will then have to examine the virtues and miracles specifically. The cause is now said to be 'introduced.' So far the juridical decision is equivalent to the finding of a grand jury that there is ground for sending the case to trial. The introduction of the cause—i.e. of the pontifical process, entitles the *beatificandus* to be called Venerable. Very many have attained to this point in the proceedings, and no further. The legal expenses are considerable; and apart from the merits of the candidate, the motive power, such as the patronage of princes or the influence of a powerful religious order, is often wanting. If, however, the candidate passes successfully through the ordeal of the pontifical process, a decree of beatification is pronounced, and a festival-day, with proper office and the annexed privileges, is conceded to a specified locality or community, beyond which the cultus must on no account be extended. Before the further process of canonisation can be instituted, as has been said, the *beatus* must have worked a certain number of miracles since his beatification, and if these are such as can be brought into court, the case once more passes through the hands of several congregations, the last of which is held in presence of the pope, when the final decree is drawn up and agreed upon.

The ceremony of canonisation takes place in the Vatican basilica, and is one of the most solemn and imposing of all papal functions. It opens with a grand procession of pope and cardinals, with the image of the saint borne on banners. The pope then takes his seat on the throne, surrounded with his court. The postulator of the cause, generally a person of high rank, is led to the steps of the throne, and there petitions that the blessed servant of God may be enrolled in the catalogue of saints. The pope replies that so grave a matter requires light and counsel from heaven. The litanies are thereupon chanted, and the demand of the postulator renewed. Again the pope requires to ascertain the will of God by prayer, and the *Veni Creator* is sung. After a third request the pope announces that the *beatus* is enrolled in the canon of the saints, and that his memory is to be celebrated on a certain day throughout the church. Other ceremonies follow, with a high mass, at which the pope officiates, and at which the several cardinals concerned present mystical offerings, ornamented candles of wax, turtle doves and other live birds in gold and silver cages, costly flagons of wine, &c.

It must not be supposed that these lengthy juridical proceedings and ceremonies take place on all occasions of papal canonisation. For, besides what is called the formal canonisation, there is another process called equipollent or equivalent canonisation. This is founded upon the before-mentioned exceptions of Urban VIII.—i.e. upon proof of immemorial cultus, or of some papal sanction given to cultus prior to the date of Urban's constitution. In such cases the pope may at once pronounce the decree. Equipollent beatification is a summary process of a similar kind. The pope accepts the results of the ordinary process, and at once decrees beatification.

Equipollent beatification and the earlier stages of the process may be illustrated by the recent case of the English martyrs of the 16th and 17th centuries, which possesses some interest as being the first instance of the introduction of a cause relating to any English-speaking person since the Reformation. On June 19, 1874, Cardinal Manning instituted the ordinary process in due form. He

delegated three judges, who held their sessions at the London Oratory. Father Morris, S.J., acted as postulator, and summoned Bishop Hedley, Father Stevenson, the Duke of Norfolk, and others, as historical experts, to give evidence on oath in answer to written interrogatories. They testified to the cause of martyrdom, the character of the martyrs, and the tradition of miracles wrought at their intercession or by touch of their relics. There is no cross-examination, nor are unfavourable witnesses called. The proceedings, with extracts from books and MSS., were carried to Rome, where for more than the requisite ten years the case remained to be slowly digested by the officials of the Congregation of Rites. The promoter of the faith made the usual objections, found that such a one had died a natural death in prison, or that religion could not be said to be the cause of the execution of another. Meanwhile attempts were made by the postulators to escape from the difficulties of the tedious process before them, by finding ground upon which the pope could by indult grant equipollent beatification. Such a ground was at last discovered in the pictures of the martyrs under Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, painted on the walls of the English College at Rome in 1582, by sanction of Gregory XIII., and thereby giving proof of papal authority for public veneration of these martyrs. The 'devil's advocate' was satisfied, and accordingly the fifty-four martyrs here represented were declared Blessed in a decree issued December 29, 1886. The cause of 261 was 'introduced,' and these are therefore entitled to be styled Venerable Servants of God. Against thirty-three whose names were sent up to Rome by Cardinal Manning, including Henry Garnet the Jesuit, the objections of the promoter so far prevailed that their cause was deferred.

The case affords a curious illustration of the weak points in the procedure. The list of these English martyrs transmitted to Rome in the first instance followed that of the cautious Bishop Challoner, and therefore excluded many doubtful claimants who had appeared in some earlier and less authentic catalogues. Little was known, for example, of the priest Plumtree, who acted as chaplain for the northern earls in the rising of 1569, and was hanged as a rebel at Durham. Few writers ventured to reckon him as a martyr for religion. But his execution was represented in Circiniani's pictures, and therefore, notwithstanding the lack of historical evidence or even of continued tradition, he becomes suddenly, on the strength of this papal privilege, without proof of miracles, promoted *per saltum* to the full honours of beatification.

It remains to be said that Roman theologians commonly hold the decree of canonisation to be infallible, on the ground that otherwise the church might hold up to the veneration and imitation of the faithful a lost soul. It is said to be more doubtful if beatification is also infallible, for although the decree publicly declares the deceased person to be among the blessed, his cultus is permitted rather than enjoined, and that not for the universal church, but, as has been said, for a limited district or community.

The chief authority on canonisation is the great work of Cardinal Lambertini, afterwards Benedict XIV., whose three folio volumes, *De Beatificatione et Canonizatione Sanctorum*, are a storehouse of information not only on the legal procedure, but on the phenomena of ecstasies, visions, raptures, bilocations, and the miraculous healing of the sick and raising of the dead. A good summary of the subject may be read in Ferraris' *Prompta Bibliotheca* (article *Cultus*

Sanctorum). A portion of Benedict XIV.'s treatise relating to *Heroic Virtue* was translated in 1850 into English under that title by the Fathers of the Oratory. See SAINT.

Canon Law (*jus canonicum*) is, strictly speaking, that part only of ecclesiastical legislation in and by synods of spiritual persons which is concerned with the moral and disciplinary government of the Christian church, and is embodied in the form of *canons* or rules. It is thus distinct alike from the dogmatic decisions of similar synods, embodied in *decrees*, affecting formularies and standards of doctrine; from papal law (*jus pontificium*); and from enactments of the civil power upon ecclesiastical subjects (*jus ecclesiasticum*), though the last often overlaps the canon law proper. The earliest example of the enactment of such laws is in Acts, xv. 6-29, when the council of apostles and elders at Jerusalem framed rules of discipline for the new Gentile converts. It was not until the conversion of the empire, however, that it was feasible for canons of synods to have more than local currency and merely consensual force. From that time two new factors enter into the evolution of canon law—the general councils, which either themselves enact canons to bind all Christendom, or give their sanction to those enacted by local synods, thereby similarly extending their scope; and the sanction of the civil power, validating church canons so as to give them legal force and coercive authority.

Canon Law is broadly divided into Eastern and Western. The canon law of the Eastern Church is a comparatively brief code, composed exclusively of few, homogeneous, ancient, and authentic materials, and has remained unaffected by change or accretion for a thousand years. It consists of the following matters: (1) The disciplinary canons of the seven councils recognised as œcumenical by the Greco-Russian Church—namely, Nice I., Constantinople I., Ephesus, Chalcedon, Constantinople II. and III., Quinisext in Trullo (accounted by the Easterns as supplementary to the fifth and sixth œcumenical councils, and therefore not separately reckoned), and Nice II.; (2) the ancient code of laws known as 'Apostolical Canons'; (3) the canons of various lesser synods, Eastern and African, accepted and sanctioned by one or other of the greater synods; (4) canons promulgated by Dionysius and Peter of Alexandria, Gregory Thaumaturgus, Athanasius, Basil the Great, Gregory of Nyssa, Theophilus and Cyril of Alexandria, and canonical epistles of Gennadius and Tarasius of Constantinople; (5) the comments and glosses thereupon of the 12th-century canonists Theodore Balsamon, Joannes Zonaras, and Alexius Aristenus, which, though not properly part of the body of law, have been usually treated as authoritative interpretations. The earliest attempt at codifying the Eastern laws (there were various partial collections made previously) was the *Synagma Canonum* or *Nomocanon*, compiled in the 6th century by John the Scholastic; the final one was the *Nomocanon* of Photius, patriarch of Constantinople, compiled about 880 A.D. All the main documents of this Eastern code are to be found in the *Synodikon* or *Pandectæ* of Bishop Beveridge (2 vols. folio, Oxford, 1672-82). The civil validation of the Eastern canon law was first effected by Novel cxxxi. of the emperor Justinian.

The Western canon law is of much greater extent, is composed of much more diversified materials, inclusive of a large element of papal law, and has undergone continual changes by means of successive accretions and interpolations, many of the latter being spurious, besides being further complicated by the codes of canons enacted by national churches, and having local currency

only, but co-ordinate with the main Latin code in the several territories within which they are or were in use.

The earliest full collection of canons received in the West was made almost contemporaneously with the earliest Eastern one, and is due to Dionysius Exiguus, a Scythian monk of the 6th century, who translated the Greek portion of his materials into Latin, and issued (*circa* 550 A.D.) the whole in a body of 401 canons, being those of the Apostles, Nice I., Ancyra, Neocaesarea, Gangra, Antioch, Laodicea, Constantinople I., and Chalcedon, the so-called canons of Sardica, and the African code of 138 canons. To these he added further all the decretal epistles of popes with which he was acquainted, beginning with Siricius in 385, and ending with Anastasius II. in 496, thus discrediting in advance the long subsequent forgery of the False Decretals, which professedly went back much earlier. This collection was adopted at Rome, and received there its first accretions in the decretals of popes later than the time of Dionysius, down to Gregory II. (715-31). It was this co-ordination of papal epistles and rescripts with the canons of councils, as holding equal rank and authority, which was the distinguishing feature of the compilation by Dionysius, thus winning it that acceptance at Rome which was never accorded to the nearly simultaneous *Breviatio Canonum* by Ferrandus of Carthage (547). In its augmented shape, the Dionysian collection was formally recognised as the canon law of the Roman Church, and not merely was tacitly received as such in Western Europe and in Africa, but was sent officially by Pope Hadrian I. to Charlemagne, and solemnly received by the great synod of Aix-la-Chapelle in 803, whence it bore for a time the name of *Codex Hadrianus*. It was similarly recommended to the English bishops by Leo IV. about forty years later. Its fortunes in Spain were even more noticeable and momentous. Adopted there by (or at least in the time of) Isidore of Seville, and published under his name, it speedily supplanted an earlier collection by Martin of Braga, and prepared the way for the great forgery known as the False Decretals, possibly fabricated in Western Gaul, but published in Spain about 845 by Isidore Mercator, and easily passing, through the coincidence of editorial name, into the earlier and genuine Isidorian code. These false decretals consist of about one hundred spurious documents, inclusive of alleged papal rescripts, from Clement I. in the 1st century, to Sylvester in the 4th, and containing also the pretended Donation of Constantine. Nicolas I., then pope, saw how advantageous to himself this testimony must prove, and hastened to give it recognition, causing it to be embodied in the body of Roman canon law, wherein (despite the universal modern admission of its spuriousness) it continues to form a large and influential factor. The simple fact that search in the Roman archives must at once have established the non-existence of the whole collection, brands Nicolas with acting in conscious bad faith, whereas it is possible that the other persons then concerned in giving circulation to it may have been more or less honestly deceived.

The next important stage in the evolution of the canon law was the *Decretum* of Burchard of Worms in 1025, after which came the collections of Anselm of Lucca and Cardinal Deusdedit, about 1086, much increasing the papal factor. Soon followed the collection made by Ivo, Bishop of Chartres, about 1114. He seems to have taken the earlier work of Burchard of Worms, largely citing the False Decretals, and long current in Germany, as his model and guide, for his *Decretum* follows its method closely, and often

adopts its very words. All these collections, however, had one common defect as legal codes. The canons they contained, passed by councils widely apart in time, place, and circumstances, were often conflicting and contradictory, and thus perplexing rather than instructing those who consulted them for practical guidance. To meet this difficulty, Gratian, a Benedictine monk of Italian birth, and professed in a monastery at Bologna, compiled, between 1139 and 1142, a *Concordia discordantium Canonum*, published at Rome in 1144, for the purpose of showing how the opposing provisions could be reconciled? and this work (commonly cited as the *Decretum Gratiani*) met with immediate success, and exercised a powerful influence on the interpretation of the canon law. He appears to have taken the idea from the Pandects of Justinian, then recently discovered, and brought his collection down from the time of Constantine the Great to the pontificate of his contemporary, Pope Eugenius III., who approved it, and is alleged (but on insufficient evidence) to have at once licensed it to be read in the law-schools, and accepted as authoritative. Whether it obtained this special sanction or not, at anyrate it did make its way into the law-schools, and enjoyed a dominating influence therein. It included the False Decretals, and no fewer than 367 spurious canons, and thus powerfully contributed to the falsification of the Western code. To this period belongs the term '*Jus Canonium*' itself, not found earlier, and having no Greek equivalent. A further collection of the growing mass of fresh decretals needed to be made, and this was first undertaken by Bernardo Cere, Bishop of Faenza, who brought them down to the pontificate of Celestine III. (1191-98). But this collection was superseded by that formed at the instance of Pope Gregory IX. by his chaplain, Raymond de Pennafort (afterwards general of the Dominicans, and canonised), about the year 1234. This body of documents forms that portion of the *Corpus Juris Canonici* entitled *Decretales Gregorii Papae IX.*, comprised in five books. To these were added a sixth by Boniface VIII. in 1298, known as *Sextus Decretalium*, or more briefly, the *Sext.* The next addition was the *Clementina*, or constitutions promulgated by Pope Clement V. at the Council of Vienne in 1308, and republished by his successor, John XXII., in 1317, who subjoined thereto twenty fresh enactments of his own entitled *Extravagantes Joannis*. Five books of still more recent documents, named *Extravagantes Communes*, coming down to 1483, in the pontificate of Sixtus IV., have further been embodied in the code; and the whole of these materials are collectively styled *Corpus Juris Canonici*, of which a corrected and standard edition was published by order of Pope Gregory XIII. But the word 'corrected' does not denote rejection of the spurious factors. The False Decretals, though called in question even before the Reformation by Nicolas of Cusa (1401-64) and Cardinal Torquemada (1388-1468), powerfully controverted by the Magdeburg Continuations in the Reformation era itself (1560-74), and finally discredited by David Blondel in his *Pseudo-Isidorus et Turrianus Vapulantes* (Geneva, 1628), still constitute, as already said, an important element of the contents.

This code, however, as already implied, is, properly speaking, that of the local Roman Church and its immediate dependencies alone. All other parts of Western Europe had their local canon law derived from national synods and similar sources. Thus, in the empire, the Capitularies of Charlemagne and his successors contributed largely to the ecclesiastical law of Germany; and several collections of these (analogous to the Italian collec-

tions of papal decretals) were made from time to time, beginning with that of Angesusus, Abbot of Fontenelle, in 827, recast and much enlarged by Benedict of Mainz twenty years later; and a collection passing under the name of Angilram or Ingelram, Archbishop of Metz, Charlemagne's chaplain and almoner, is noticeable as containing large extracts from the False Decretals, and as being hyper-papal in tone, whence it has been conjectured to have been the first draft of the more extensive forgery of Isidore Mercator, and probably also from his pen. In France a great body of canon law, framed independently of Rome, was compiled from the enactments of a long series of national synods, and helped to build up those Gallican liberties which were steadily maintained against attempted papal encroachments. Spain, too, though more readily admitting papal intervention, had its peculiar local code. In England, partly from national character, and partly by reason of its remoteness from Italy, the growth of a national code of canon law was rapid and luxuriant. Most of the enactments of which it consists were framed in provincial synods under various archbishops of Canterbury; but a certain proportion is formed of Legatine Constitutions, enacted in synods held under the papal legates, Otho and Otholon, sent to England by popes Gregory IX. and Clement IV. in the reign of King Henry III., and between the years 1220 and 1268. At the era of the Reformation, the statute for the submission of the clergy and restraint of appeals (25 Henry VIII. chap. 19) enacted that a commission of thirty-two persons, half clergy and half members of the two houses of parliament, should review and report on the existing canons; such as the commission approved were to be revalidated by the king's assent under the great seal, and such as they disallowed to be abolished. In the meantime, all such existing canons as were not contrariant to the laws of the realm, nor hurtful to the king's prerogative, should still be used and executed. But this commission never met nor acted, and attempts to bring it into operation fell through under both Edward VI. and Elizabeth, and have not since been renewed. The legal result is that the statute of Henry VIII. remains the ruling one upon the subject, and thus that all the ancient canon law of England, which does not conflict with former or later canons or civil statutes, is still binding in ecclesiastical law. For post-Reformation canons, see CANONS OF THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

The bibliography of the canon law is very extensive, and only a few of the most essential works can be given here: Beveridge, *Synodikon, sive Pandectæ Canonum* (2 vols. folio, Oxford, 1672-82), and *Collatio Synodici* (2 vols. folio, Oxford, 1677); Justellus, *Bibliotheca Juris Canonici Veteris* (2 vols. folio, Paris, 1661); Fleury, *Institution au Droit Ecclésiastique* (2 vols. 12mo, Paris, 1771); Mästricht, *Historia Juris Ecclesiastici* (8vo, Halle, 1719); *Corpus Juris Canonici*, edd., Friedberg et Richter (2 vols. 4to, Leip. 1879); C. J. Vidmar, *Introd. ad Corpus Juris Utriusque* (Vienna, 1886); Böhmer, *Jus Eccl. Protest.* (Halle, 5 vols. 1730); De Marca, *De Concordia Sacerdotii et Imperii* (folio, Paris, 1663); Van Espen, *Jus Ecclesiasticum Universum* (5 vols. folio, Cologne, 1777); Ferraria, *Prompta Bibliotheca Canonica* (8 vols. 4to, The Hague, 1781); Lyndwood, *Provinciale, sive Constitutiones Angliæ* (Oxford, folio, 1679); Ayliffe, *Parergon Juris Canonici Anglicani* (folio, Lond. 1726); Johnson, *Collection of the Laws and Canons of the Church of England* (2 vols. 8vo, Oxford, 1851); Gibson, *Codex Juris Ecclesiastici Anglicani* (2 vols. folio, Oxford, 1761).

Canons, BOOK OF, in Scottish ecclesiastical history, a code of canons or rules for the Church of Scotland, prepared by the Scottish bishops, in obedience to the command of Charles I., revised by Laud, confirmed by letters-patent under the great seal, 23d May 1635, and published at Aberdeen in

1636. It tended much to increase the dissatisfaction prevalent throughout Scotland, which soon broke out so violently. It not only required the most strict adherence to the Liturgy, then not yet published, but enjoined many things concerning ceremonies in worship beyond what Laud had been able to introduce in the Church of England; it also took away the powers of church-courts unless ratified by the bishops, and decreed the penalty of excommunication against all who should deny the government of the church by bishops to be scriptural, whilst its very first canon decreed that penalty against all who should deny the king's supremacy in ecclesiastical affairs.

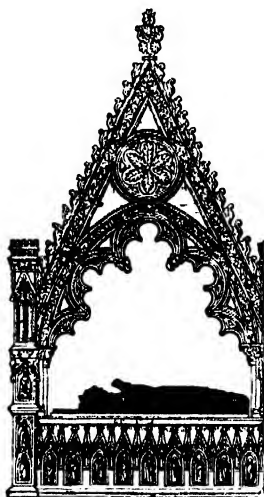
Canons of the Church of England, called Constitutions and Canons Ecclesiastical, agreed upon, with the king's license, in the synod held at London in 1603-4. They were drawn up by the Convocation of Canterbury, and accepted by that of York, in order to give effect to the decisions of the Conference held at Hampton Court; and are, for the most part, a digest of old injunctions and canons, with some new ones added. They are 141 in number. They are the basis of the ecclesiastical law, so far as the clergy are concerned, but they are not binding upon the laity, except in so far as they are declaratory of that part of the ancient canon law which had received parliamentary sanction. There had been previous bodies of canons drawn up in 1571, 1576, 1585, and 1597, but those of 1576 had not been sanctioned by the Sovereign, and the remainder had been sanctioned for her lifetime only, and so lapsed at her death, not having been published in accordance with the Act 25 Henry VIII. chap. 19. Much of the code of 1603 has become obsolete, either by disuse or as the result of incompatible legislation by the civil power, and notably by the transfer of matrimonial and testamentary causes to the jurisdiction of secular courts. In 1640 the Convocation, which was then assembled with the parliament, prolonged its session beyond it under a fresh writ from the crown, and passed a body of canons of a very aggressive character; amongst other things, enjoining that on some Sunday in every quarter, every officiating minister should insist on the divine right of kings and their prerogatives, and enforce conformity to the rites of the Church of England. In these canons it was directed that the communion-table should be railed in, and be placed as in cathedrals, which is now done in all churches; and another canon obliged the clergy to swear conformity to the Church of England in a form known as the 'Et Cætera Oath,' which raised an uproar throughout the country. These canons were abrogated by an act passed in the 13th year of Charles II. An account of these canons and those now in force may be found at length in Hook's *Church Dictionary*.—Every clergyman, when instituted to a benefice or licensed to a cure, promises *Canonical Obedience* to the bishop—i.e. the obedience due according to the canons of the church.

Canopus, or CANOBUS, a city of ancient Egypt, from which the Canopic mouth of the Nile derived its name, was situated on the sea-coast, 15 miles E. of Alexandria. Here the boundary line between Asia and Africa was drawn by the ancient geographers. Canopus had a famous temple of Serapis, considerable commerce, and an evil reputation for the luxury of its citizens. Its ruins are visible near Aboukir. Canopic Vases, named from the city, were vases used by the Egyptian priests to contain the viscera of embalmed bodies. Canopus is also the name of a star of the first magnitude in the southern constellation Argo.

Canopy (Lat. *conopeum*; Gr. *kônôpeion*, from *kônôps*, 'gnat' or 'mosquito') was originally a

mosquito-curtain. Herodotus (ii. 95), Horace (Epod. ix. 9), and others of the ancient writers mention gnat-curtains (*conoepa*). Subsequently the same term came to be used for the projecting covering and hangings of a bed, without reference to their original use, and latterly for any projecting covering of a similar form, to whatever use it might be adapted, or of whatever materials it might be formed. Canopy is thus used to signify the covering which is borne over the heads of kings and other persons of distinction, and still more frequently over the Holy Sacrament and the image of Christ in processions in Roman Catholic countries. See BALDACHIN.

In Gothic architecture, canopy is the term applied to the stone coverings usually projected over statues,



Canopy — Archbishop Peckham's Monument, Canterbury Cathedral.

both on the exterior and in the interior of buildings, to protect them from the rain and dust. They were introduced as early as the 12th century, and were then designed so as to resemble a small gabled roof or the top of a building furnished with gables and turrets. As the style advanced, the design of the canopies was carried out in harmony with the other features of the various periods, becoming in the Decorated period more like a pinnacle in shape and ornament, while in the Flamboyant and Perpendicular the canopies partook of the florid and fantastic character of those styles.

The term canopy is also applied to the gable-shaped and crocketed mouldings frequently placed over doors, windows, niches, &c.; also to ornamental stone coverings placed over tombs, of which fine examples may be seen in Westminster Abbey. The wooden coverings erected over the prebendaries' stalls in cathedrals, which are of infinite variety of design, are also called canopies, as well as the lofty ornamental tops which are often introduced over bishops' thrones, pulpits, and altars.

Canosa, a town of Southern Italy, in the province of Bari, 13 miles SW. of Barletta. It is situated on the declivity of a steep hill, whose summit is crowned by a ruined castle. It has a cathedral (1101-1825), with the tomb of Bohemond I.; but it is chiefly remarkable as occupying the site of ancient *Canusium*, one of the chief cities of Apulia. Sepulchres have been found here containing painted vases and funeral furniture of the most magnificent description, painted busts, marble statues, &c.; and countless antiquities have been transferred hence to the museum at Naples. There are also ruins of an amphitheatre, gateway, aqueduct, &c. Canosa suffered by earthquake in 1851. Pop. (1881) 18,422. See CANNE.

Canossa, a ruined castle of Northern Italy, 12 miles SW. of Reggio. In its courtyard the emperor Henry IV. (q.v.) stood shivering, bareheaded and barefooted, for three whole days (25-28th January 1077) before Pope Gregory VII., who was staying here with the Countess Matilda of Tuscany,

admitted him to his presence, and removed the ban of excommunication.

Canova, ANTONIO, the founder of a new school of Italian sculpture, was born November 1, 1757, at Possagno, a village in the Venetian territory. Having displayed in boyhood great talent in modelling, the artist gained the patronage of Giovanni Faleri, a Venetian senator, by whom he was sent to work under a sculptor at Bassano. His first imaginative performance, 'Enrydice,' half the size of life, was executed in his seventeenth year. After this he went to Venice, where his study of art properly began. In 1779 Faleri sent him to Rome, with an introduction to Cav. Zurlano, the Venetian ambassador, and one of the most illustrious patrons of art at this time in Italy. In Rome the first result of his studies appeared in the statue of 'Apollo,' which must be regarded as his earliest effort in ideal sculpture; but a far greater progress toward the pure style of the antique was evident in his next work, 'Theseus with the Minotaur,' executed in 1782. Nevertheless, Canova did not rigorously adhere to the severe simplicity of the antique, but endeavoured to infuse into his works a peculiar grace and loveliness of his own, such as characterised his group of 'Cupid and Psyche,' which was produced soon after he had completed, in 1787, the monument of Pope Clement XIV. This is apparent even in the colossal monument of Clement XIII. (erected in St Peter's, 1792); though this work, on the whole, is a magnificent effort of genius, simple in style, and with nothing overwrought in the figures. The most important of his monuments is the tomb of the Archduchess Christina of Austria, in the church of the Augustines in Vienna. Among his other works may be noticed a 'Winged Cupid,' 'Venus and Adonis,' a 'Psyche holding a Butterfly,' 'Penitent Magdalen,' in life-size; 'Hercules hurling Lichas from the Rock,' a colossal work, but not free from affectation; 'Crengus and Damoxenos' (two pugilists); 'Palamedes,' and 'Perseus with the head of the Medusa,' a work which, more than all previous efforts, served to raise his fame. In 1802 Canova was appointed by Pope Pius VII. chief curator of all Roman works of art in the Papal States; but in the same year he was called away to Paris, to prepare the model of a colossal statue of Bonaparte.

After the fall of the French empire, Canova in 1815 was employed by the Roman government as ambassador to recover the works of art which had been taken to Paris, and paid a visit to England. On his return to Rome, he was created Marquis of Ischia, with a pension of 3000 scudi. This money he expended in the support of art and artists in Rome. Canova died in Venice, 13th October 1822. The essential characteristic of all his works is sentiment—often verging, however, on sentimentalism, and this also, like his delicacy in details, was accordant with the taste prevalent in his time, and was the chief cause of his popularity, as of his errors. Judged by the sterner principles of antique sculpture, the works of Canova are artificial and deficient in force and realistic character.

During his leisure Canova amused himself with painting, in which he followed the colouring of the Venetian masters. In his private life he was a very amiable and benevolent man. Biographies of Canova have been written by Missirini (4 vols. Prato, 1824), Cicognara (Venice, 1823), Rosini (Pisa, 1825), and D'Este (Flor. 1864). A series of outline engravings, by Henry Moses, from his works, was published in London in 1824, with translations of the descriptions of the Countess Albrizzi and of the memoir by Count Cicognara.

Canrobert, FRANÇOIS CERTAIN, Marshal of France, born at St Ceré in Lot, 27th June 1809,

studied in the military academy of St Cyr, and in 1828 entered the army. He had seen close upon twenty years' brilliant service in Algeria, and had actively supported the future emperor at the *coup d'état* of 1851, when in January 1853 he received the rank of a general of division. As such he commanded the first division of the French army under Marshal St Arnaud, sent to the Crimea in 1854; and at the battle of the Alma was wounded in the breast and hand by the splinter of a shell. On St Arnaud's death nine days later, Canrobert assumed the chief command of the French army. According to Kinglake, he deliberately retarded the progress of operations, let slip many opportunities, and hampered the English—his object therein being to forward Napoleon's plan of himself coming out to head a final and victorious campaign. In the war in Italy against the Austrians (1859) Canrobert had the command of the third division of the French army, and at the battles of Magenta and Solferino his *corps d'armée* was engaged. In the Franco-German war of 1870 he was shut up in Metz with Bazaine, and became a prisoner in Germany. He was an ardent Imperialist till the death of the Prince Imperial (1879), three years before which he had entered the senate.

Canso, CAPE, the eastern extremity of Nova Scotia, at the entrance of Chedabucto Bay. Canso Strait, a passage 17 miles in length and $2\frac{1}{2}$ in average breadth, separates Nova Scotia from the island of Cape Breton.

Cant, ANDREW, a Scottish Covenanter, born about 1590, became minister of Pitsligo in 1633, of Newbattle in 1638, and of Aberdeen in 1640. In July 1638 he had been one of the commissioners sent to that city to compel the inhabitants to subscribe the National Covenant; and in November of the same year he was a member of the memorable General Assembly, held at Glasgow, which abolished Episcopacy in Scotland. Withal, he was a zealous royalist. He was with the Scots army when it obtained possession of Newcastle, August 30, 1640; and in 1641, on the second visit of Charles I. to Scotland, Cant preached before his majesty at Edinburgh. In 1660, in consequence of a complaint presented to the magistrates of Aberdeen, charging him with having published Rutherford's *Lex Rex*, and with fulminating anathemas and imprecations against many of his congregation, Cant relinquished his charge and left the town. He died 30th April 1663, leaving a son, Andrew, who was principal of Edinburgh University from 1675 to 1685.

Cantabile, in Music, is a term placed over sections of easy and flowing melody, in contradistinction to brilliant passages or rapid executive runs, as well in instrumental as vocal music. In the cantabile style the finest effects can be produced by the singer in swelling, sustained sound, the portamento, &c. Cantabile is also called *cantilena*.

Can'tabri, a rude race of mountaineers in the north of ancient Spain, who inhabited the region south of the Bay of Biscay, named from them the *Oceanus Cantabricus*. The question of their affinities forms part of one of the most difficult problems in the whole range of ethnology. W. von Humboldt identified them as a remnant of the ancient Iberian population of Western Europe, and found their descendants in the modern Basques of the Pyrenees. The bravery of the Cantabrians was evinced in the Cantabrian war with the Romans, begun under Augustus in 25 B.C., and concluded by Agrippa six years later. Their indomitable spirit is often alluded to by Horace and other poets. Tiberius afterwards stationed garrisons in the towns, but some of the people retreated into their fastnesses among the mountains, where they pre-

served their independence. Of their nine towns the chief was Julisbriica.

Cantacuze-nus, a Greek princely family. (1) JOHANNES CANTACUZENUS was a noted soldier and statesman of the Byzantine empire in the reigns of Andronicus II. and III., the latter of whom in 1341 left him guardian and prime minister of his son, Johannes V., then nine years old. Cantacuzenus, however, proclaimed himself the child's colleague, 26th October 1341, and after a five years' civil war secured his recognition, as well as the marriage of one daughter to the young emperor, and of another to the Sultan Orchan, whose help had been necessary to him. A second war, during which the Turks occupied Gallipoli, caused his retirement in 1355 to a monastery, where he died in 1383. He wrote a history of his time, and a defence of Christianity.—(2) MATTHIAS, his son, was also made a colleague in the empire in 1353, and on his father's abdication began a war which ended, two years later, in his own deposition. He too died in 1383.—(3) His brother, MANUEL (died 1380) was governor of Peloponnesus from 1348, and was recognised as despot of Misithra by Johannes V.; he did much to encourage the immigration of the Albanians into the depopulated Morea.—The family was notable among the Fanariots (q.v.), and in later years a Russian branch supplied several brave and successful leaders to the cause of Greek independence.

Cantal, a department in the interior of Southern France, formed out of the south portion of the old province of Auvergne. It has an area of 2090 sq. m., and a population in 1886 of 241,742. See AUVERGNE.

Cantarini, SIMONE, also known as IL PESARESE, an Italian painter, born at Pesaro in 1612, studied under Guido Reni at Bologna, where he afterwards painted a large number of pictures, all much in the style, but without the grace and delicacy, of his master's works. His thirty-seven etchings more closely resemble those of Guido. Throughout his life Cantarini's intolerable arrogance made him numerous enemies; and after a quarrel with his chief patron, the Duke of Mantua, he died at Verona in 1648, not free from a suspicion of having poisoned himself.

Cantata, in Music, was originally the name applied to a sort of musical narrative by one person, accompanied by a single instrument. Subsequently an air was introduced, repeated at intervals during the recitative. Many works now forgotten were written in this form by Carissini and other composers of the 17th and 18th centuries. It is represented in modern music by the concert-aria (see ARIA). The name is now applied to choral works, either sacred, and similar to, but shorter than the oratorio; or secular, either lyric or dramatic, but not intended for the stage.

Canteen is a refreshment-house in a barrack for the use of the soldiers. In the British army bread and meat are supplied to the soldier direct by the commissariat, but he has to buy beer and groceries for himself; and the canteen is a shop where he can do so at practically cost price, with a certainty that they will be good, without going beyond the precincts of the barrack. The men living in each room are formed into a mess, which opens an account with the canteen for the supply of dinner beer, tea, coffee, potatoes, and other similar necessities. The mess accounts are kept by the non-commissioned officer in charge of the room, made up weekly, and inspected by an officer. A certain fixed sum is charged to each man's account to defray the mess expenses, and the canteen bill is paid monthly. A mess is not allowed to get into debt to any extent. If one

week's account shows a deficit, the men have to go without something the next week in order to clear it off. They can also buy anything they like from the canteen on their own account, paying for it in cash. Formerly, the canteens were under civilian tenants, at rents varying from £4 to £1344 per annum, realising collectively about £70,000 annually. Gross intoxication having resulted from the sale of spirits at the canteens, the War Office prohibited such sale in 1847, lowering the rents by £20,000 to meet the reduced profits. As it was to the tenant's interest to encourage the soldier to drink, as well as to adulterate the articles sold, and to charge high prices, the canteen has since 1857 been made a regimental establishment, controlled by a committee of officers, with a canteen-sergeant, on a fixed salary, as salesman. Tobacco and the smallwares required by the troops are also sold at canteens. The profits are utilised for the benefit of the men of the corps, and the families of those who are married.

In French barracks, the canteen is a sort of club-room for the whole regiment. The *cantinier* is a non-commissioned officer, who acts merely as an agent for all, selling the liquors and commodities at prime cost.

Canterbury, a municipal and parliamentary borough, a county by itself, a cathedral city, and the seat of the metropolitan see of all England, in East Kent, on the Stour, 56 miles ESE. of London by road (62 by rail), and 16 NW. of Dover. Standing in a plain on the banks of the Stour, amid gently swelling hills, it occupies the site of the Roman *Durovernum* and Saxon *Canteraburg* ('borough of the men of Kent'), and from its position on the great London high-road must always have been a place of importance. There are some

where Chaucer's pilgrims lodged, lost its 'dormitory of the hundred beds' by fire in 1865.

But the great glory of Canterbury is its magnificent cathedral, whose precincts are entered through a splendid Perpendicular gateway (1517). When in 597 St Augustine became Archbishop of Canterbury, he consecrated, under the name of Christ's Church, a church said to have been formerly used by Roman Christians. Enlarged by Archbishop Odo (942-959), this church was totally destroyed by fire in 1067. Archbishop Lanfranc and Priors Ernulf and Conrad rebuilt it (1070-1130), and it was this cathedral that witnessed the murder of Becket, 29th December 1170. The choir was wholly burned down in 1174, and to rebuild it a number of French and English artificers were summoned. Among the former was one William of Sens, and to him, a man of real genius, the work was intrusted. The church was rich in relics: Plegmund in 890 had brought hither the body of the martyr Blasius from Rome; here too were the bodies of SS. Wilfrid, Dunstan, and Alfege, and now of the great martyr, St Thomas of Canterbury. The offerings at these shrines, especially the last, contributed greatly to defray the expenses of the sumptuous work. William of Sens did not, however, see its completion. He was succeeded in 1178 by another William, an Englishman, and to him we owe the completion of the existing unique and beautiful choir, with the choir transept, the retro-choir or Trinity Chapel, and the corona or circular apse called Becket's Crown. Gervasius, a monk, who witnessed the fire of 1174, and has left an account of it, tells us that the parts of Lanfranc's church which remained in his time were the nave, the central and western towers, the western transepts, and their eastern chapels. In 1378-1411 the nave

and nave-transepts were transformed by Prior Chillenden into the Perpendicular style of that period. The central or 'Bell Harry' tower, successor to the Angel steeple, was carried up (1495) to about double its original height; also in the Perpendicular style, it is 235 feet high, and 35 feet in diameter. The north-west or Arundel steeple was taken down and rebuilt in 1834-40; like the south-west or Dunstan steeple (1413-44), it is 130 feet high. The Norman plinth still remains on each side of the nave in the side aisles, and portions of Norman ashlar-work may still be seen about the transepts outside the west wall, and on the east piers of the great tower. The indiscriminate use of the Round or Norman and the Pointed or Early English arch is also a very striking feature in the eastern part of the building. The Lady Chapel, now called the Dean's Chapel, stands on the north side of the church, and was built between 1449 and 1468; the roof is a rich fan-vault. The adjoining north transept is called the Martyrdom transept,



Canterbury Cathedral.

remains of the ancient walls (1½ mile in circuit and 20 feet high), and the West Gate (*circa* 1380) is the survivor of six. Near the city wall is a large artificial mound, known as the Dane John (probably *Danjon*), and connected with this mound is a public garden, laid out in 1790, from the top of which is a fine view of the country around. The much mutilated castle, whose Norman keep resembled Rochester's, has been degraded to a gas-work; the guildhall (1439; rebuilt 1697) has been refaced with modern brick; and the Chequers' Inn,

for here took place the murder of Becket. In 1220, fifty years later, his remains were translated from the crypt to a shrine in the newly-erected Trinity Chapel, eastward of the choir. About the year 1500 the yearly offerings at this shrine amounted to £4000 of our present money, though then they had declined much in value. A curious mosaic pavement still remains in front of the place where the shrine stood, and the stone steps which lead up to it are worn by the knees of countless pilgrims; but the shrine itself was demolished in 1538, when

its treasures filled twenty-six carts. (In 1888 a stone coffin, with remains of a skeleton, supposed to be Becket's, was discovered in the crypt, and reinterred there after careful examination.) In 1643 the building was further 'purified,' as it was called, by order of parliament. Still very many most interesting monuments remain—such as the tombs of Stephen Langton; that which is commonly, but wrongly, supposed to be the tomb of Archbishop Theobald; with those of the Black Prince, of Henry IV., of Archbishops Peckham, Meopham, Stratford, Sudbury, Courtenay, Chicheley, Stafford, Kemp, Bourchier, Morton, Warham, and Cardinal Pole. The fifty-one statues that since 1863 have adorned the south porch and the western entrance include 19 of Canterbury's 94 archbishops, 21 English sovereigns, 3 deans, Erasmus, &c. Of stained glass there are some fine old specimens; some new ones of very varied merit, two, lately put up, being very fine. The total length of the cathedral is 522 feet, by 154 in breadth at the eastern transept. Its predominant styles are Transition-Norman and Perpendicular. The crypt is of greater extent and loftier—owing to the choir being raised by numerous steps—than any other in England. In 1561 it was given up by Elizabeth to a congregation of French and Flemish Protestant refugees, and a French service still is held here. On 3d September 1872 the church narrowly escaped destruction for the fourth time by fire, the outer roof being burned, over all the east portion of the choir.

To the north of the cathedral are the eight-bayed Cloisters, 144 feet square; the Chapter-house (1411), 90 by 35 feet; the New Library, with 10,000 volumes; the Howley Library, containing the libraries of Archbishop Howley and Archdeacon Harrison; the beautiful Green Court; the Deanery (1517); and the King's School, founded by Henry VIII. In 1541, where Marlowe, Dr Harvey, Lord Tenterden, and 'David Copperfield' went to school. These occupy the site, and in part the buildings, of the Benedictine Priory of Christ's Church. The remains of the Abbey of St Augustine, to the east, were in 1844-48 transformed by Mr Beresford Hope into an Anglican missionary college. There are fourteen old churches in Canterbury, mostly of rough flint, and containing fragments of still older structures. St Martin's Church stands on the site of one of the 6th century, and is partly built of ancient Roman brick and tile; its font is said to be the very one in which Ethelbert was baptised by St Augustine. St Dunstan's contains the monuments of the Ropers, and, in a vault, the head of Sir Thomas More. The archbishop's palace, the scene of the death of Edward the Black Prince, was built by Lanfranc. It has long been superseded by Lambeth, and is now represented only by a gateway. The Clergy Orphan School occupies a conspicuous position on St Thomas's Hill, about a mile out of the city; the Simon Langton Schools were opened in 1882. There are, besides, several hospitals, large infantry and cavalry barracks, a corn exchange, and an art gallery presented to the city in 1882 by one of her sons, Mr Sidney Cooper, R.A. Canterbury has a large trade in grain and hops, but a fortunate absence of manufactures. Races are run on Barham Downs, but they are quite eclipsed in importance by the Canterbury 'cricket week.' Since 1885 the city has returned only one member.

See articles ARCHBISHOP, ENGLAND (CHURCH OF), and on the various archbishops and others mentioned above; also Professor Willis's *Architectural History of Canterbury Cathedral* (2 vols. 1845-69); Dean Stanley's *Historical Memorials of Canterbury* (1854; 18th ed. 1883); Dean Hook's *Lives of the Archbishops of Canterbury* (12 vols. 1860-76); and R. Jenkins' *Diocesan History of Canterbury* (1880).

Canterbury, a 'provincial district' of New Zealand (q.v.), in the centre of the South Island; till the abolition of the system of provinces (see NEW ZEALAND) in 1876, it was a province, with Christchurch as its capital, and Lyttelton as its port. Its area is about 13,000 sq. m., and it is divided into two portions by the river Rangitara. The district was settled in 1850 by the Canterbury Association, a society of peers, bishops, and commoners interested in the colonisation of New Zealand. It has a coast-line of about 200 miles, a breadth of about 150, and is well watered by numerous rivers. Banks Peninsula, in its peaks, ridges, and basins, bears evidence of volcanic action. Coal in abundance, iron ore, fireclays, quartz, and gold exist, and several coal-mines are in operation. On the eastern side of the great range of hills are the far-famed Canterbury Plains, the great sheep district of the colony—three millions of acres rolling back in gentle rise forty miles, to the foot of the central highlands, watered by twenty rivers, and spreading north and south farther than the eye can reach. There is railway connection between Christchurch and Dunedin, with various branch lines. The staple trade is in wool and grain, with exports of flax, preserved provisions, skins, leather, and dairy-produce. The silkworm has been introduced. The Bishop of Canterbury is primate of New Zealand. The medicinal hot springs at Hammar Plain in Amuri district have considerable celebrity. Mount Cook (13,200 feet) is the highest mountain in New Zealand. In 1881 the population (91,922 in 1878) had increased to 111,049; the estimated population in 1884 was 129,799.

Canterbury Bells. See CAMPANULA.

Cantharis, a genus of vesicant Coleoptera or Blister-beetles (q.v.), familiarly represented by the Spanish Fly of Southern Europe (*Cantharis* or *Lytta vesicatoria*). Some of the characters are noted under BLISTER-BEETLE. The insects are shaken with gloved hands from the branches of trees (ash, privet, lilac, elder, &c.), the gathering in the south of France taking place in May; they are usually killed in hot vinegar solution and carefully dried. To retain their medicinal vesicant properties they must be kept in stoppered bottles. The blistering principle, or cantharidine, is so powerful that those who gather the insects are apt to suffer, and ½ lb. of a grain, placed on the lip, will raise blisters. Incautious internal application may cause fatal inflammation. Vinegar, tincture, and plaster of cantharides are used externally for producing blisters. A distilled alcoholic solution of cantharidine is sometimes called Aqua Tofana (q.v.). The insects are usually imported to Britain from Southern Europe or Russia. They rarely occur in England.

Canticles, a word which literally signifies songs, but which is specially applied to a poetical book of the Old Testament, called in Hebrew the *Song of Songs*—i.e. the most beautiful song (in the Vulgate, *Canticum canticorum*). The superscription names Solomon as author. The theme which it celebrates is love; but what kind of love, whether earthly or spiritual, is a question that has perplexed biblical critics. The canonicity of the book was a subject of dispute down to the assembly of Jewish doctors held at Jamnia about 90 A.D., when it was settled, on the authority of Rabbi Akiba, that 'no day in the history of the world is worth the day when the Song of Solomon was given to Israel,' and that 'the Song of Solomon is a holy of the holies'—though, indeed, its sanctity was still sometimes questioned in the 2d century after Christ. There is no clear proof that Canticles was allegorically interpreted

before the Christian era, and the book is nowhere referred to in the New Testament. The first mention of its being considered a representation of the relation of Jehovah to his chosen people is found in the Rabbi ben Gamaliel, a contemporary of Akiba; and the earliest Jewish writing in which such an exposition is fully developed is the post-Talmudic Targum. The religious interpretation passed over from Judaism to Christianity, and assumed a new aspect in consequence. Origen found the Beloved Bridegroom in Christ, and the Bride in the Church. Only among the theologians of the Syrian school do we find an effort made to adhere to more intelligible principles of interpretation, but the 'mystical' view obtained the upper hand, and Theodore of Mopsuestia was anathematized long after his death by the Synod of Constantinople in 551, partly for his 'carnal' view of Canticles. Supported by the authority of Athanasius, Jerome, Augustine, and Ambrose, the allegorical explanation held its ground throughout the middle ages, at that time (as e.g. in the eighty-six discourses which Bernard of Clairvaux composed on Canticles as far as iii. 1) the bridegroom being understood to mean not so much the Church as the believing soul of the individual Christian. This has continued to be the predominant view of the poem amongst orthodox theologians. Castellio was forced to leave Geneva in 1544 for having demanded its exclusion from the Canon as a mere anamorphic poem. Modern scholarship in the main contents itself with endeavouring to fix the primary or literal meaning. Since Herder (1778), the natural exegesis has prevailed, and almost all scholars agree in the erotic interpretation of the book; though it cannot be said that as to its *form* there is the same unanimity. Some commentators hold, for example, that Canticles is an anthology of detached idyls. Even Origen regarded it as composed 'in the manner of a drama.' Herder distinguished thirteen separate songs—'fair pearls on one string;' and Ewald admits the same number, while maintaining its unity as a dramatic poem with Staudlin, Delitzsch, Meier, Hitzig, and others (whose division, however, of the whole is into four, five, or six acts). According to Diestel, this apparent unity is due to elaborate interpolation, but 'the separation of the thirteen or fourteen songs is rendered difficult, because the hand of the arranger has concealed the seams.' He thinks the songs were collected before the exile, perhaps at the beginning of the 7th century B.C. Ewald's followers hold that the poem was written about the middle of the 10th century B.C. in the northern kingdom of Israel, and conceived in a spirit of hostility against the luxurious court of Zion. Solomon, the type of a sensual monarch, has carried off to his harem a northern shepherd maiden, who in the poem appears surrounded by the ladies of his court. The king fails even by the proffer of honourable espousals to overcome the maiden's fervent attachment to her shepherd lover in the north country, and, wholly abashed, ceases to press his suit. Finally, true and chaste love triumphs in the union of the peasant lovers. Stickel postulates, besides Solomon and his harem, *two* pairs of country lovers. See the commentaries by Delitzsch (1875), Meier (1854), Hitzig (1855), Renan (1870), Grätz (1871), Schäfer (1876), and Stickel (1888). The German name for the book is *Das Hohelied*, 'the high song'; the French (following the Latin *Canticum Canticorum*), *Cantique des Cantiques*. The word Canticle is also used for an unmetrical hymn in the church service arranged for chanting, such as the *Te Deum*.

Cantilever, or CANTALIVER (probably from old Fr. *cant*, 'angle' and *lever*, 'raise'), a large

bracket used in architecture for supporting cornices, balconies, and even stairs. Cantilevers are often highly ornamented. The accompanying example supports a wide outside stone stair at the corner of Randolph Crescent, Edinburgh.



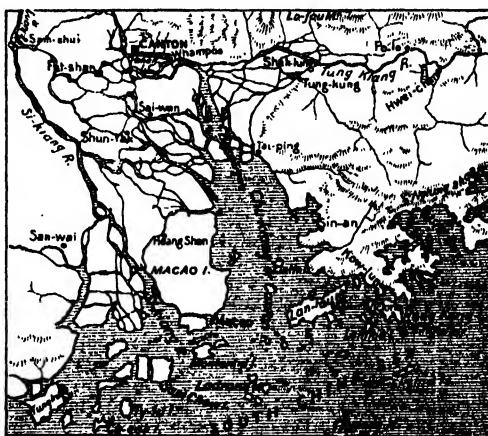
Cantilever.

For cantilever in bridge-building, see BRIDGE.

Cantire. See KINTYRE.

Canto Fermo. See PLAIN SONG, CHANT, GREGORIAN TONES.

Canton, called also Yang-Ching (i.e. 'city of rains'), a large commercial city and port in the south of China, and capital of the province of Kwang-tung (of which the name Canton is merely a corruption), is situated in 23° 7' 10" N. lat., and 113° 14' 30" E. long., on the north or left side of



the Shu-kiang, or Pearl River, in a rich alluvial plain, 70 miles N. of Macao and 90 NW. of Hong-kong. The Pearl River is the estuary of the same stream that higher up is called Boca Tigre (q.v.), or Bocca Tigris. Farther up still, the stream is known as the Canton River; and this is but the chief channel by which the united waters of the Si-kiang and the Pe-kiang rivers reach the sea through the delta. The city is surrounded by walls partly brick, partly sandstone, 25 to 40 feet high, 20 feet thick, with an esplanade inside, six miles in circumference; and it is divided by a partition wall running east and west into two unequal parts, the north or old city, much the larger, and the south or new city. There are twelve outer gates, four gates in partition wall, and two water gates; shut and guarded by night. The entire circuit, including suburbs, is nearly 10 miles. Among the names of the gates are Great Peace Gate, Eternal Rest Gate, &c. At the southwest corner of the suburbs, south of the river, are the Hongs or European quarter, divided from the river by a quay, 100 yards wide, called Respondentia Walk. The streets, more than 600, are in general less than 8 feet wide, and very crooked. The houses along the water-side are built on piles, and subject to inundations. Ancient barricades inclose each street, and in the principal streets night-watchmen in watch-towers proclaim the hours and sound fire alarms. There are two pagodas, the 'Plain Pagoda,' erected ten centuries ago, 160 feet high, and an octagonal nine-storied pagoda, 175 feet high, erected more than 1300 years ago; and 124 temples or Joss-houses. The Honam temple, one of the largest in Canton, covers, with

its grounds, 7 acres, and has 175 priests attached. The 'Temple of Filial Duty' has 200 priests, supported by 3500 acres of glebe-lands. The priests and nuns in Canton number more than 2000, nine-tenths of them Buddhists. The 'Temple of Five Hundred Genii' has 500 statues of various sizes in honour of Buddha and his disciples. Examination Hall, in the old city, is 1330 feet by 583 feet, covers 16 acres, and has 8653 cells. There are also in Canton four prisons, fourteen granaries, a handsome English church, fourteen public schools, and thirty colleges, a foundling hospital, an English and an American missionary hospital. Nearly half the craft on the river are fixed residences, and the population on land and water can hardly be less than a million and a half. The climate of Canton may be pronounced healthy. The average temperature ranges from 42° to 96° F.; though a fall of snow occurred in 1835, and again in 1861. There are fogs in February and March. From October to January the temperature is agreeable, the sky clear, the air invigorating. The average rainfall is 70 inches annually.

The admirable situation of Canton, connected by three rivers with the whole province east, north, and west, and to the west with the distant interior of China, and commanding a safe and commodious anchorage for the largest vessels, explains how, from an early period, it was a favourite port with foreign merchants. The earliest notices date back to two centuries B.C. In 700 A.D. a regular market was opened and a collector of customs appointed. The Arabs made regular voyages hither as early as the 9th century. The Portuguese found their way to it in 1517, and were followed by the Dutch a hundred years later. These in turn were overtaken and supplanted by the English before the close of the 17th century, and an immense trade was carried on by the agents of the East India Company. Their monopoly ceased on the 22d April 1834. Since that date the proceedings of the Canton government officers have originated two wars with the British. The city was captured by the allied French and English forces, December 1857, and continued to be garrisoned by them till October 1861 (see CHINA). After the treaty of Nankin (signed August 29, 1842), Canton was known as one of the five treaty ports, with Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai. Foreign commerce, however, is still hampered in many ways in Canton. The lekin duties press most heavily on foreign merchants; ocean steamers have been compelled to discharge their cargo at Whampoa; and the general insecurity of property renders it necessary that every shop which contains anything of value should be barricaded at dusk, so that it could stand a siege: at sunset business must stop.

The chief exports from Canton are tea, silk, sugar, and cassia; the chief imports, cotton, woollen, and metal goods, food-stuffs, opium, kerosene, &c. In 1886, 3159 vessels, with a tonnage of 2,586,689, entered and cleared the port; of these, the British flag covered 2563, of 2,176,740 tons' burden. The total value of the trade of Canton during the year 1886 was returned at £9,485,687, of which £4,527,353 were imports and £4,958,334 exports; but these figures, although official, represent only the movements through the foreign customs, and do not include the comparatively enormous trade with Hong-kong by junk.

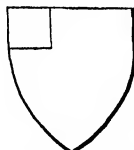
See Mrs Gray's *Fourteen Months in Canton* (1880); Dr Gray's *China* (1878); *The 'Fan Kwae' at Canton*, by H. W. C. (Lond. 1882).

Canton, capital of Stark county, Ohio, on the Nimishillen Creek, 56 miles SSE. of Cleveland by rail, with foundries, extensive iron and steel

manufactories, paper and woollen mills, &c. Pop. (1860) 4041; (1880) 12,258.

Canton (Fr.), a division of territory, constituting a separate government or state, as in Switzerland; or, as in France, a collection of communes, forming a subdivision of an *arrondissement*. In France, the canton sends one member to the council of the *arrondissement*, but is in no other sense an administrative division.

Canton, in Heraldry, the diminutive of the Ordinary called a Quarter (accounted by some heralds a Subordinary), being a square occupying generally the dexter, sometimes the sinister, chief of the field; if the latter, it must be styled a Canton-sinister. In size it is accounted to occupy the place of one-third of the chief. It may be charged. Occasionally it is charged with some allied coat of arms which by heraldic rule the bearer is not entitled to quarter, but which there is some special ground for commemorating in the family escutcheon. When a cross is placed between four charges it is said to be cantoned.



Canton-sinister.

Canton, JOHN, electrician, born at Stroud, 31st July 1718, settled as a schoolmaster in London, and was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1749. He invented an electroscope and an electrometer; he originated experiments in induction; he was the first to make powerful artificial magnets; and in 1762 he demonstrated the compressibility of water. He died 22d March 1772.

Cantonments are the villages, farms, or other buildings in which troops are temporarily lodged while taking part in manœuvres or active operations. In the latter case, a careful arrangement of guards and sentries is necessary to prevent the men being surprised before they can turn out of the houses; and places of assembly, called alarm posts, are selected at which they can collect.

In India, however, cantonments have become permanent military towns, distinct and at some little distance from the principal cities. A large cantonment contains barracks for European troops, bungalows or houses, in gardens, for the officers; huts for the native soldiery; magazines and parade grounds; public offices and buildings of various kinds; and a bazaar for the accommodation of the Camp Followers (q.v.) and other natives. See BILLETING, BIVOUAC, and CAMP.

Cantor. See PRECENTOR.

Canth, CESARE, Italian, author, was born 8th December 1807, at Brivio, in the Milanese territory, and was destined for the priesthood, but early adopted literature as a profession. Imprisoned in 1833 for the offence of expressing liberal tendencies in an historical work on Lombardy, he spent his leisure hours in describing the sorrows of a prisoner in the form of an historical romance, *Margherita Pusterla* (1838), which is only less popular than Manzoni's *I Promessi Sposi*. His *magnum opus*, the *Storia Universale* (35 vols. 1836-42), has been succeeded by a multitude of works on Italian history and literature, as well as works of a lighter character, and *Manzoni: Reminiscenze* (2 vols. 1883).

Canute, a Latinised form of CNUT, called the Great, and by Scandinavian writers the Mighty and the Old, king of the English, Danes, and Norwegians, was born about 994, the son of Sweyn, king of Denmark, by Sigrid, widow of Eric, king of Sweden. His father died in England in his career of conquest (1014), and Cnut was at once chosen by his fleet king of England, while his elder brother, Harold, succeeded as king of Denmark. But the

Witan sent for Ethelred to be king, and Cnut was soon obliged to flee and return to Denmark, but not before, with the characteristic cruelty of his early life, he had cut off the hands, ears, and noses of the English hostages of his father, and put them ashore at Sandwich. Next year (1015) he put to sea again with a splendid fleet, and landed on the coast of Dorsetshire. He ravaged the country far and wide, and by Christmas had made himself master of Wessex. Early next year he marched to York, and overawed all Northumbria into submission. Already he was master of almost all England, save the city of London alone, when the death of Ethelred and the election as their king by the Londoners of his vigorous son Edmund, gave a new turn to the struggle, which went on fiercely, and with varying result. Twice Cnut failed in his attempts to capture London. The final struggle took place at Assandun (see ASHINGTON), when, after a desperate battle, the English fled. Edmund and Cnut met at the isle of Olney, in the Severn, and divided the country between them: Cnut taking the northern part; Edmund, Wessex and the south. The death of Edmund in 1017 gave the whole kingdom to the young Danish conqueror. His first act was to put to death some of the more powerful English chiefs, and to send the two little sons of Edmund out of the kingdom. In 1018 he levied a heavy Danegeld of over £80,000, with which he paid off his Danish warriors, keeping only the crews of forty ships, the nucleus of his 'hus-carls.' The kingdom he divided into the four earldoms of Mercia, Northumberland, Wessex, and East Anglia. From this time onwards till his death Cnut's character seems to have become completely changed. At once he laid aside his ruthless, revengeful temper to become a wise, temperate, devout, and law-abiding ruler. He strove also to govern England according to English ideas, restored the equal rights that had prevailed in Edgar's time, and gradually replaced the Danish earls with native Englishmen, to whom he opened up the highest offices. Ethelnoth became Archbishop of Canterbury; Godwine, Earl of Wessex. He himself married Emma, the widow of Ethelred. He was liberal to monasteries and churches, and reverent to the memory of the native saints and martyrs. He made a pilgrimage to Rome in 1026-27, and his letter sent from Rome to his subjects reveals alike the noble simplicity of his nature and the high conception he had formed of the duty of a king. The death of Harold in 1018 had given him the crown of Denmark; the death of Olaf in 1030 closed a long struggle, and gave him secure possession of Norway. Cnut gave eighteen years of peace and order to England. His power depended mainly on the greatness of his own personality, for at his death his empire at once fell to pieces. He died at Shaftesbury, 12th November 1035, and was buried in the Minster at Winchester. The famous story, telling how he rebuked the flattery of his courtiers by showing them that the advancing waves on the seashore had no regard for his kingship, is given by Henry of Huntingdon, who adds that never after would the king wear his crown, but hung it on the head of the crucified Lord.

Canvas, ARTISTS', the principal material upon which oil-paintings are made. Before it is put into the artist's hands it is usually *primed*, or grounded of a neutral gray, or other tint, as he may direct. Certain sizes of canvas being in greater request than others, are kept ready mounted on wooden stretchers. The stretchers are provided with wedge-shaped keys at the corners, for tightening the canvas, should it become slack. Those used for portraits are known by the names of kit-cat, which measures 28 or 29 inches by 36; three-

quarters, 25 by 30 inches; half-length, 40 by 50; Bishop's half-length, 44 or 45 by 56; Bishop's whole length, 58 by 94.

Canvas-back Duck (*Fuligula vallisneria*), a common bird on the Atlantic coasts of the United States, abundant for instance in Chesapeake Bay. It belongs to the general group of wild ducks, but ornithologists have differed somewhat as to its generic title. The names *Aythya*, *Nyroca*, *Aristonetta*, *Fulix*, and *Fuligula* seem all applied to it. It is a handsome bird, especially in the somewhat larger and more decorative male sex. The popular name refers to the ashy white colour of the male's back, crossed by broken zigzag lines. *F. americana* or Red-head Duck is closely allied. Both, but especially the Canvas-back, are prized for the table.

Canzone is the name of one of the most important forms of Italian lyric poetry. It seems to have grown out of the *canzo* of the troubadours, which was in their hands, however, exclusively reserved for themes of love. The Italian canzone consists of a series of stanzas, of various metrical arrangements, and restricted to no set themes. In the Petrarchian canzone the stanzas exactly correspond in the number and measure of the lines, as also in the sequence of the rhymes. It often concludes with a short stanza, known as the *envoi*. Petrarch is the great master of the canzone in the earlier, and Leopardi in the later period of Italian literature. In music, canzone and canzonet are songs in two or more parts. The French *chanson* is simply a song.

Caoutchouc. See INDIA-RUBBER.

Cap. See BONNET, PERCUSSION CAPS, and MAINTENANCE (CAP OF).

Capacity, LEGAL, means the power to alter one's rights or duties by the exercise of free will, or responsibility to punishment for one's acts. Civil capacity depends on Age (q.v.) and mental condition (see INSANITY). But civil incapacity is often imposed as a punishment on persons of full age and undoubted mental capacity. Convicts and persons attainted are placed under a general civil incapacity, and partial incapacities are also imposed as punishments e.g. where a person is found guilty of bribery he becomes incapable of a certain public office. The English law of infancy, imposing a general disability to contract (except for necessities) on all men up to the age of 21, is not founded on physiological fact, and requires alteration. The disabilities attaching to married women have been largely removed by recent legislation in both England and Scotland. For supposed political reasons aliens were for a long time debarred from ordinary civil rights, and they are still properly excluded from political rights until they naturalise themselves and adopt the obligations of a subject. Different tests of capacity are applied to different transactions, as Contract (q.v.) and testament.

Cap-a-pie (Fr., 'head to foot'), in the military language of the middle ages, was applied to a knight or soldier armed at all points, or from head to foot, with armour for defence and weapons for attack.

Cape Breton, a rocky island of irregular form in British North America, at the eastern extremity of Nova Scotia, from which it is separated by the Gut of Canso, one mile broad. It has an extreme length of 100, a breadth of 85 miles; area, 3120 sq. m., with a pop. (1881) of 84,500. The coast is greatly indented with bays, and an inlet, the *Bras d'Or*, entering the island on the east, forms a lake (50 miles long, and 20 broad) which renders most of the interior accessible by water, and which, now continued by a ship-canal ($\frac{1}{2}$ mile) to St Peter's Bay, on the south coast, bisects the island. The climate is moist, but milder than that of the adjoining

continent; the principal exports are timber, fish, iron ore, and coal. The island produces maize and other grains, though not in sufficient quantities for home consumption. Originally a French possession, it was taken by the English in 1745; but being subsequently restored to France, it was again captured in 1758, and in 1819 became part of the province of Nova Scotia. The towns are Sydney, Arichat, and Port Hood, the once famous Louisbourg, stripped of its fortifications, having become merely a village.

Cape Coast Castle, a settlement of Great Britain in the Gold Coast Colony, in Upper Guinea, 315 miles W. of Lagos. The place lies in a chasun, and as its name implies, is defended by the great castle near the water's edge, and by three small forts on the hills behind, one of which serves as a lighthouse and signal-station. Ceded by the Dutch to the English in 1665, Cape Coast Castle, from 1672, was possessed by several British African companies till 1843, when it was taken over by government. In 1875 it was superseded by Accra as capital of the Gold Coast. The town has a trade in palm-oil. There is a telegraph line to Accra, and a fair road from Cape Coast to Pralsue (75 miles). L. E. Landon died here in 1838. Pop. 5000.

Cape Cod, properly a narrow peninsula of Massachusetts, in form somewhat like the letter L, which, with a length of 65 miles, forms the south-east boundary of the great bay of that state. The northern extremity, marked by a revolving light 155 feet high above the sea, is in 42° 3' 40" N. lat., and 70° 14' 48" W. long. It has been proposed to cut the neck of the peninsula by a canal.

Cape Colony, officially COLONY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, is a British colony situated at the southern extremity of the African continent. It is bounded on the NW. by Great Namaqualand; on the N. by British Bechuanaland, the Orange Free State, and British Basutoland; on the S. by the Southern Ocean; on the E. by Pondoland and Natal; and on the W. by the Atlantic Ocean. The total area of the Cape Colony (1888) is said to be 231,276 sq. m.

The Cape Colony is deficient in navigable rivers, and in gulfs or arms of the sea stretching inland. Generally speaking, the bays have wide mouths and not much depth of water. Perhaps the best and safest natural harbour on the colonial coast is afforded by Saldanha Bay; but at present the country in its neighbourhood is nearly unoccupied, the supply of water being deficient. St Helena Bay, Lambert's Bay, and Donkin's Bay are places on the west coast where vessels occasionally call. Port Nolloth, on the north-west coast, is where most of the copper ore is shipped from the mines of Little Namaqualand. Table Bay is the principal colonial harbour. It is naturally much exposed on the north-west; but the Table Bay Harbour Board, which was formed in 1860, has shown great energy and ability in erecting a break-water, and in constructing docks for large shipping, including graving-docks (see CAPETOWN). False Bay, lying to the east of the Cape of Good Hope, includes Simon's Bay on its western side, which is the imperial naval station. This is a safe anchorage, and there is a slip for the repair of vessels; but trade, of course, leads merchantmen to Table Bay. The necessary railway communication between Capetown and Simon's Town is completed as far as Kalk Bay. Her Majesty's government and the government of the colony are co-operating in the works of defence which are at present in progress at these important imperial possessions, which, on account of their situation are of so much consequence to the naval and mercantile interests of the British empire. At Mossel Bay

there is a good anchorage for ships, and there are jetties, steam-cranes, and other conveniences for landing and loading cargoes. There is a local Harbour Board, but no extensive works have been as yet undertaken. Farther east, at the mouth of the Knysna River, there is a large lagoon, the southern extremity of which is connected with the ocean. The entrance is only 180 yards in width, and is between very high headlands, so that a sailing-vessel could not enter unless the wind was blowing in, except, of course, by the aid of a steam-tug. There are 18 feet of water on the bar in its shallowest part, so that large vessels can enter. Algoa Bay, with Port Elizabeth on its western shore, has been the scene of great energy and enterprise since the founding of the town, after the arrival in the colony of the English settlers in 1820 (see PORT ELIZABETH). At Port Alfred and at East London considerable sums of public money have been spent with the view to improve the harbours. The works are still in progress. St John's River is a port in Pondoland purchased in 1878 from the Pondo chief, and annexed to the colony in 1884.

Running parallel to the coast-line of the Cape Colony, and at an average distance from it of about 150 miles, there is a range of mountains which forms the watershed of the country. This is known as the Stormberg, the Sneeuwberg, the Nieuwveld Mountains, the Roggeveld Mountains, and Kamiesberg, as it stretches across the colony in south-westerly, westerly, and north-westerly direction. The Eastern Province of the colony, along with the Cape peninsula, are on the whole better watered than the interior portion of the Western Province. Grassy plains, well-wooded river-courses, and mountain glens are to be found throughout the eastern part of the colony, while in the western and part of the midland district the country is covered with the Karroo bush, and the flat-topped hills stand out grim and bare, without kindly tree or bush to cover their rugged outlines. These Karroo bushes, although yielding a dreary enough prospect to the traveller, are of great value to the sheep-farmer; and where you suppose you are passing through a wilderness, you are in reality surrounded by large sheep-farms. The southern part of the colony presents some beautiful scenery; but it will be conceded that the Stockenström, Bedford, and other eastern districts are more beautiful still.

Climate.—The climate of the Cape Colony and of the interior of Southern Africa generally is one of the finest in the world, and eminently suited for Europeans. As a health-resort the Cape has long been favourably known; and increased attention has been given to it in recent years. The climate for a certain number of miles inland along the coast is more or less affected by the moisture from the ocean. Here irrigation of the ground by farmers, as a rule, is not necessary. The climate on the coast is superior to that of England. But it is after the traveller leaves this well-watered belt, where chest complaint, although infrequent, is nevertheless occasionally found among the natives, and when he ascends the higher inland plateau, that he finds himself in a rare and yet balmy atmosphere which is exhilarating to the healthy, and most beneficial to those subject to lung-complaints, especially if they have arrived in the country at a sufficiently early stage. Even when organic disease had set in, there have been well-authenticated cases in which it has been arrested. Members of families hereditarily inclined to this disease, who take up their abode in South Africa, have healthy children. In physique the European has lost nothing by residence in South Africa for two hundred years.

The following table shows the temperature, &c., on the coast, at Wynberg, near Capetown, and at

Port Elizabeth; at a midland town, Grahamstown; and at two stations on the higher plateau—Aliwal

North and Colesberg Bridge, on the Orange River:

		Mean Temp.	Absol. Max.	Absol. Min.	Mean of Max.	Mean of Min.	Mean range.	Rain.	Days on which rain fell.
COAST.									
Wynberg, near Cape-town.....	{ Summer...	63·8	96·0	42·0	76·2	65·2	11·0	34·62	92
	{ Winter....	55·3	92·0	41·5	66·4	49·2	17·2
Port Elizabeth.....	{ Summer...	66·8	94·5	48·5	75·0	60·4	14·6	19·99	49
	{ Winter....	59·5	97·5	43·0	67·4	53·3	14·1
MIDLAND.									
Grahamstown.....	{ Summer...	63·1	90·0	44·0	74·3	56·6	17·7	29·56	77
(alt. 1800 ft.)	{ Winter....	53·1	82·0	35·0	63·7	50·9	12·8
ELEVATED PLATEAU.									
Aliwal North.....	{ Summer...	67·4	102·0	41·0	88·2	55·8	34·4	22·86	89
(alt. 4330 ft.)	{ Winter....	48·8	84·7	24·0	62·6	38·4	34·2
Colesberg Bridge....	{ Summer...	69·7	101·0	33·0	85·3	54·0	30·4	18·35	66
(alt. 3600 ft.)	{ Winter....	49·3	84·5	23·0	66·8	39·2	27·6

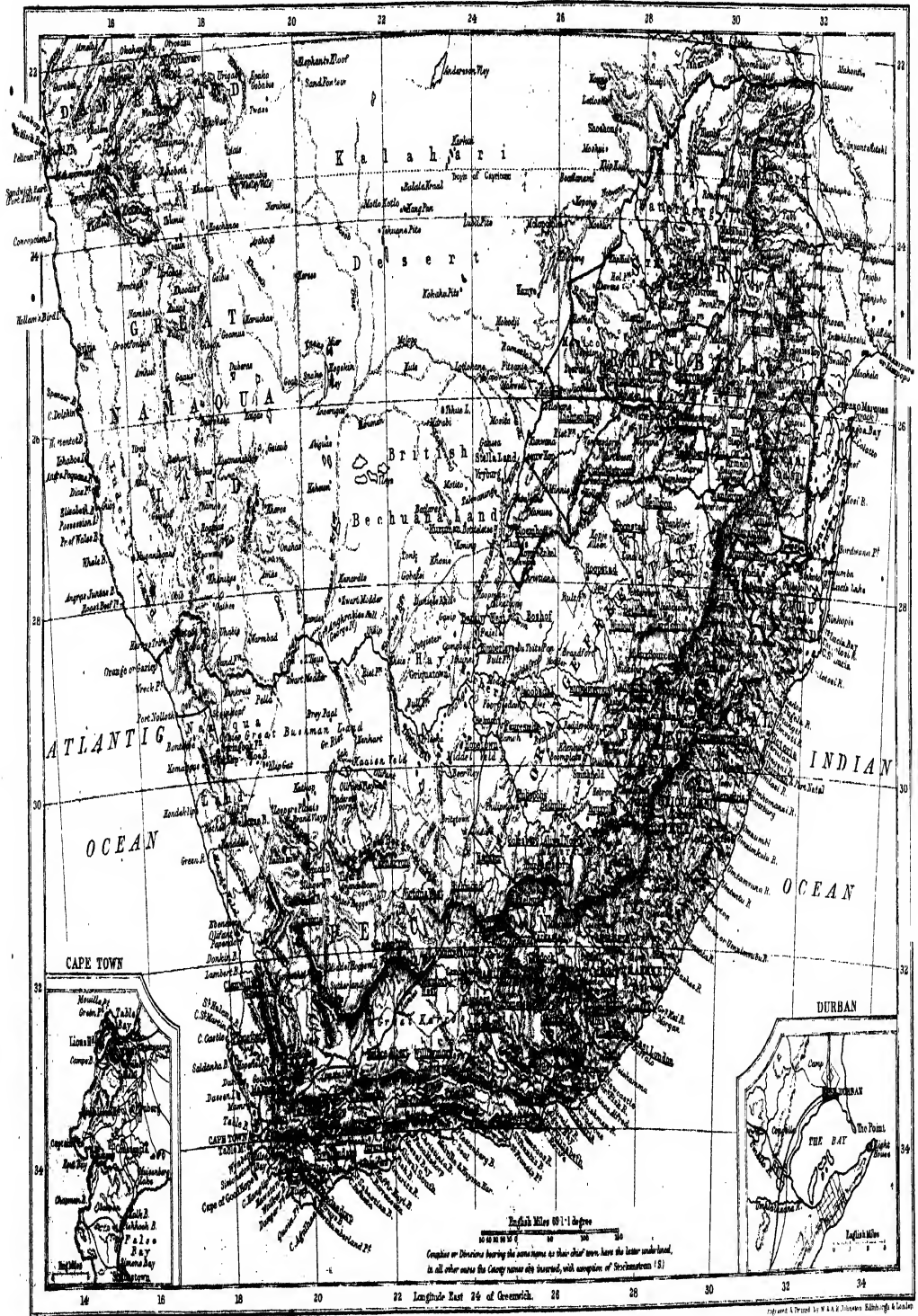
Population.—The last census of the Cape Colony was taken in 1875. Several additions of territory have been made since that time, including Griqualand West and the Transkei. In 1885 the estimated population of the whole colony was—whites, 340,000; natives, 912,347; total, 1,252,347. Unlike the aborigines of some other parts of the world, the natives of the Cape Colony are steadily increasing. For instance, the Hottentots at the commencement of the present century did not number 15,000, according to contemporary estimate. In 1836 they were estimated at 32,000; in the census of 1865 they were found to number 81,961; and in 1875 they numbered 98,561. Guided by comparative philology we find that within the Cape Colony, as well as beyond its borders, there are two families of natives—the yellow-coloured and oblique-eyed Garipeine people; and the darker, and far more numerous Bantu family. The Garipeine family includes Hottentots, Korannas, Namaquas, and Bushmen. The Garipeine languages abound in ‘clicks,’ and are suffix-changing. The meaning of certain words is changed by the tone at which it is spoken, as in Chinese. In their pastoral and nomadic habits the Garipeine race resembled the Tartars or Mongolians. Their women and girls were the milkmaids of the family; whereas among the Bantu people no woman might enter a cattle-pen while the cattle were in it; and if she did so, the pen had become impure and unsafe, and had to be cleansed by the priest. The Bantu languages are prefix-changing, a point in which they resemble some of the languages of Polynésia. The Bantus are subdivided into numerous tribes or clans, known to Europeans as Kaffirs, Zulus, Basutos, Bechuana, Matebele, Mashona, &c. The Bantu family occupies the African continent northward, up to and beyond the equator. In 1875, according to the colonial census, the proportion of races found in the colony was as follows: Whites, 32·84 per cent.; Malay, 1·50 per cent.; Garipeine (Hottentot), 13·67 per cent.; Bantu (including Fingo, Kaffir, and Bechuana), 39·89 per cent.; mixed and other races, 12·10 per cent. The white population of the Cape Colony is made up as follows: The earliest settlers were from various countries in North Europe, being the hired servants of the Dutch East India Company. To these were added 150 Huguenot refugees in 1688. In 1820 English and Scotch settlers were placed by government on land in the Eastern Province. Under the auspices of the late Prince Consort, the German Legion, after the Crimean war, were settled on land on what is now the King Williams-town district of the colony. The discovery of diamonds led to a rush of European population to what is now the northern part of the colony—Griqualand West. Between 1873 and 1884, 23,337 immigrants were introduced into the colony under

government auspices; but this work has been in abeyance since 1884. The Eastern Province of the colony is, roughly speaking, an English country, agriculture and commerce being alike in English colonists’ hands. The western part is mainly occupied by Dutch-speaking descendants of the early settlers. In the Eastern Province we find a Dutch-speaking minority living happily among the English; and in the Western Province there is a corresponding minority of English farmers living among their Dutch-speaking neighbours. The business of the colony has always required a higher education than, until recently, was within the reach of the Cape colonist, and was thus almost entirely in the hands of ‘inlanders’ or foreigners—Europeans. There is, however, an increasing minority of Dutch-speaking colonists now in business, both on the sea-board and in the interior of the colony.

Irrigation, Railways, &c.—Beyond the belt of country skirting the sea-coast agriculture can only be successful where there is a supply of water for irrigation. The colonial government in 1877 passed an act which made provision for the constitution of Irrigation Boards for carrying out irrigation works; and in 1879 the provisions of the act were extended to municipal bodies. In connection with these acts money can be borrowed on reasonable terms for the purpose of irrigation, provided the scheme in question has the support of an engineer approved by government. Van Wyk’s Vley, in the dry division of Carnarvon, is by far the most important irrigation work which has been constructed in South Africa. The reservoir drains 460 sq. m.; but so scanty is the rainfall that in 1883 and 1884 it did not exceed 4 inches per annum. The reservoir when full will hold 35,000 million gallons, and the extent of the water-surface will be 19 sq. m., with an average depth of over 10 feet. The total cost of the work, exclusive of land, has been over £23,000. An extensive fertile country close to the reservoir is now capable of cultivation. Elsewhere in the colony similar operations have been carried on; but this work is still in its infancy, and is destined to change the face of the country.

Road-making was begun at an early date by the English governors of the Cape, superseding the wagon-tracks which were then the only roads. It is computed that there are now 4100 miles of constructed main-road throughout the colony. Four bridges erected by the colonial government span the Orange River at different places, so that trade with the interior is no longer liable to the annual interruption caused by the flooding of a river which drains some 400,000 sq. m. of country. The bridge at Hopetown is 1480 feet long, and cost £114,260; that at Colesberg is 1339 feet long, and cost £108,726. At Bathulie the bridge is 1350 feet

CAPE COLONY AND SOUTH AFRICA



long, and cost £78,874; at Aliwal North, the bridge is 860 feet long, and cost £59,904. Another bridge of similar construction spans the Kei River, and unites the colony with the native territory called the Transkei. So impressed were the Fingoes with the utility of the work that they contributed voluntarily £1500 towards making the approaches to the bridge. A good bridge, built with government sanction by the enterprise of a company, spans the Vaal River at Barkly West, keeping open the northern highway of commerce at all seasons.

Telegraphs are in the hands of the Cape government. Almost every town is now in communication with Capetown. Up to 1884 the total expenditure on purchase and construction of lines was £351,000. In 1885 there were 8663 miles of wire. The maximum cost of a telegram of ten words between the extreme points of the system—1500 miles—is 1s., and 6d. for every five additional words.

Sir George Grey turned the first sod of the Cape railways in 1859. The line was between Capetown and Wellington, 58 miles in length, and was constructed by an English company under a guarantee of a rate of interest of 6 per cent. on £500,000. This and two lines commenced by private companies afterwards passed by purchase into the hands of the government. The discovery of the diamond-mines gave a great impetus to colonial railways. As these were all constructed by government with consent of the colonial parliament, no single line was pushed forward to the diamond-fields, which would benefit one port in particular; but railways were pushed forward from Port Elizabeth and from East London, as well as from Capetown. Railway construction had come to a standstill in 1885, while Kimberley and Hopetown were unconnected by rail. In connection with imperial operations in Bechuanaland, Her Majesty's imperial government offered to the Cape government a loan of money on favourable terms for the completion of this highly important part of the railway system. The railway to Kimberley was completed before the end of 1885. The mileage of the railways in 1888 was 1599 (divided into a Western System, 718 miles; Midland System, 589 miles; Eastern System, 292 miles).

Products and Industries.—The chief export from the Cape Colony is wool. This industry may be said to date from the time that the colony came into the hands of Britain—the sheep which before that time were owned by the Dutch colonists being the native sheep, which is distinguished by its huge tail, and by the hair which it has on its back instead of wool. Cattle are also extensively raised, especially in the grassy districts of the Eastern Province. The Hottentots and Kaffirs were found in possession of cattle, which were indeed the first articles of barter between the early agents of the Dutch East India Company, and the tribes in the neighbourhood of Table Bay. Pneumonia, known as 'lung-sickness,' was introduced from Holland in 1857, and has never since been eradicated. In a country where the grazing grounds are not fenced, and where the cattle are frequently penned together during the night, there are peculiar facilities for spreading the disease, which has found its way as far north as Matebeleland. Inoculation as a preventive of pneumonia is practised with success, a piece of diseased lung, or of the virus from it, being introduced into the tip of the tail of the animal which is operated upon. The cattle-ranching capacities of the country have not been fully tested—few, if any, wells have yet been sunk for this purpose, and little has been done in the way of inclosing cattle-runs as in Australia.

Horses were introduced at an early date by the Dutch, to assist them in their operations against the Hottentots. They have not been used in agricultural work by the Dutch colonists—the ox doing all the heavy farm-work. The Cape horse, however, although small, is a hardy and capable animal with great power of endurance. In the northern parts of the colony, and more especially in the countries beyond the colony, horses are subject during the summer months to a climatic disease known to every one as 'the horse-sickness.' It is often very deadly and very rapid in its development. Of those attacked by this disease a small proportion recover; these are no longer liable to it, and are known as 'salted' horses. Horses reared in a district liable to this disease do not suffer so severely as horses introduced into it; so that the horse will no doubt be acclimatised not only throughout the colony but throughout South Africa.

Ostrich-feathers have long been an article of export from the Cape. For many years they were obtained at the expense of the death of the birds; but in 1864 ostrich-farming was commenced at the Cape, and is now one of the leading industries. Ostrich-feathers are so beautiful that they will probably always find favour with some people; yet so inexorable is fashion that the demand fell off very much when small birds and birds' wings were preferred by leaders of ladies' fashions as ornaments for ladies' head-dresses. The feathers of the wild bird are more beautiful than those of the tame bird, and are recognised at once by those in the feather trade. In 1865 there were only 80 tame ostriches in the colony. It is computed that in 1887 there were not less than 150,000. The highest money value of the feathers exported was reached in 1882, when it was £1,093,989 for 253,954 lb. of feathers of all classes. In 1886 the quantity exported was greater, being 288,568 lb.; but, prices having fallen, for this only £546,230 were obtained.

The native *fauna* of the colony, once so numerous and varied, are now well nigh extinct. A few elephants and buffaloes are still 'preserved' in the Knysna and Zitzikama forests, but the hippopotamus, rhinoceros, giraffe, eland, quagga, gnu, and other large game, are, with the lion, no longer to be seen within the Cape Colony. The beautiful springbok and smaller antelopes are still found, with baboons, monkeys, wild cats, porcupines, jerboas, conies, ant-eaters; as also tiger-cats, leopards, jackals, and wild dogs. Whales have entirely disappeared from the coast, and few seals remain. The variety of birds is also great, and some are peculiar, such as the secretary-bird, the honey-bird, the weaver-bird, and the ostrich. Reptiles still abound; the alligator is chiefly found beyond the colony, but the iguana, the cobra di capello, puff-adder, and other snakes are found in the colony. Insect life is also abundant. Flights of locusts and swarms of caterpillars occasionally pass through a district. The honey-bee is extensively found even in desert parts; the 'white ant' (termites) covers the face of the land with its habitations, which are from 2 to 4 feet in height.

The *botany* of the Cape has long been a subject of great interest. It is probable that no single country in the world has contributed so largely to European conservatories and gardens as the Cape of Good Hope—sending such handsome flowering shrubs as the pelargoniums, heaths, proteas, and the lovely bulbous plants of irideae, amaryllideae, and liliaceae. Similar to the continent of Australia in many respects, South Africa differs from it in this, that it is, relatively to area, much richer in its flora than Australia. Several plants are of high medicinal value. Botanists divide South Africa as follows: tropical region, from Algoa Bay to

town and Kimberley send each four members; Tembuland and Griqualand East each one member; and thirty-three divisions of the colony return two members each. The Upper House, or Legislative Council, consists of twenty-one members, who are elected by eight circles or sections, into which the colony has been divided for legislative council purposes. The House of Assembly is purely elective; in the Upper House the single exception is the chairman or president of the council, who is the chief justice of the colony, *ex officio*. He has power to take part in any debate that may arise, and the casting vote only when the votes are equally divided. The qualification for entering the House of Assembly is identical with that of a voter. To enter the Upper House, a man must be possessed of immovable property within the colony of the value of £2000. Members of both Houses residing more than 10 miles from the place where parliament assemblies are entitled to mileage and £1 per day.

The franchise in the Cape Colony is exercised by the following persons: (1) The occupier for twelve months of a house, warehouse, shop, or other building, of the value of £25. (2) The joint-occupier, whose share is of the value of not less than £25. (3) The recipient for not less than twelve months of salary or wages at the rate of not less than £50 per annum, or of £25 per annum with board and lodging. Voters are entitled to be registered in more than one division. This franchise was modified in 1887, so that native voters should no longer be able to bring forward their share in a communal or tribal holding as qualifying, in whole or in part, to exercise the franchise. Such voters had for a considerable period enjoyed the colonial franchise.

The Cape Colony is divided into sixty-five divisions or counties, in each of which there is a divisional council elected every three years, which is empowered to levy rates and manage the business of the division. The chairman is the civil commissioner of the division, who is usually also the resident magistrate. The large towns are under mayors and town-councils; smaller towns have municipal councils; and villages have management boards. Councillors are elected for three years, and go out by rotation.

For the administration of justice, there are field cornets and justices of the peace for minor cases throughout the districts of each division or county; then there is the resident magistrate of each division, for adjudicating in more serious cases, and for conducting preliminary examinations of cases which go before the superior courts, which sit at Kimberley, Grahamstown, and Capetown—the last being the supreme court. There is an appeal from the Colonial Court to the House of Lords.

A peculiar arrangement obtains for the discharge of general imperial functions in South Africa. The governor of the Cape holds a commission as 'High Commissioner for South Africa,' which imposes on him very important duties, having reference to the interests and well-being of countries outside the Cape. As high commissioner, the governor of the colony conducts the correspondence between Her Majesty's government and the Free State and Transvaal Republics. Native territories under imperial administration or protection have the colonial governor as chief administrator or governor, in his capacity of high commissioner. The salary of £1000 per annum is paid to the high commissioner, not from the imperial but the colonial exchequer. This function has had a disturbing and prejudicial effect on purely Cape Colony politics. It is a question about which there has been difference of opinion among officials, as to whether as high commissioner the governor of the Cape must consult and guide

himself by the advice of his colonial ministry. Sir Bartle Frere was inclined to consult the ministers as high commissioner. Sir Hercules Robinson endeavoured to take the opposite course. Cape politicians are also divided on this question. Some urge the continuance of the dual system, with the clear understanding that as high commissioner as well as governor, the holder of the duplex offices should submit himself to local colonial guidance and advice; others urge the separation of the functions by the appointment of an imperial officer to the work of high commissioner or governor-general, and of a second officer to be constitutional governor of the Cape Colony.

History.—The Cape of Good Hope was first rounded by the Portuguese voyager and discoverer Bartholomew Diaz in 1486. For a century and a half the Cape was used occasionally by Portuguese, English, and Dutch mariners, engaged in the eastern ocean-trade. They obtained fresh water under Table Mountain, and were able to purchase cattle and sheep from the natives. Two English admirals, in the time of James I., landed and took possession of 'the South African coast and continent.' No after step, however, was taken by the English government to ratify this act of Admirals Shillinge and Fitz-Herbert—the latter an ancestor of the Earl of Carnarvon. It was not till 1652 that the Dutch East India Company, under charter granted by the States-general of the United Provinces of Holland, took possession of Table Bay, establishing a fort and occupying the lands skirting the foot of Table Mountain. The primary object of the settlement was not colonisation, but the supply of the Company's vessels on their voyages to and from the eastern archipelago. It was in the nature of things, however, that a lovely and fruitful country when discovered should be gradually cultivated; and this was done under the auspices of the Company, and on very unfavourable terms to the individual settler. There took place a chronic conflict between the Dutch East India Company and the early settlers, whose industrial efforts were hampered and rendered almost nugatory by the Company's repressive and monopolising rule. Appealing repeatedly and in vain to headquarters in Holland, the landward population were in actual rebellion when, at the end of the 18th century, events in European politics extended their influence to the Cape. The French having conquered Holland, the Stadtholder (the Prince of Orange) fled to England, where he made a treaty with the English against the common enemy, the French. An English fleet was despatched to hold the Cape for the allies, the officers in charge, Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig, having been intrusted with a letter to the Cape government from the Prince of Orange, directing that the English troops and ships should be received as in alliance with Holland, and sent to protect the colony. The local officer in charge of the Cape, however, refused to recognise the letter of a refugee prince—especially as he had no instructions from his immediate masters, the Dutch East India Company. After a short engagement the Company's officers asked for an armistice, and afterwards yielded to the English force. Holding the country for the allies, England handed back the Cape to Holland at the Peace of Amiens in 1801. For some four years the Cape was a Dutch colony, under the government of the Netherlands, and not under the India Company. When war broke out again in Europe, an expedition under Sir David Baird was despatched to recapture the Cape, in order to prevent a station of such importance from falling into the hands of the enemy. The English force numbered some 4000

men; the Dutch under General Janssens, composed of Batavian and colonial forces, consisted of about 3000. An engagement took place, the invading force advancing under a heavy fire, bore down all opposition. General Janssens retreated and took up a strong position among the hills of Sir Lowry's Pass. The English general, now in possession of Capetown, opened communications with General Janssens, and was not unwilling to make the terms of his submission liberal and generous. For some years the Cape seems to have been regarded by the British government as technically under temporary occupation as a conquered territory; but when the European war was concluded a convention was entered into (1814) whereby the Cape Colony, so far as European politics were concerned, was recognised as belonging to England. Other Dutch possessions were also made over to England at the same time; on the British side £6,000,000 sterling was paid to Holland.

The true history of the Cape as a colony may be said to begin with the close of the rule of the Dutch East India Company. The old vexatious restrictions were removed from the burghers, and industry and trade at once received a stimulus—especially by the encouragement which was given to rearing wool-bearing sheep—against which, however, great prejudice was for some time entertained by the more ignorant farmers. At first all power and authority were vested in the governors of the colony; and the country owes much to the ability and public spirit of the men who first filled this office. In 1825 an executive council was appointed to assist the governor. In 1835 the first legislative council was constituted—one half being government officers, the other half nominated by the governor and approved by the crown. In 1850 this council was authorised to take the necessary steps to introduce representative government, and in 1853 an order in council was issued, providing for the creation of a colonial parliament, consisting of a House of Assembly and Legislative Council. In 1872 'responsible government' was conceded. Thus political and social changes and improvements have been inaugurated in the colony in a comparatively short period, which have taken hundreds of years to work out in European countries. Nor must it be forgotten that this elevating and enfranchising work was not confined to a section of the population. In 1829 an order in council was issued declaring that all natives who were not slaves were on the same footing as Europeans before the common law. And the slaves at the Cape were also emancipated, along with those in other British possessions, in 1838.

It is not necessary to refer at length to what are known as the Kaffir wars. The difficulties connected with the government of the Cape Colony have had reference to two laws of population—which have been in active operation since our earliest connection with the colony. The European population was steadily moving northward; the native population was with equal regularity moving southward. The non-recognition of those two laws on the part of those responsible for the peace of the country has been the real cause not only of much disappointment and vexation, but also of outrage, bloodshed, and vast expense. Then the contact of such people as the Kaffirs, who were given to war, and were passionately fond of cattle-lifting, with colonists whose cattle were frequently allowed to wander unherded night and day over the prairie grazing-ground, could not but be attended with some amount of conflict and recourse to arms. The constant recurrence of these wars, however, was owing not only to a warlike spirit in the tribes, but to the fact that tribal rule becomes obsolete and inefficacious when any

considerable number of Europeans appear in a native territory. The new wine of European civilisation, with its written accounts, mortgages, and bills coming up for adjudication, cannot be contained in the old bottles of unlettered Bantu chieftainship. Several of the colonial wars sprang from the reluctance of the imperial government to recognise this need for substituting enlightened administration for tribal rule. Thus the same country had to be conquered again and again. Sir Benjamin Durban in 1834, and Sir George Grey (1854–62), endeavoured to impress on the imperial government that the way of peace was in the imperial administration of native territories, and not in alternately fighting them and letting them alone. It was the policy of the Scanlen ministry to devote the efforts of the colonial government to strictly colonial administration within the colony, leaving native territories under imperial administration. The policy of their successors, the Upington-Sprigg ministry, was to annex native territories to the colony, to govern the colony itself by constitutional government, and the native territories by paternal or personal government, administered by the colonial government. With the exception of Pondoland, the whole of the native territories between Natal and the Cape Colony were, in accordance with the policy of the latter Cape ministry, annexed to the Cape Colony in 1885.

See the Official Handbooks by Noble (1886), and Silver's Handbook; Greswell, *Our South African Empire* (1885); Mackenzie, *Austral Africa* (1887); Wilnot and Chase, *History of Cape Colony* (1869); Theal's *History of South Africa* (1888).

Capefigue, BAPTISTE HONORÉ RAYMOND, French author, was born at Marseilles in 1802; and in 1821 came from Aix to Paris to complete his juridical course, but from 1830 devoted himself to literature. He died 23d December 1872. A bit of an historian, a bit of an antiquary, and a bit of a politician, Capefigue was first and foremost a romanticist. The best of his innumerable works, which fill nearly a hundred volumes, was almost the first—*Histoire de Philippe Auguste* (1829).

Cape Hayti, or LE CAP (formerly called *Cape François* and *Cape Henri*), a seaport town of Hayti, on its north coast, 90 miles N. of Port au Prince. It has a good harbour, considerable foreign trade, and is a bishop's see. Pop. about 12,000.

Cape Horn, &c. See HORN (CAPE), &c.

Capelin (*Mallotus villosus*), the only species of a genus belonging to the salmon family, and nearly related to the smelt. It is one of the smallest members of the family, lives on the sea-bottom off the northern coasts of the Atlantic, comes to the surface to spawn, and furnishes one of the most important parts of the cod's food in northern regions. Vast shoals occur periodically off Newfoundland, and are much used as bait in the cod-fishery. The capelin is eaten fresh in Iceland, and is sometimes imported in dried form into Britain. The flavour is pleasant, and suggests affinity with herring rather than with salmon.

Capell, EDWARD, Shakespearean commentator, was born near Bury St Edmunds in 1713. He was educated at Bury and Catherine Hall, Cambridge, and in 1737 was appointed deputy-inspector of plays, in 1745 groom of the privy-chamber. His official duties allowed him ample time for his favourite studies, which resulted in 1768 in his edition of Shakespeare in ten volumes, the work of twenty years. In 1774 he published the first volume of his commentary, but this part was recalled, and the whole published in 1783, as *Notes and Various Readings to Shakespeare* (3 vols.). Capell lived a

very secluded life at London and Hastings, and died early in 1781. The best portion of his fine library he bequeathed to Trinity College, Cambridge. He was an acute textual critic, though his abilities are spoken of with contempt by Farmer and Dr Johnson. Others again gave him the credit of many of the notes of Steevens.

Capella, MARTIANUS MINEUS FELIX, a learned author who flourished most probably in the second half of the 5th century, was born in the north of Africa. The work which has preserved his name to posterity is the *Satiricon*, a kind of encyclopædia, highly esteemed during the middle ages as a work of reference. It is written in a medley of prose and verse, and is full of curious learning. Of its nine books, the first two are an allegory, *De Nuptiis Philologie et Mercurii*, while the remaining seven are devoted to the 'liberal arts': grammar, dialectics, rhetoric, geometry, arithmetic, astronomy, and music. The best editions are those of Kopp (1836) and Eyssenhardt (1806). A passage in book viii., that on astronomy, is remarkable as containing more than a hint of the true theory of the solar system. As Copernicus knew Capella, and quotes from him, it has been suggested that probably he derived the first idea of his doctrine from this writer.

Capella, a bright star of the first magnitude, on the left shoulder of the northern constellation of Auriga.

Cape of Good Hope, popularly regarded as the most southerly promontory of Africa, though it is half a degree to the north of Cape Agulhas, which forms the turning-point from south to east on the voyage from Europe to India. This celebrated promontory is in 34° 22' S. lat., and 18° 29' E. long., being the termination of Table Mountain, which, as it recedes towards the bay of its own name, rises from the height of 1000 feet above the sea to that of 3582. On the north it forms Table Bay; on the west it shuts in False Bay and Simon's Bay. The Cape (as it is called *par excellence*) was discovered and doubled by Diaz (q.v.), a Portuguese navigator, as early as 1486—six years before Columbus, in aiming at the same goal by a different route, led the way to America. Owing to the dangers he had passed through, he named it *Cabo de todos los tormentos* ('Cape of all the Storms'), but John II. of Portugal renamed it *Cabo de Buena Esperanza* ('Cape of Good Hope'). But it was only in 1497 that Vasco da Gama realised the value of Diaz's discovery, by rounding it on his adventurous voyage from Lisbon to Calicut. The result was not merely to open a new channel for the traffic of the East, but also to transfer trading superiority from the republics of Italy to the states of Western Europe.

Capercailzie, or CAPERCAILLIE, also called Wood-grouse, or Cock of the Woods (*Tetrao urogallus*), the largest of the gallinaceous birds of Europe. It is a species of Grouse (q.v.), almost equal in size to the turkey; the male, which is about a third larger than the female, sometimes weighing fifteen pounds or more. In figure and appearance it much resembles the blackcock, but the male has a rounded, not forked tail, and elongated head-feathers. The general colour of the adult male is brownish black, minutely freckled with grayish white and with lighter brown; the quill-feathers dark brown; the tail-feathers nearly black, some of the longer tail-coverts on the sides of the tail tipped with white; the chest is of a shining dark green; there is a small scarlet patch of naked skin above the eye, and the bill is whitish. The general colour of the female and of young males is dark brown, freckled with yellowish brown; the front of the neck and the chest are yellowish

chestnut; and the feathers of the under parts are generally edged with white. The feet are feathered to the toes, but these are naked. It is an inhabitant of pine-woods; feeds on berries, seeds, worms, insects, &c., and on the young shoots of the pine, greatly preferring the Scotch fir to the spruce; occasionally also eating, at least in winter, the buds of the birch and other trees. The females and young feed largely on insects and worms. The female makes her nest on the ground, and lays from six to twelve eggs, of a pale reddish or yellowish brown, spotted with other shades of brown, and more than two inches long. The young birds keep by the mother till winter. Like



Capercailzie.

the blackcock, the capercailzie is polygamous. In spring the males indulge in untiring love-song, and in grotesque play to attract the females. Fights between rival males are of common occurrence. The geographical distribution is very extensive; it is found on the pine-covered mountains of all parts of Europe, from Spain and Italy almost to the North Cape, and is abundant in the northern parts of Asia. It was at one time found both in Scotland and Ireland, but was completely extirpated about the end of the 18th or beginning of the 19th century. Through the exertions, however, of the Earl of Fife and other proprietors of great Highland estates, but particularly of the Marquis of Breadalbane, it has again been restored to the forests of the Highlands of Scotland. It is very capable of domestication, and breeds readily, if allowed the range of a space containing pine-trees. It is much esteemed for the table, and is imported from Sweden into London. See Brown's *The Capercailzie in Scotland* (1879).

Cape River, or RIO DE SEGOVIA (properly *Vauks*, or *Waux*), a river of Nicaragua, which after a generally north-east course of nearly 300 miles, enters the Caribbean Sea, after forming part of the boundary between Honduras and Nicaragua.

Capernaum, meaning 'the village of Nahum,' was in the time of our Saviour a prosperous place, and though called 'his own city,' was one of the three which he upbraided 'because they repented not.' The site generally accepted by pilgrims and travellers from the 4th century onwards is that known as Tell Hum, on the north-western coast of the Sea of Galilee, or Lake of Genesareth. Its ruins of black basaltic stone cover an area of about half a mile long by a quarter wide, and there are traces of a great synagogue. Conder believes that this place has no claim to be regarded as the real site of Capernaum, but that Khan Minieh, beside the spring Et Tineh, in the north-east corner of the plain of Genesareth, is a much more likely site.

Capers are the pickled flower-buds of the caperbush (*Capparis spinosa*). They have an agreeable

pungency of taste, with a slight bitterness, and have long been in very general use as a condiment and ingredient of sauces, along with boiled mutton, &c. They are of a grayish-green colour, to improve which, however, copper is sometimes used; this, however, as in the case of other pickles (see ADULTERATION), renders them poisonous.—The caper-bush is a native of the Mediterranean countries, and is cultivated in some parts of the south of France and in Italy, but most of all in Sicily. It succeeds in the open air even at Paris, but in Britain requires the aid of artificial heat. It is a trailing, rambling shrub, loving dry places, and often growing on rocks or walls. It begins to flower early in summer, and continues flowering till winter. The buds are gathered every morning, and are immediately put into vinegar and salt: at the end of the season they are sorted according to their size and colour (the greenest and least expanded being the best). The fruit is also pickled in the south of Italy, and in other countries both the buds and fruits of different species are used in the same way. Various substitutes for capers are sometimes used, as the flower-buds and unripe fruits of the Indian Cress (*Tropæolum majus*), those of the Bean Caper (*Zygophyllum Fabago*), and it is said even the buds of the Marsh Marigold (*Caltha palustris*).—The Cape Tree (*Capparis Jamaicensis*), which grows throughout the West Indies, in South America, and in Florida, is a small tree with a very hard wood.

Capetian Dynasty, the third Frankish dynasty, founded by Hugo Capet in 987. The surname Capet has been derived from *cappa*, the 'monk's hood,' which he wore as lay abbot of St Martin de Tours. Soon after the rise of the Capetian dynasty, Paris became its capital. With the House of Capet the history of France may really be said to begin; and it ruled France till 1328, when the crown passed to the House of Valois. See FRANCE.

Capetown, the capital of Cape Colony, is situated between the north base of Table Mountain and Table Bay, in 33° 55' S. lat., 18° 28' E. long. The view of the town from the bay, with the steep and massive mountain close behind it, is most imposing, and the first impression of it never leaves the mind of the voyager. Another prospect equally striking is that which opens up to the traveller who ascends behind Capetown, and gazes over it on Table Bay, with Capetown at his feet—its alternate gardens, vineyards, and villas, joining on in the outskirts to the pine and silver tree plantations which clothe the base of the mountain. This view reminds the traveller of the Bay of Naples. For years the early history of Capetown and of the Cape Colony were one and the same. The town was laid out by its Dutch founders with mathematical preciseness—the main thoroughfares crossing one another at right angles. The houses of old Capetown are mostly flat-roofed, oblong, and whitewashed. A few church towers rise here and there, and break the monotony, with an occasional factory or mill chimney, announcing that easy, slow-going days have gone past. The beautiful government gardens in the heart of Capetown serve the purposes of a public park. There is a fine oak avenue, extending for three-quarters of a mile through the gardens. Government House is on the left side of the gardens—from which there is a private entrance—the public entrance being from Grave Street. Government House is a heavy, irregular building, commenced more than a century and a half ago, and altered and added to from time to time. The gardens are about 14 acres in extent, and contain upwards of 8000 varieties of trees and plants. The new and handsome Houses of Parliament, which

were opened in 1885, and the public library and museum, are close to the entrance of the avenue; and the Fine Arts Gallery in New Street also faces the Botanic Gardens. Stretching from the lower end of Grave Street to Adderley Street, there are the courts of law and the offices of the chief departments of the colonial government. Nearer the sea is the old castle, with its ravelins, glacis, ditches, gate, sally-port, &c. It is the military headquarters of the commander of the imperial forces and his staff. The Town-house in Greenmarket Square is another structure of the olden time. The headquarters in South Africa of the Standard Bank is in Adderley Street, and is a large and handsome stone building. The railway station in the same street is also a handsome structure. The old Commercial Exchange cannot hold its own in proximity to these more modern erections. The old 'stoeps,' or railed-off verandas, which formerly blocked the side pavements of Capetown, have now almost disappeared, and drainage and paving works are being carried on to complete the comfort of the residents. The city has a regular supply of water, and is well lighted with gas. There are spacious markets generally well supplied with fish, vegetables, and fruit; and public sales of produce, wool and feathers, &c., take place weekly. The public traffic of Capetown is carried on by omnibuses, tram-cars, and cabs.

The earliest conception of the Europeans in settling at the Cape was to make it a place of call for passing vessels belonging to their own nation. In a higher sense, the Capetown Harbour Board, in erecting the breakwater and constructing the docks, have made Table Bay a place of call for passing vessels of all nations. The docks were opened in 1870—the graving-dock in 1882. Up to the end of 1886, the total cost of the works engaged in by the Board was £2,186,061. The money was raised by the Board on the security of the colonial government. Convict labour has also been extensively used in these works, otherwise the outlay would have been much greater. The graving-dock is of Paarl granite, and is of such dimensions as to facilitate the overhauling and repair of the largest vessels. The breakwater and docks reflect great credit on the colony, as a work of great utility, not only to imperial shipping, but also to the vessels of other countries. During 1887 the dock was used by 569 vessels, of which 475 were British, 28 Norwegian, 25 Italian, 18 German, 13 Swedish, &c. The total of landing and shipping at Capetown in 1886 was 377,999 tons.

The population of Capetown in 1875 was 33,239, and of its suburbs, 12,001; in 1888 the total was estimated at 60,000. Of these a large number are Malays, descendants of African slaves, and natives of various parts of South Africa. The handicrafts are largely in the hands of these coloured people, as well as gardening, grooming, and wagon-driving. The environs of Capetown are charming. On one side there are the marine residences of Sea Point and Green Point; on the other, through umbrageous plantations, the railway line and carriage drives pass through a succession of sylvan residences and lovely villages nestling among the trees. There are few places where the man of business can so soon enjoy the quiet and coolness which the Cape merchant, leaving the dust and glare of Capetown, can reach in a few minutes, at Mowbray, Rondebosch, Claremont, and Wynberg.

Cape Verd, the most westerly headland in Africa, jutting out into the Atlantic Ocean, between the rivers Gambia and Senegal, in 14° 53' N. lat., 17° 34' W. long. It was discovered by the Portuguese in 1443, and is said to have derived its name from a group of gigantic baobab trees adorning its summit.

Cape Verd Islands (*Ilhas do Cabo Verde*), a group of Portuguese islands, lying in 14° 45'—17° 30' N. lat., and 22° 30'—25° 10' W. long., and distant 350 miles west of the cape from which they take their name. They comprise ten inhabited islands, besides several rocky islets, the chief being Santiago, São Antão, Fogo, Brava, and São Nicolão. Total area, 1486 sq. m.; pop. (1834) 55,833; (1885) 110,926. The islands are all very mountainous, and owe their origin to the action of submarine volcanoes. The highest elevation is reached in a volcanic peak, 9157 feet above the sea, on the island of Fogo, which was active so recently as 1847. The climate is unhealthy during the rainy season (August to October), fever and dysentery being the chief scourges; and long droughts have sometimes given rise to great famines, as in 1730–33 and 1831–33, which latter cost 30,500 lives. Though water is deficient, vegetation is luxuriant, yielding African and Southern European products. Sugar, manioc, yams, maize, coffee, tobacco, and indigo are grown; the woods have of late years begun to increase; and cattle-breeding is an important industry. Turtles are abundant in the surrounding seas; amber and archil are found on the coasts; and much salt, though not so much as formerly, is procured from the lagoons on the shores, especially on the island of Sal. The inhabitants, who are mostly negroes and mulattoes, indolent but harmless, speak a bastard Portuguese. They are all Catholics. The revenue for 1885–86 was estimated at £52,495, and the expenditure for the same year at £49,836. The islands are a colony under a governor-general, exercising both civil and military authority. Porto Grande, on the island of São Vicente, is an important coaling station for British steamers. The islands were discovered in 1441–56 by the Portuguese, who shortly after colonised them. Slavery was gradually abolished between 1854 and 1878. See Darwin's *Volcanic Islands* (1844), and Ellis's *West African Islands* (1885).

Cape Wrath, a pyramidal promontory of granite gneiss of unrivalled wildness and grandeur, forming the north-west extremity of Scotland and of Sutherland, 69 miles NW. of Lairg. It is 523 feet high, and on it is a lighthouse, built in 1828, and seen 27 miles off.

Capgrave, JOHN, chronicler and theologian, was born at Lynn in 1393. He studied some time at a university, most probably Cambridge, and was ordained priest about 1418. He early entered the order of Augustine Friars at Lynn, and he ultimately became provincial of his order in England; at Lynn he died in 1464. Capgrave was an industrious writer. His works include, in Latin, commentaries on many of the books of the Bible, sermons, various edifying and expository treatises; *Nova legenda Angliæ* (printed by Wynkyn de Worde in 1516), *De illustribus Henricis*, giving the lives of six emperors of Germany, six kings of England, and twelve famous men, all of the name of Henry; and *Vita Humfredi Ducis Glocestrie*, a life of his patron, Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester. Among his English works are a life of St Katherine in verse, and *A Chronicle of England from the Creation to A.D. 1417*. The last and the *De illustribus Henricis* were edited by F. C. Hingeston for the 'Rolls Series' in 1858.

Capias, in the practice of the English common law, is a writ directed against the person, and so called from the commencement of the process in the old Latin form. It has various applications, the principal of which are the following:

CAPIAS AD RESPONDENDUM is a writ still used sometimes, instead of a justice's warrant, for the arrest of one against whom an indictment for mis-

demeanour has been found. Formerly, when bail was given in civil actions, it was the writ by which most common-law actions were commenced. Now, under the Debtors Act, 1869, the writ can be used and bail obtained only where the defendant is about to leave the country and his evidence is essential.

CAPIAS AD SATISFACIENDUM, or CA. SA. This is one of the writs by which a plaintiff can put a judgment recovered by him in execution. The object of it is to imprison the debtor till satisfaction, but it is rarely used since the abolition of imprisonment for debt. One of the returns to this writ is the famous *non est inventus*. See on the subject of Capias generally, ARREST, ATTACHMENT, EXECUTION, and BAIL.

Capillaire, a medicinal syrup, used as a pectoral in chronic catarrhs, formerly prepared by adding sugar and orange-flower water to an infusion of the maidenhair fern, now more generally applied to any flavoured syrup.

Capillaries. The tubes which convey the blood from the heart to the various parts of the body are termed arteries, while those which return it to the heart, after it has discharged its various functions in the body, are known as veins. The name of capillary (from *capillus*, 'a hair') is given to the minute vessels which form the connection between the terminal branches of the arteries and the commencements of the trunks of the veins. These little vessels are of various sizes, some admitting only one blood-corpuscle at once, while others are large enough to allow of the simultaneous passage of two, three, or more corpuscles. In the muscular tissue their average diameter is 0.003 of a line; they are smallest in the brain, and largest in bone. Their arrangement varies in different parts. In the accompanying figure, which represents their distribution in muscular tissue, they run for the most part parallel to one another; in other cases (as around fat-cells) they have a spherical arrangement, and in the skin and in parts of the intestines they form loops; and many other forms of distribution might be mentioned. These various arrangements have been discovered by the microscopic examination of tissues that have been successfully injected with coloured fluids.



Capillaries :
a, the artery; b, the vein;
c, the intervening capillaries.

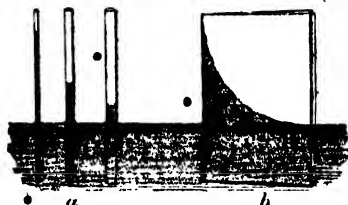
The circulation of the blood through the capillaries may be readily seen in the web between the toes of the hind-foot of the frog, in the tongue of that animal, in the tail or gills of the tadpole, in the wing of the bat, &c. The wall of a capillary is formed of a single layer of flattened cells, attached to each other by their margins (which may be rendered apparent by nitrate of silver), and continuous with the corresponding layer lining Arteries and Veins (q.v.).

The principal uses of the capillary system of vessels will be noticed in the articles on DIGESTION, NUTRITION, RESPIRATION, and SECRETION.

Capillarity. When a number of clean glass tubes of very fine bore, each open at both ends, are immersed in water, or in any other liquid capable of wetting them, the water rises in each to a higher level than that at which it stands outside,

and the finer the bore the greater is the height of the water. Moreover, the surface of the water is always concave outwards. The accompanying diagram (a) shows the phenomenon in question.

When similar tubes are immersed in mercury the results are just the opposite of the above. The



mercury now stands at a lower level inside than outside each tube, and the mercury-surface is always concave downwards. The diagram, if turned upside down, will correspond to this effect. In both cases it is to be observed that the curvature of the surface of the fluid is greater the finer the bore of the tube.

These are the fundamental facts which constitute the phenomena of capillary action, the tubes, with their fine hair-like bores, being called *capillary tubes*, from *capillus*, 'a hair.' The phenomena of capillarity may, however, be produced without the use of capillary tubes. Thus, if two plates of clean glass be set vertically and parallel to one another in a dish of water, the liquid will rise up between them, but the rise is only half of that which would occur in a capillary tube whose diameter is equal to the distance between the plates. As in the case of capillary tubes, the height of the water increases as the distance between the plates diminishes, and the water-surface is concave outwards. If mercury be used in place of water, the mercury will be depressed, and its surface will be convex.

If the plates have two vertical edges in contact, while the opposite edges are kept separate by a thin wedge, the water will rise between the plates to different heights, the height at any point being inversely as the distance between the plates at that point. The intersection of the water-surface with the plate thus forms a curve which is known as the equilateral hyperbola. The diagram (b) shows the phenomenon in question.

In order to understand the cause of capillary action it is necessary to refer to what is known as the surface-tension of fluids. The particles of a body of moderate dimensions are kept together by powerful molecular forces which have one main characteristic, that they are only sensible at insensible distances. From this it is at once evident that there must be an essential difference in state between parts of a liquid close to its surface and others in the interior of its mass. The result of this difference is that every liquid may be regarded as bounded by a surface-film which behaves like a stretched membrane. The tension of this film is what is termed the surface-tension of the fluid. Now, when a soap-bubble is blown at the mouth of a funnel, and the neck is left open, the bubble shrinks and expels the contained air. The air within the bubble is thus proved to be at a pressure greater than that of the atmosphere, otherwise it would not rush out; and it can be proved by mathematical methods that the effect of the surface-tension of the soap film is to make the pressure per unit of surface on the concave side exceed that on the convex side by the expression $2T \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$, where T is the intensity of the surface-tension, and R_1 , R_2 , are the radii of curvature of any two sections normal to the surface and to each other.

We are now in a position to explain the fundamental capillary phenomena. The water-surface is concave outwards, and therefore the water im-

mediately under the surface-film has a less pressure than that of the atmosphere to which its concave side is exposed; and thus by the ordinary hydrostatic law it belongs to a higher level than the undisturbed water, the pressure on which is equal to that of the atmosphere. In the case of mercury, on the other hand, we see that, since the fluid surface is convex outwards, the mercury immediately under the surface-film must have a greater pressure than that of the atmosphere, and must therefore stand at a lower level than the undisturbed mercury.

It can be shown mathematically that the height of elevation of water, or depression of mercury, varies inversely as the radius of the tube. This agrees with the experimental fact that the finer the bore the greater is the capillary action, and is also a direct consequence of what has been stated above. The finer the bore, the greater is the curvature of the surface, and therefore the greater is the difference between the pressure on the concave and that on the convex side of the film. Thus we account for the increased height of elevation of water and depression of mercury.

We have now to explain why the water-surface is concave and the mercury-surface convex.

When two fluids, such as water and air, are in contact, we have seen that the surface of separation is in a state of tension. Now, when a solid is in contact with two fluids, as in the case of water in a capillary tube, there is a different tension in each of the three surfaces separating a pair of media. Further, since the solid cannot alter its form, the angle at which the surface of contact of the two fluids meets the surface of the solid, called the *angle of capillarity*, must depend on the value of the three surface-tensions. When the two fluids are air and water, or air and mercury, the tension of the surface separating the two fluids exceeds the difference between the tensions of the surfaces separating the solid from each of the fluids; and thus the angle of capillarity will be acute or obtuse, according as the one or the other of the latter tensions exceeds the other.

The effect of heat on capillary action may be noted in passing. When heat is applied, it is found that the tension and curvature of a water-surface are diminished, and thus, on both accounts, the height to which water rises, or the depth to which mercury is depressed, in a capillary tube, becomes less as the temperature rises.

The depression of mercury in a fine glass tube makes it necessary to use a correction in reading off the height of the mercurial column in the barometer, which, owing to it, stands always a little lower than the height due to the atmospheric pressure.

There are many phenomena which can easily be explained by the help of capillary action. Thus, when two light bodies, such as two pieces of cork, are left to float on still water, near each other, they soon come together, moving at last with a rush. The water wets the floating bodies and rises round them, and thus, when they are near each other, the space between them becomes like part of the interior of a capillary tube; and, the pressure between the bodies being less than that outside, the bodies are driven together, and therefore seem to attract one another. This is always the case with any two bodies each of which is wetted by the water, and it is also true when neither is wetted. If one of the bodies is smeared with oil to prevent the water from wetting it, the two will behave as if they repelled one another. Again, when a drop of water is placed between two very true plates of glass, the pressure produced by the capillary action forces the plates together, thus increasing itself not only by the enlargement of the wetted surfaces, but by increasing the curvature round the edges. The pressure produced in this way may be sufficiently

great to crack the plates. The action of a boy's 'sucker' is explainable in a similar manner.

Capistrano, GIOVANNI DA, born 24th June 1386, at the little town of Capistrano, in the Abruzzi, entered the Franciscan order at the age of thirty, and there distinguished himself by his eloquence and devotion. From 1426 he was employed as legate by several popes, and acted as inquisitor against the Fraticelli (q.v.). In 1450 he preached a crusade in Germany against Turks and heretics, appealing to the masses, not the nobles, and successfully opposed the Hussites in Moravia, although from Bohemia he was expelled by George Podiebrad; his fanaticism led to many cruel actions, such as the racking and burning of forty Jews in Breslau, on a charge of profaning the Host. When Belgrade was besieged by Mohammed II. in 1456, he led a rabble of 60,000 to its relief; but his enthusiasm was greater than his strength, and he died at Illock, on the Danube, 23d October 1456. He was canonised in 1690.

Capita, DISTRIBUTION PER, is a familiar expression in the law relating to wills and succession. It means that where the persons claiming under a will consist of, e.g. three families of grandchildren, the estate or fund is divided equally among all the grandchildren (whatever the size of the family), and not equally among the three families. The opposite principle of division, viz. among families, is called distribution *per stirpes*. It is surprising how frequently testators fail to make their meaning clear on this simple point.

Capital. See COLUMN.

Capital, in the ordinary sense, is the means with which business is carried on, and may consist either of money or of property convertible into money. In the more accurate language of political economy, capital is wealth appropriated to reproductive employment. It is wealth used for producing more wealth. That which distinguishes capital from other forms of wealth is the purpose to which it is applied. A painting, so long as it adorns the room of a private gentleman, cannot be regarded as capital; in the hands of a dealer, who sells it in order to make a profit, it becomes a form of capital. Capital is one of the three requisites of production, the other two being land and labour. Capital is usually divided into two classes—*circulating* capital, which consists of the wages paid to the workmen, and of the raw material used up in the processes of industry, &c.; and *fixed* capital, consisting of buildings, machines, tools, railways, telegraphs, canals, shipping, &c. Circulating capital is being continually used up, and disappears in the using, while fixed capital may last for a long time, and may be used over and over again. Railway lines, canals, and docks, may last for generations, and with the necessary repairs, renewals, and improvements, continue as effective as ever. It should be remembered, however, that such distinctions are only generally valid, and that a very definite line between fixed and circulating capital cannot be drawn. Thus with regard to railways, while the stations and permanent way are undoubtedly fixed capital, we may justly hesitate as to the engines and wagons, which only last a few years.

With reference to fixed capital, it should also in general be said that its permanence is only one of degree. Machinery, tools, and shipping, have only a limited duration, as they either become worn out, or, as more frequently happens, are superseded by more effective appliances. Docks, canals, bridges, and great works for the reclaiming of agricultural land, are more adapted for permanence. But though considerable, they are only a limited part of the capital of a country. The vast

proportion of capital needs from time to time to be replaced.

Capital is the result of the industry of past generations used to promote and facilitate the industry of the present and future. In every form of capital we can trace the labour, ingenuity, and foresight of the men who have lived before us. The history of capital is a process of development, of invention, adaptation, and accumulation, which is observable in different degrees at different epochs of the world, but during the last hundred and fifty years has been vastly more active than at any former period. It is usual to say that capital is the result of saving or abstinence, but such a formula gives a very misleading conception of the motives which have led to the growth of capital. The growth of capital is a mixed process, the real motives of which can be truly and adequately understood only by a study of the historical facts. No doubt there has been abstinence, but there have been many other moral qualities displayed in the process. For the development of capital it is of course necessary that production should exceed consumption, leaving a sufficient margin for future increase. In the modern development of capital the energy and inventiveness with which natural resources have been utilised for the production of wealth have been unexampled, resulting in the formation of new forms of capital, and in a gigantic accumulation of it absolutely unparalleled. The productive power of capital is indeed practically unlimited. This enormous development of capital has offered new problems to the economist, or at least presented the old questions in a new light.

The history of capital is a process of evolution which can be rightly understood only in its connection with the general history of society. It must specially be studied in connection with the other requisites of production, land and labour.

CAPITALISM, in social and economic discussion, means the rule of the capitalists or owners of capital. The owners of capital are the controlling power in the present industrial system, and have taken the place formerly held by the landed aristocracy as the pivot of the social and political order.

Capital Account. Such is the name given to what concerns the capital stock of a railway or other public company. In authorising a railway company, parliament or congress gives power to raise so much money by shares, and so much by borrowing. This money forms the capital of the company; and constitutes the *Capital Account*. On this fund the directors of the company make drafts to pay for the land, and all the works connected with the line, as also rails, locomotives, carriages, and, in short, everything involved in perfecting the railway up to the point of working. After the railway is opened, all working expenses and renewals of line and plant should be charged to Revenue Account, but extensions of the line and additional plant should be charged to Capital Account. The same principle applies to all joint-stock companies. It is of the utmost importance that these two accounts be kept quite distinct, and that nothing be charged to capital which ought to be defrayed by revenue. It is by neglecting this precaution that an appearance of fallacious prosperity has often been produced, which has ultimately ended in ruin.

Capital Punishment in criminal jurisprudence is the punishment of death (Lat. *capitis poena*). This extreme penalty, notwithstanding the practice of the world from the remotest times down to the present day, has frequently been reprobated by philosophers and philanthropists, who have even gone so far as to deny the right so to punish to any earthly power. Thus many

hold strongly that, while higher animals may destroy the lower, man being the highest created existence on earth can be lawfully deprived of life by God alone. They argue that the voluntary destruction of human life by man is in all circumstances a violation of natural law—an argument which seems to involve the absolute prohibition not only of capital punishment, but of war. The weight of authority, however, appears in favour of capital punishment. Bentham says, that the idea of capital punishment would naturally suggest itself in the infancy of a state. When any one had committed an offence, and disturbed the peace of society, the question would then first arise: 'How shall we prevent these things?' and the answer most likely to occur to a set of barbarians would be: 'Extirpate the offender, and give yourself no further trouble about him.' The Marquis Beccaria strongly argues against the capital sentence being carried out in any case, denying the right, in fact, of government so to punish, and maintaining, besides, that it is a less efficacious method of deterring others than the continued example of a living culprit condemned, by labouring as a slave, to repair the injury he has done to society. Bentham, on the contrary, holds that death is regarded by most men as the greatest of all evils; and that especially among those who are attached to life by the ties of reputation, affection, enjoyment, hope, or fear, it appears to be a more efficacious deterrent than any other. On the question of right, Beccaria is still more pointedly refuted by Sir Samuel Romilly, who did so much to mitigate the severity of the criminal law: 'Beccaria and his disciples confess that it is not the greatest of evils, and recommend other punishments as being more severe and effectual, forgetting, undoubtedly, that if human tribunals have a right to inflict a severer punishment than death, they must have a right to inflict death itself.'

In all discussions on this subject it is necessary to bear constantly in mind the principles of punishment in general. These have been a fruitful subject of controversy for many centuries, but the general rule can hardly be better stated than in the words of Plato (*Gorgias*, § 525): 'Every one who undergoes punishment, if that punishment be rightly inflicted, ought either to be made better thereby, and profit by it, or serve as an example to the rest of mankind, that others, seeing the sufferings he endures, may be brought by fear to amendment of life.' And again (*Protagoras*, § 324) he says, 'No one, when punishing a criminal, directs his thought to the fact, or punishes him for the fact of his having committed a crime; but he who wishes to inflict rational punishment acts with regard to the future, that the man who is punished, and all who see him punished, may be deterred from doing wrong again.' The argument, then, in favour of the law which awards death to the murderer is briefly this, that this punishment, more than any other, tends to deter men from committing the crime of murder. The ideal after which we are bound to strive is the fulfilment of the absolute law, imposed on us by our nature, 'Thou shalt not kill.' It is the duty of the state to realise and vindicate this natural law. The law enacted by the state, which inflicts capital punishment for murder, is thus justified only in so far as it tends to prevent murder, and so realise the great natural law. If there be a mode in which the murderer's life can be spared without sacrificing other lives, then capital punishment is forbidden by the same natural law by which on the opposite assumption it was justified. Thus we are driven back on the teaching of experience. The question can be answered only relatively, and statistics seem to show that the same answer will not be always

and everywhere the true one. In some states of society—e.g. in certain half-settled states of Western America—criminal statistics afford strong confirmation of the theory which maintains the superior efficacy of capital punishment as a deterrent. On the other hand, the experience of many states in Europe, where the death penalty has been abolished, is difficult to reconcile with the view that the maintenance of the extreme penalty affords the best security for human life. Before leaving this discussion, it seems right to notice an element of danger if the law, naturally conservative, lose touch of public opinion. With the advance of civilisation and the spread of more humane views among the community, there is, on the part of the public, a tendency to look on this punishment as unduly severe. The result is that juries, influenced by considerations springing from the nature of the penalty, hesitate or even refuse to find convictions, so that the punishment comes to lack *certainly*—an essential feature, without which no punishment can be effectual as a deterrent. That some influence, similar to this, is at work may be fairly inferred from the official statistics of Great Britain in recent years. In the thirty years from 1850 to 1879 inclusive, 2005 persons were committed for trial on a charge of wilful murder. Of this number 665, or 33 per cent., were found guilty. The number of convictions for non-capital crimes is 76 per cent. Thus we have only 33 per cent. of convictions in cases of murder against 76 per cent. for other crimes. A disproportion so marked suggests an unwillingness on the part of juries to convict in cases where conviction involves the consignment of the criminal to an irrevocable punishment. Such an element of uncertainty in the punishment of so grave a crime as wilful murder is clearly fraught with danger to society.

Against capital punishment arguments are often urged from Scripture, based on the general principle of Christian charity. To these it is replied that they proceed on a misapprehension and misapplication of the principle; and reference is made to the Old Testament as sufficiently exhibiting the mind of the great Lawgiver in regard to this matter.

Death was in former times in England the ordinary punishment for all felonies, and the certain doom of those who could not avail themselves of *Benefit* (q.v.) of *Clergy*—i.e. the common law inflicted death on every felon *who could not read*, and the law implied that punishment, where a statute made any new offence felony. On the other hand, the numerous acts of parliament creating felonies without benefit of clergy, show that the statute law was still more sanguinary, so that of the 160 offences referred to by Blackstone as punishable by death, four-fifths had been made so during the reigns of the first three Georges. That some idea may be formed of such Draconian justice as was then established, we may mention the following as among the offences which involved sentence of death—stealing in a dwelling-house to the amount of 40s.; stealing privately in a shop goods of the value of 5s.; counterfeiting the stamps that were used for the sale of *perfunery*! and doing the same with the stamps used for the certificates for *hair-powder*! So it was a capital offence to rob a rabbit-warren, to cut down a tree, to personate a Greenwich pensioner, or to harbour an offender against the Revenue Acts. It would be possible to extend almost indefinitely the list of offences for which men could be legally hanged at the commencement of the present century. It must, however, be remembered that the practice of the law had for many years been much less severe than the theory. Thus, while there were more than 200 offences in the statute-book for which capital punishment might be inflicted, there were only

twenty-five offences for which any one had suffered death during the preceding three-quarters of a century. To the exertions of Sir Samuel Romilly we are mainly indebted for the reformation of our criminal code, and the removal from the statute-book of the obsolete relics of a barbarous age. From 1808 to his death in 1818 Romilly, undaunted by many discouraging failures, strenuously continued his humane efforts to destroy this cruel system. Later, the cause of criminal reform found in Sir James Mackintosh a bolder and abler, if not more earnest, champion, and under his praiseworthy exertions, aided by the wise counsels of Peel, the inhumanity and impolicy of the old criminal code gave way to a course of legislation which has reduced the application of death as a punishment within its present humane limits. In 1823 five statutes, exempting from capital punishment about a hundred felonies, were passed by both houses without a dissentient voice, and Peel's subsequent efforts in 1828 to consolidate the criminal law were no less successful. The punishment of forgery with death ceased in 1832-37. Since the statute of 1861 there remain in England only four crimes punishable by death—setting fire to H.M. dockyards or arsenals, piracy with violence, treason, and murder. Practically it is only in the case of treason and murder that the capital sentence is ever pronounced; and even then it is not always carried out, for the crown reserves to itself and exercises a right of review which frequently leads to such a change in the convict's fate as at least spares his life. This discretionary control on the part of the executive is essential in the present state of the law, which affords no means for a judicial appeal on the merits; for the very nature of the punishment, when finally executed, precludes the idea of all benefit to the sufferer, should the verdict of the jury afterwards turn out erroneous; and the innocence, instead of the guilt, of the accused be established. The law as it stands, indeed, allows a capital sentence to be reversed if technical error can be shown on the face of the judgment or other matter of record—but what avails that, after the sentence has been executed?

In Scotland, the administration of the criminal law has perhaps been, on the whole, as severe as in England. Mr Erskine says, that 'those crimes that are in their consequences *most hurtful to society* are punished capitally or by death,' a category that is certainly sufficiently indefinite. But in the more modern practice of Scotland capital sentence was only pronounced in the four pleas of the crown—viz. murder, rape, robbery, and wilful fire-raising, to which may be added housebreaking. By the Criminal Procedure (Scotland) Act of 1887, 50 and 51 Vict. chap. 35, it is enacted that capital sentences shall be abolished except on conviction of murder or of offences against the Act 10 Geo. IV. chap. 38, by which a variety of attempts to murder are made capital.

In the United States, each state has jurisdiction over its own territory, and the laws punishing crime differ in several respects. In many of the states murder is by statute divided into different degrees, differing from each other by the malice and premeditation which accompany the act. Death by hanging is the usual penalty for murder of the first degree, but in a few states imprisonment for life is substituted for capital punishment. In some states, as Michigan, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, and Maine, capital punishment has been done away with. In the states of New York and Iowa, on the other hand, the legislatures, having abolished the death penalty, were compelled by the consequent increase of crime to restore it.

In Holland there have been no executions since 1860, and capital punishment was totally abolished

by law in 1870. In Roumania it was abolished in 1864, and Portugal has adopted the same course. In Belgium the punishment of death is practically abolished, for, though the death sentence is formally retained, no execution has taken place in that country since 1833. In Switzerland capital punishment was totally abolished in 1874, but, owing to a marked increase in the number of murders, by a federal decree of June 18, 1879, the cantons recovered the right of re-establishing the punishment of death in their respective territories. Seven of the cantons immediately took advantage of the permission; but, though they have recovered the right to hang criminals if they please, it appears from a letter written by the chancellor of the confederation in 1883, that down to that date the sentence of death had not been passed in any of the seven cantons. In the remaining fifteen cantons, including more than four-fifths of the population of the republic, the death penalty remains totally abolished. In many European countries in which the extreme penalty is still enforced, the law has been practically abrogated by the marked growth of more humanitarian sentiments. Thus in Austria, during the ten years from 1870 to 1879, of the 806 persons sentenced to death, only sixteen were executed. In Sweden during the same period, out of thirty-two sentenced to death, only three were executed; in Denmark, out of ninety-four, only one; in Bavaria, out of 249 committed for murder, only seven were executed. In North Germany, during the ten years from 1869 to 1878, 1301 persons were convicted of 'homicidal crime,' and 484 of them were sentenced to death, but only one was executed—Hödel, who attempted the assassination of the Emperor William.

For the various methods of execution, whether hanging as in England and most parts of the United States, beheading by sword or guillotine as in Germany and France, garroting as in Spain, and death by electricity as in New York, see EXECUTION, and the articles on the several methods. In England, in 1868 (as in Germany since 1877), an act was passed directing that all executions should henceforth take place within the walls of prisons.

In Military Law, owing to the necessity of enforcing strict discipline, capital punishment has always held an important place. The offences to which the death penalty is attached are in Britain regulated by statute. The law on the subject as regards the army is contained in the act known as the Army Discipline and Regulation Act, 1879. This measure consolidated into one act, and in several respects amended the provisions of, the old Mutiny Act and Articles of War. After some experience, it also was found capable of improvement, and in 1881 was in its turn amended and in some respects superseded by the Army Act, which now forms the foundation of the military law of the United Kingdom. By this act, which forms a permanent code, and is continued annually by act of parliament, capital punishment may be incurred by various acts of sedition, violence, and gross neglect of duty. Any soldier who deserts Her Majesty's service, or leaves without orders any guard or post, or offers violence to his superior officer, being in the execution of his office, or disobeys any lawful command of his superior officer, renders himself liable to the penalty of death, or such other penalty as the court-martial may inflict. A similar penalty attaches to a soldier who, while on sentry duty, so far forgets his duty as to sleep or be drunken, or who is guilty of certain flagrant acts of cowardice and misbehaviour before the enemy. In the ordinary case, sentence of death can be passed only by a general court-martial, consisting of nine officers, of whom five are not under the rank of captain. On active service, however,

a summary court-martial, consisting of three officers, may award the death penalty. Another safeguard against undue haste and lack of consideration is found in the provision that no sentence of death can be pronounced by a court-martial unless two-thirds of the officers present, in the case of a general court-martial, and all in that of a field general court-martial, concur therein. It is also provided that a judgment of death may be commuted for penal servitude for any term not less than four years, or for imprisonment for such term as shall seem meet. It has further been held that the employment of a soldier in the service, subsequent to his arrest on a capital charge, operates as a remission of the sentence of death. In the army capital punishment is inflicted by the offender being either shot or hanged, the latter being the more disgraceful mode of execution. In the United States the concurrence of two-thirds of a general court-martial is also required; and no sentence of death can be carried out until confirmed by the president, save in cases of persons convicted in time of war, as spies, mutineers, deserters, or murderers.

In the British navy, the law on the subject is covered by 22 Geo. II. chap. 33, amended by the Naval Discipline Act, 29 and 30 Vict. chap. 109. Formerly certain offences in the navy, whether on board ship or on shore, were punished with death absolutely, without any discretion in the court to alter or mitigate the sentence. It was under these unnaturally severe Articles of War, passed in the twenty-second year of Geo. II., under the influence of the Duke of Cumberland, that the unfortunate Admiral Byng (q.v.), having been found guilty of neglect of duty in an action against the French, was shot in 1757. On that occasion the court-martial, before passing sentence, sent to the Admiralty in London to know whether they were at liberty to mitigate the sentence, but were informed that they had no such power. The provisions of the present act, however, confine sentence of death, without alternative, to cases of murder or traitorous misconduct in the presence of the enemy. As regards all other offences, the courts-martial are authorised to abstain from pronouncing sentence of death, if they shall think fit, and to impose such other punishment instead, as the nature and degree of the offence may deserve. In this discretionary sense the death penalty is retained in the navy in the case of a large number of offences. The holding of illegal correspondence with an enemy, or in any way relieving an enemy, or the yielding in a cowardly or treacherous manner to such enemy, may be punished with death. The same penalty attaches to all disobedience to orders in time of action, to cowardice and neglect of duty during action, to desertion of the service, or the enticing of others to desert, to any attempt at mutiny or concealment of mutinous practices or designs. A sailor who commits robbery, who sleeps on watch, or forsakes his station, who by gross negligence in steering hazards his ship, or who on any pretence offers violence to a superior officer, being in execution of his duty, renders himself liable to capital punishment. In the navy the culprit, where he is an officer, is usually shot; where he is a common seaman, he is hanged at the yard-arm. In the United States all sentences of death must be approved by the president.

See Basil Montagu, *On the Punishment of Death* (1813); *Memoirs of Sir Samuel Romilly* (1840), and his writings; Bentham, *Rationale of Punishments* (1830); Beccaria, *Essay on Crimes and Punishments* (1775; Eng. trans. by Farrer, 1880); Berner, *Die Abschaffung der Todesstrafe* (1801); Mittermaier, *Die Todesstrafe* (1862; Eng. ed. by J. M. Moir); Von Holtzendorff, *Das Verbrechen des*

Mordes und die Todesstrafe (1874); Clode's *Administration of Justice under Military Law*; Professor Lorimer, *Institutes of Law*; W. A. Coppinger, *Capital Punishment* (1876); J. M. Moir's *Capital Punishment* (1865); Stephen's *History of the Criminal Law*. See also the publications of the Howard Association, London.

Capitals (*majuscula*), in contradistinction to small letters (*minuscula*), are larger and differently shaped letters employed in writing and printing to help the eye, to relieve the uniformity of the page, to increase the facility of keeping and finding the place, to mark the beginnings of sentences, proper names, &c. Among the ancients, and during the earlier part of the middle ages, no distinction between capitals and small letters was known; in a sense, writing was originally all capitals (UNCIALS, q.v.); and after the practice had been introduced of beginning books and chapters with great letters, often adorned or illuminated with much artistic ability, it was long before capitals were employed in such a way as could afford much real advantage to the reader. At the present day they are almost universally in use, even in the printing of Greek and Latin books. Considerable diversity has existed at different times with regard to the employment of them, the books of the 17th and 18th centuries exhibiting a much greater proportion of them than those of the present day. In German books all substantives usually begin with a capital letter; in English or French books of the present day they in general appear only at the beginnings of sentences, of proper names, and lines of poetry. Adjectives formed from proper names, as *English*, *French*, and the like, are generally begun with a capital in English books, but not in French nor in German ones. SMALL CAPITALS are so called as being smaller than the initial capitals. See ALPHABET, WRITING.

Capitation. For Capitation Grants, grants of so much per head, see EDUCATION; for Capitation Tax, see POLL-TAX.

Capito, or KÖPFEL, WOLFGANG FABRICIUS, reformer, born in 1478 at Hagenau in Alsace, entered the Benedictine order, and became professor of Theology at Basel, where he showed in his lectures a tendency to shake off the trammels of the scholastic writers. He approved of Luther's action, but nevertheless in 1519 entered the service of Albert of Mainz; and it was not till some years later that he finally declared for the Reformation. He then entered zealously into its work, shared with Bucer the composition of the *Confessio Tetrapolitana*, and took part in the Synod of Bern in 1532. He died in November 1541.

Capitol (Lat. *Capitolium*), the great national temple of ancient Rome, situated on the southern summit of the *Mons Capitolinus*, the smallest but most famous of the seven hills on which Rome was built. The hill is an irregular oblong in figure, about three-quarters of a mile in circumference at its base, running from north-east to south-west, and terminating at its southern extremity within 250 yards of the river in a precipice with an abrupt fall of 80 feet—the 'Tarpeian Rock,' over which state-criminals were thrown. On its northern summit, the higher and steeper of the two, stood the *Arx* or citadel of Rome, the site of which is now occupied by the church of *S. Maria in Araceli*. Since the whole hill was fortified and regarded as the natural defence of the city, *Arx* is not unfrequently used as if synonymous with *Mons Capitolinus*, and similarly from the importance and reverence attaching to the temple the name *Capitolium* often means the whole hill. The Capitol was founded by Tarquinius Priscus, and completed by Tarquinius Superbus. It was burned down during the civil wars (83 B.C.), was rebuilt by Sulla, was burned again by the soldiers of Vitellius (69 A.D.),

rebuilt by Vespasian, but burned a third time in the reign of Titus (80), and splendidly restored by Domitian, whose structure lasted to a late period of the empire. The original ground-plan, however, with that rigid conservatism so characteristic of Roman law and religion, was never altered. The temple comprised three distinct cells (*cellæ*), inclosed by one roof, the middle cell dedicated to Jupiter, those on either side to Juno and Minerva. In the Capitol the Sibylline books were stored, and here the consuls on entering upon office offered up sacrifices and made their vows; hither also the victorious general on his triumph was borne in his triumphal car to give thanks to Jupiter.

The modern Capitol (*Campidoglio*), built on the site, and part of the basement of the ancient Capitol, was designed by Michael Angelo, but is one of his inferior works. It is used as a kind of hôtel-de-ville and museum.

On the Capitoline Mount there was also the temple of Jupiter Tonans, built by the Emperor Augustus; and the magnificent *Tabularium* (built by Quintus Catulus, 73 B.C.), containing archives. For the U. S. Capitol, see WASHINGTON; the state capitols are mentioned in the articles on the state capitals, ALBANY, AUSTIN, &c.

Capitularies (Lat. *capitularia*), the name given to the laws, or royal enactments, issued by the Frankish kings. These laws proceeded from the great assemblies of the king, nobles, and bishops, which formed the estates of the kingdom, as distinguished from the laws issued for the separate states, which were called *leges*. They were divided into general and special *capitularies*, according to the more or less general nature of the interests which they embraced, and the mode of their publication. They have by no means been all preserved. The most famous are those of Charlemagne and of St Louis. The first collection was made in 827. It contained in four books the capitularies of Charlemagne and his son Louis le Débonnaire. They were brought down to 845 by Benedict, deacon of Mainz, and later supplements were added by successive editors, until the number of capitularies reached 2100. These were all included in the great edition of Baluze (2 vols. Paris, 1677); that of Pertz, in the *Monumenta Germaniæ Historica* (1835-37), is now behind the state of knowledge. An excellent and fundamentally new edition is that of Boretius (vol. i. Hanover, 1883). See the same scholar's *Beiträge zur Kapitularien-kritik* (Leip. 1874).

Capitulation, a treaty consisting of several specified conditions (Lat. *capitula*, 'heads'). In the military sense of the word, a capitulation is a treaty of surrender to an enemy. When a place can no longer be defended, on account of failure of ammunition or provisions, or the progress made by the besieging party, a white flag is commonly hoisted as a sign that the besieged are willing to capitulate. According to the kind and degree of peril in which the fortress is placed, so are the terms which the governor may reasonably look for from his successful opponent. Sometimes the arms and military stores are left to the besieged, but oftener they are taken by the besiegers, except articles of private property belonging to the officers and men. The 'honours of war', the marching out with drums beating and colours flying, are usually stipulated for, unless the conqueror exacts very severe terms. The mildest form of a capitulation is a *convention*, agreed to when the conqueror is not strong enough to insist on stringent conditions. The capitulation of Metz (q.v.) on 27th October 1870 was the most notable of recent times.

Capitulation is also the name given to an arrangement by which foreigners receive certain immuni-

ties in the state within which they reside; thus the grant made in the 17th century by the Porte to France is so called, as is also the right of foreigners in Egypt and Japan to be subject to their own consular jurisdictions, and exempted from the native judicatories.

Capo d'Istria, a fortified seaport of Austria, situated on a rocky island in the Gulf of Trieste, 9½ miles SSW. of the city of Trieste. Connected with the mainland by a stone causeway, nearly half a mile long, it has a modern cathedral, a Gothic town-hall on the site of a Roman temple, and a trade in oil, salt, and wine. Pop. (1880) 8646. In ancient times it was known as *Egida*, and afterwards as *Justinopolis*, in honour of Justin II., who restored it.

Capo d'Istrias, IOANNES ANTONIOS, COUNT, president of the Greek republic from 1828 to 1831, was born 11th February 1776 in Corfu, where a monument was erected to him in 1887. His family had been settled there since 1373, but originally came from the Illyrian town of Capo d'Istria. He devoted himself to political life, and in 1809, after holding a high position in the Ionian Islands, he entered the diplomatic service of Russia. Here his policy tended to the separation of Greece from Turkey. In 1828 he entered on a seven years' presidency of Greece; but imbued as he was with Russian ideas, he aroused discontent by his autocratic measures; and on 9th October 1831 he was assassinated in a church at Nauplia. See his *Life* by Mendelssohn-Bartholdy (Berl. 1864). His feeble brother, Iony Angostinos (1778-1857) succeeded him, but resigned in the following April.

Capon, a cock-chicken castrated in order to improve the flesh for table.

Caponier. See CASEMATE.

Cappadocia, the name of a district of Asia Minor, the signification of which differed widely at different periods in its history. Under the Persian rule it included the whole north-eastern part of Asia Minor from Mount Taurus to the Euxine; but after its division into two satrapies, the central and inland came to be called Cappadocia proper; the other Cappadocia ad Pontum, gradually shortened to Pontus. In the former and stricter sense Cappadocia was bounded by Galatia and Lycania on the west, by Cilicia and Syria on the south, by Armenia on the east, and by Pontus on the north. It is a high upland region broken by detached mountains and groups of mountains; its eastern portion is traversed by the Anti-Taurus. The river Halys (Kizil Irmak) crosses the northern part of Cappadocia. Ruled under the Persians by hereditary satraps or tributary kings, Cappadocia was the ally successively of the kings of Macedonia, of Mithridates, and of the Romans, but ultimately (17 A.D.) became a Roman province.

Capparidæ, or CAPPARIDACEÆ, a thalamifloral order allied to Crucifere, including about 350 known species, herbaceous plants, shrubs, and trees, mostly natives of tropical and subtropical countries. Many of the species possess stimulant properties. Of this the species of *Capparis* furnish the most familiar example (see CAPERS); but *Cleome pentaphylla* (the mustard-caper) blisters the hand, and some are positively poisonous.

Cappel, a village of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich, 4½ miles N. of Zug. Here the reformer Zwingli was killed in a conflict with troops of the Catholic cantons, 11th October 1531. A monument has been erected to his memory.

Capping Verses, an amusement that consists in A's quoting a Latin line which B has to 'cap' with another line, whose initial letter is identical with the last letter of A's line.

Caprera, one of a group of small islands called the Buccinari Islands, in the Strait of Bonifacio, to the east of the northern extremity of Sardinia, from which it is separated by a strait less than 2 miles broad. Measuring 6 by 2 miles, and $10\frac{1}{2}$ sq. m. in area, it is rocky, bare, and unfertile, with no streams, and few places adapted either for the pasture of cattle or for the plough. In former times it was the abode only of wild goats—whence its name (Lat. and Ital. *capra*, 'a goat')—and rabbits, and was occasionally visited by goat-herds and fishermen. It was the much-loved home of Garibaldi from 1854 till his death here on 2d June 1882. He was buried behind his house. In 1885 the island was purchased from his heirs by the Italian government.

• **Capri** (the ancient *Capree*), a charming island in the Mediterranean, at the entrance of the Bay of Naples, $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles from Cape Campanella, and 21 S. of Naples. Only $3\frac{3}{4}$ sq. m. in area, it yet displays a rich variety of beautiful scenery, ruins of antiquity, and points of historical interest, and contains a pop. (1881) of 4539. The island is composed of two mountain masses, separated from each other by a depression like the seat of a saddle. That on the west, called Monte Solaro, has an elevation of 1918, that on the east of 860 feet. On a shelving rock at the base of the eastern mountain stands the town of Capri, with walls, gates, and drawbridges, and a population of 1627. It commands a beautiful prospect, and till 1876 communicated with Anacapri, on the western tableland, by a rock-hewn flight of 536 steps; now, however, there is a carriage-road between the two places. The coast is precipitous, with only two safe landing-places, both near Capri. The island was a celebrated place in the times of Augustus and Tiberius. Ruins are still found of Roman baths and aqueducts, and of the twelve grand villas or palaces built in honour of the twelve chief deities by the Emperor Tiberius (q.v.). The inhabitants now consist of fishermen, sailors, and a few traders, with vine-dressers and cultivators of olives in Anacapri. Wherever a tree can be planted, the hopeful and industrious people have prepared for it a soil by persevering toil in terrace-culture. The wine of Capri, both red and white, is well known in commerce. Delicious quails, which in vast numbers alight on the island during their migrations to and from Africa, in spring and autumn, are taken in nets, and form an important item in the resources of Capri. To the west of the town of Capri is situated the *Grotta Azzurra* (Blue Grotto), a remarkable cavern, entered from the sea by a narrow opening not more than three feet high. Inside, however, it is found to be of magnificent proportions and of marvellous beauty, the gorgeous colouring being said to be produced by the reflection and refraction of the sun's rays through the water. Elliptical in form, it has a length of 118 feet, a breadth of 98 in the widest part, and a height of 40 in the loftiest, with 39 feet of water beneath. See Gregorovius, *Die Insel Capri* (Eng. trans. Boston, 1879; *Harper's Magazine*, June 1888).

Capriccio, in Music, is a species of free composition, not subject to rule as to form or figure. The earliest application of the term was to pieces in a fugued style, upon a lively subject. Last century capriccios were of the nature of studies, in which one single figure predominates. It is used in the modern form 'caprice,' as equivalent to 'fantasia,' though sometimes deviating little from regular sonata or rondo form, as in Mendelssohn's several examples.

Capricornus, the *Goat*, the tenth sign of the Zodiac (q.v.). For the tropic of Capricorn, see TROPICS.

Capridæ, a term sometimes, though not frequently, used to denote the Sheep and Goat family (Ovis and Capra) as distinguished on the one hand from Cattle (Bovina), and on the other from all sorts of Antelopes (Antelopina). The term Ovina is more frequent, and has the same content.

Caprification, a curious ancient custom of hanging the fig-branches of the so-called goat-fig or Caprificus on the normal blooming fig-trees which produce the edible figs. This device, apparently irrational, has the following explanation, which, though somewhat intricate, involves wider issues and has no little interest. On the goat-fig we find (1) male flowers, producing pollen, and (2) female flowers, which the eggs of a parasitic insect (*Blastophaga*) turn into galls. On the edible fig-tree we find normal female flowers which are not adapted to become galls. Their styles and stigmas are quite different from those of the female flowers on the goat-fig. Now, when the parasitic insects become mature and leave the galls of the female flowers on the goat-fig, they bear with them also the pollen from the male flowers of the same tree. They fly to the edible fig-tree, and there fertilise the normal female fig-flowers. The ancient custom is therefore very reasonable. The male and insect-containing female flowers of the wild-fig are hung on the edible fig-tree, that so the pollen of the male flowers may be carried by the liberated parasitic insects to fertilise the normal female flowers, and produce the proper figs. See Solms-Laubach, *Herkunft und Domestikation des gewöhnlichen Feigenbaums* (Göttingen, 1882); F. Ludwig, *Biologisches Centralblatt*, 1885, p. 564. Also CHALCIDÆ, FIG, FERTILISATION OF FLOWERS.

Caprifoliaceæ, a natural order of corollifloral dicotyledons, nearly allied to Rubiaceæ (sub-order Cinchonaceæ), from which they are mainly distinguished by the absence of stipules, and containing about 200 species of shrubs and herbs, natives of the north temperate zone. Many are cultivated in our gardens and shrubberies—e.g. the Honeysuckles (*Lonicera*), the Snowberry (*Symphoricarpos racemosus*), the Guelder Rose or Snowball (*Viburnum Opulus*), the Wayfaring Tree (*V. lantana*), the Laurustinus (*V. tinus*), the Elder (*Sambucus niger*), and the beautiful Canadian *Dierilla* (*Weigelia rosea*). The charming little *Linnaea borealis*, one of the rarest of British plants, is essentially a small creeping twin-flowered honeysuckle.

Caprimulgidæ, or NIGHT-JARS, a family of birds, nearly allied to the Swallows, but differing from them in the still greater width of gape, and in having long stiff bristles at the base of the bill. They are twilight insectivorous birds, with the exception of the Oil-bird (q.v.) *Steatornis*. They have a very short triangular beak and broad low head, very long wings, and short legs. The first toe is usually united to the second by a membrane at the base; the long claw of the third toe is curiously comb-like, except in *Steatornis*. The European goatsucker may be said to be the type of the family, which includes also the Whip-poor-will and the Night-hawk of America. There are over eighty species, distributed all over the world, except in New Zealand and most South Sea islands. See GOATSUCKER, NIGHT-JAR, WHIP-POOR-WILL.

Caproic, Caprylic, and Capric Acids are represented by the formulae $\text{HC}_8\text{H}_{17}\text{O}_2$, $\text{HC}_8\text{H}_{15}\text{O}_2$, and $\text{HC}_{10}\text{H}_{19}\text{O}_2$, and are members of the acetic or fatty-acid series. They derive their names from *capra*, 'a goat,' in consequence of their more or less resembling in smell the odour of that animal. They may all be obtained from butter by pressing out the portion which remains liquid at 60° (15.5°C .), saponifying this oil, and distilling the soap which is thus formed with sulphuric acid. The liquid

which passes over contains, along with butyric acid, these three acids, which, by being converted into baryta salts, are separable from one another. All three of these acids are also obtained by the oxidation of oleic acid by nitric acid; and capric acid is also obtained by acting upon oil of rue with fuming nitric acid; hence it is frequently called *rutic acid*. Each acid forms a series of salts, Caproates, Caprylates, and Caprates; but the inorganic ones, such as those containing barium, potash, and soda are of little importance. The Ethyl and Methyl salts, however, resemble each other, and by virtue of their pine-apple flavour, similar to that of Butyric Ether (q.v.), are sometimes used in the production of artificial fruit-essences.

Capsicum, a genus of Solanaceæ, yielding the powerful condiment variously known as Pod Pepper, Red Pepper, Guinea Pepper, Chillies, Capsicum, &c. The species are all of a shrubby, bushy appearance, and have more or less woody stems, although they are annual or biennial plants. Some of them are in very general cultivation in tropical and subtropical countries for their fruit, which is extremely pungent and stimulant, and is employed in sauces, mixed pickles, &c., often under its Mexican name of *Chillies*; and when dried and ground, forms the spice called *Cayenne Pepper*. As a condiment it improves the flavour of food, aids digestion,



Capsicum annuum.

and prevents flatulence; while in medicine, besides being sometimes given to promote digestion, it furnishes a useful local stimulant, especially as a gargle, and sometimes also as a liniment. The so-called *capsicin* is a mixture of resinous and fatty matters, with a volatile alkaloid. The species and varieties are not easily discriminated; their fruits especially differing in form, size, and colour, but Plücker and Hanbury ascribe the supplies of capsicum imported to Britain to two species: (1) *C. fastigiatum*, as furnishing the greater quantity of pod pepper; and *C. annuum* (*longum*, *grossum*), as yielding the larger sorts of this, as well as most of the cayenne pepper imported as powder.

Capstan (Fr. *cabestan*), on shipboard, is an apparatus on the principle of Wheel and Axle (q.v.); its barrel or axis, unlike that of the Windlass (q.v.), is vertical, and in the simplest form is turned by levers working horizontally, the ends of which are inserted in the top or head of the axis. The rope or chain attached to the weight to be lifted is coiled around the body of the capstan, and is drawn in by its motion. The axis may be of iron, or wood with an iron core. At the bottom is a toothed wheel, with *pawls* to prevent recoil. In large

vessels, capstans are generally worked by steam; on shore they are useful for hauling up boats. The GIN for lifting coals from a pit is a similar appliance.

Capsule, in Botany, a dry fruit, formed of several united carpels (syncarpous). When the placentation is parietal or free-central (see PLACENTA), the capsule is of course one-celled; when axile, it is two or more celled. It may open by valves variously placed (see DEHISCENCE); as in foxglove, primrose, and rhododendron; or by pores, as in the poppy or snapdragon; or by a circular slit, as in the pimpermel or monkey-pot (see FRUIT). The word is also applied to gum envelopes for nauseous medicines, to metallic covers for bottles, and to little saucers used in chemistry.

Captain, MILITARY, originally a *head* or *leader*, irrespective of the number of men under him, but now a company or troop commander. In the German army, where the infantry companies consist of 250 men each, the captain is a mounted officer; in the British army he marches on foot with his men, who look to him for everything, both in barracks and in the field. In cavalry regiments the captain also deals individually with his men when in barracks, but in the field he works under the leader of the squadron of which his troop forms half. Formerly each battery of Royal Artillery was commanded by a first-captain with a second-captain under him; these ranks are now major and captain. In the Royal Engineers and Indian Staff Corps, officers are promoted to the rank of captain after eleven and twelve years' service respectively, whether in command of men or otherwise employed. In the other arms promotion only takes place when a vacancy occurs. In the ordnance and commissariat departments a deputy-assistant commissariat-general holds the honorary rank of captain; quartermasters and riding-masters receive it as a reward for long or distinguished service. A captain's pay at home is 15s. a day in the Royal Horse Artillery, 13s. in the cavalry, 12s. 1d. in the Coast Brigade Royal Artillery, 11s. 7d. (and 6s. engineer pay) in the Royal Engineers, and 11s. 7d. in all other branches. In India it is about double these amounts. The badges of rank are two stars on each shoulder-strap.—The name of captain is also applied to the overseer of a mine, the captain of an eleven at cricket, and the like.

In Spain and some other countries the rank of *Captain-general* is still retained, and is a very high command. In Queen Elizabeth's reign there was a captain-general of footmen, and Marlborough was Captain-general of the Forces. See COMMISSIONS (ARMY), also PURCHASE SYSTEM.

Captain, NAVAL, is the general designation for the officer in command of a ship of the royal navy, although some vessels of war are commanded by officers lower in rank than captain. Captains rise to the command of larger ships, with increase of pay, according to length of service. The captain is responsible for everything on shipboard, in discipline, navigation, equipment—all, in short, that concerns the *personnel* or *matériel* of the ship. If his ship belongs to a particular fleet or naval station, he is responsible to the admiral or commodore; if not, he is directly responsible to the Admiralty. The captain of that particular ship in a fleet which carries the admiral is called Flag-captain, and has local precedence over the others. The number of captains in the naval service on the active list is limited to one hundred and seventy-five, most of whom are employed. They rank with lieutenant-colonels in the army (in the United States, with colonels); and after three years' service, with colonels. The full pay and allowances of a captain vary from £600 to £930 a year. Post-captain is

an obsolete title for a captain of three years' standing.

The Captain of the Fleet is a temporary officer in large fleets; he promulgates the admiral's orders, and receives all the reports and returns, filling, in short, a post equivalent to that of Chief of the Staff in an army. Among the seamen on board a ship, the chief of each gang is called captain; such as the captain of the forecabin, of the hold, of the maintop, of each gun, &c. For half-pay captains, see **HALF-PAY**.

Caption, in the practice of the law of England, is applied to the formal title of indictments and depositions, which shows the authority under which it is executed, or taken, as the word implies. Prior to 1837 caption was the name given in Scotland to the formal warrant to apprehend a debtor or other defaulting obligant, which was given in the Bill Chamber after letters of horning had been executed. In that year a simple form was introduced by the Personal Diligence Act, by which imprisonment can be effected (where still competent) without judicial intervention. Process-caption is also used in Scotland to denote a summary warrant of imprisonment, granted on the application of the clerk of court, for the purpose of forcing back the pleadings and other papers in a lawsuit, which have been borrowed by the party against whom the caption issues, and by whom they are unduly illegally retained. See **DILIGENCE**, **HORNING**, **INDICTMENT**, **WARRANT**.

In the United States, caption means the title of a deposition taken before a magistrate, the certificate of the taking of a commission subscribed before the commissioners, and in criminal law, that part of the record which precedes the recital of the indictment.

Capua, a fortified city of Italy, beautifully situated in a rich plain, on the left bank of the Volturno, 27 miles N. of Naples by rail. It has a fine cathedral, with a crypt and twenty-four ancient Corinthian columns from ancient *Casilinum*, upon whose site Capua was built in the 9th century; an antiquarian museum (1874); and a tower commemorating the sanguinary storming of the city by Cæsar Borgia in 1501. Pop. (1881) 11,291.—The ancient *Capua*, which for wealth and population ranked second only to Rome and Carthage, was situated 3½ miles S.E. of the present city, its site being occupied by the modern town of Santa Maria di Capua Vetere. It was founded by the Etruscans under the name of *Vollturnum*, and was the chief of their twelve cities in this part of Italy. Its present name was derived from the Samnites, who captured it in 423 B.C. After the battle of Cannæ, 216 B.C., the popular party opened the gates to Hannibal, whose army was greatly enervated by its luxurious winter-quarters here. The Romans obtained possession of the city in 211 B.C. In the 5th century A.D. Capua was devastated by the Vandals under Genseric. It recovered its prosperity again to some extent, but it was totally destroyed by the Saracens in 840. The citizens, who had fled to the mountains, were induced by their bishop to return some sixteen years later, and found the modern Capua. From the existing remains of the walls and fortifications of ancient Capua, it has been estimated that it had a circumference of 5 or 6 miles. It had seven gates. Among the Roman antiquities, one of the most remarkable is the amphitheatre, built of bricks, and faced with white marble. Well-preserved arches, corridors, and seats for spectators still remain. Measuring 557 by 459 feet, and 150 feet high, it could hold 60,000 spectators, and must have been one of the most magnificent buildings of the kind in Italy.

Cap'uchin Monkey, or **CAI**, a name often given to *Cebus capuchinus*, and some other species of the genus *Cebus*, South American monkeys, which have the head covered with short hair, so disposed as to resemble the cowl of a capuchin, the face being almost naked, or only covered with a little down. *Pithecia chiroptotes*, a South American monkey of a genus allied to *Cebus*, is also sometimes called the Capuchin of the Orinoco. *Cebus fatuellus* is known as the Brown Capuchin. The



Capuchin Monkey.

capuchin frequents wooded country in Guiana, Venezuela, and Peru; it keeps for the most part to trees, except when pillaging maize-fields or the like; it is very shy, but easily tamed when young. Though the senses of sight and hearing are poor, its intelligence is very considerable, and can readily be educated. The mothers exhibit great affection for their young, and the captives soon become fond of their owners. As usual they are very thievish, inquisitive, and mischievous.

Cap'uchins, a branch of the order of Franciscans (q.v.), so designated from the *capucho* or cowl worn by them as their head-dress.

Capulets and Montagues, the English spelling of the names of the Cappelletti and Montecchi, two noble families of Northern Italy, according to tradition of Verona, chiefly memorable from their connection with the legend on which Shakespeare has founded his tragedy of *Romeo and Juliet*. They both belonged to the Ghibelline faction, as we see from a reference in canto vi. of Dante's *Purgatorio*. The first publication in which we recognise the essential incidents of Shakespeare's play is a novel by Luigi da Porto, printed at Venice in 1535. Another version was given by Bandello in 1554, and soon after a French version of the tale, by Pierre Boistean, in Belleforest's *Histoires Tragiques*, which was translated into English in 1567, and published in vol. ii. of Paynter's *Palace of Pleasure*. Boistean's novel had already in 1562 been formed, with considerable alterations and large additions, into an English poem of four thousand lines by Arthur Brooke, entitled *The Tragical History of Romeo and Juliet*, written first in Italian by Bandell, and now in English. There is evidence that an English play had appeared previously, and that before Shakespeare's time the story was so well known in England that it had supplied subjects for tapestries. Shakespeare's play seems to have been principally based on the English poem, almost the only variations being the compression, for dramatic effect, of the action from four or five months into as many days, and the bringing in of Paris to die at Juliet's bier by the hand of Romeo. But Shakespeare's faithfulness in following his text does not detract at all from the magnificent dramatic

intuition by which the old story has been fused into a tragedy of transcendent splendour and pathos.

Caput Mortuum (Lat., 'dead head'), a phrase used by the old chemists for the residuum of chemicals after the volatile substances had escaped. It is still used metaphorically for a thing or institution which has been really destroyed though the form is left, the essence and valuable characters having been removed.

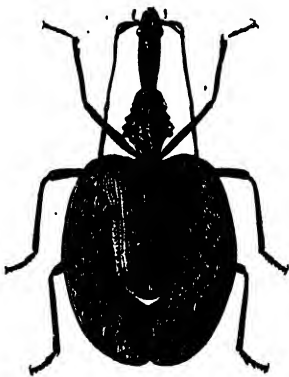
Capybara (*Hydrochærus capybara*), the largest living rodent, nearly allied to the guinea-pig. It is as large as a small pig, aquatic in its habits,



Capybara (*Hydrochærus capybara*).

vegetarian in its diet, and often does great damage in sugar-cane plantations. It runs clumsily, but swims well, and can remain several minutes under water. The general structure is that of the guinea-pig, and differs but little except in having a grooved upper incisor tooth, and the last molar larger than those in front, and in the development of a web on the feet. It is a very plump animal, with coarse, thin, predominantly brownish hair; is inoffensive and easily tamed; and lives in pairs or families, in marshy places by rivers and lakes. Its habitat is the north of South America. It is sometimes called the water-hog, which is a literal translation of its technical title. In Demerara it is called water-horse, a corruption of *water-haus*, Dutch for 'water-hare.' The flesh, except of old males, is good for eating.

Carabidae, a tribe of beetles, or coleopterous insects, of the section Pentamera (see COLEOPTERA). The species are extremely numerous, those already known numbering about ten thousand. They mostly feed at night on other insects, worms, snails, &c., and are extremely voracious and active, habits which are fully shared by their larvæ. One form at any rate, *Zabrus gibbus*, is exceptional in its vegetarian diet, and sometimes does considerable damage in wheat-fields. Some of them burrow in the earth; most of them live under stones, under the bark of trees, among moss, &c.; and their bodies are adapted to this mode of life, being very firm and hard. Their legs are in general pretty long, having on the anterior pair often



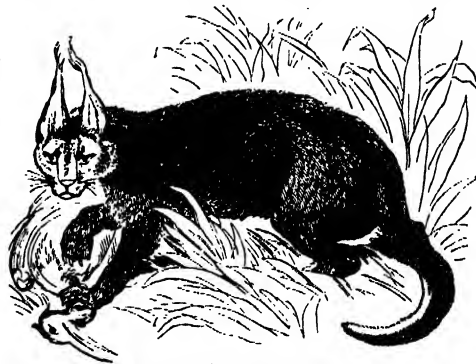
Mormolyce phyllodes.

brush-like soles, and much more efficient than their wings. Some of them indeed are wingless, or have only rudimentary wings. Many exhibit much beauty of colour and metallic lustre. When irritated they eject an irritant, strong-smelling fluid from glands situated posteriorly (see BOMBARDIER BEETLE). The Carabidae occur everywhere, even in the arctic regions, and blind forms occur in caves. With extremes of temperature they become readily dormant. The largest British species is only about an inch long, but some foreign ones are much larger. Some of the species of Carabus are among the most common British insects. Their wings are not fitted for flight.—A very large and singular insect of this tribe is *Mormolyce phyllodes*, a native of Java, which, in consequence of the extremely depressed form of its body and the expansion of its wing-cases, resembles some of the Mantidae (q.v.) and the insects known as Leaf-insects (q.v.).

Carabo'bo, a state of Venezuela, between the Caribbean Sea and the state of Zamora. Area, 2974 sq. m.; pop. (1886) 167,499, mostly inhabiting the fertile depression of Lake Valencia, where large crops of coffee, sugar, and excellent cacao are grown. Capital, Valencia (q.v.); chief port, Puerto Cabello (q.v.).

Carabou. See REINDEER.

Caracal (*Felis* or *Lynx caracal*), a species of Lynx (q.v.) found in the warmer parts of Asia and throughout the whole of Africa; and more probably than any European species the lynx of the ancients. It is larger than a fox, about the same height, but much more powerful; of a uniform



Caracal (*Lynx caracal*).

deep chestnut or wine-red colour, except two spots near each eye, the under parts of the body, and inner parts of the legs, which are white, and tufts of long black hair which terminate the ears. The young forms are spotted. The ears are about 3 inches in length. The caracal is powerful enough to tear a hound to pieces. It is often represented as of a very savage disposition, and certainly is most ill-tempered or probably semi-insane in captivity, but is capable of being tamed, and is in India employed for hunting hares and rabbits.

Caracalla, Roman emperor from 211–17 A.D., the son of the Emperor Septimius Severus, was born at Lyons, 188 A.D. He was originally named *Bassianus*, from his maternal grandfather, but his legal name, as it appears on medals and inscriptions, was *M. Aurelius Antoninus*. *Caracalla* was a nickname given him from his favourite dress, a long hooded tunic, made in the fashion of the Gauls, and so called in their language. After his father's death at Eboracum (York) in 211 A.D. he ascended the throne as co-regent with his brother Publius Septimius Antoninus Geta, whom he after-

wards caused to be murdered. He next directed his cruelty against all the friends and adherents of Geta, of whom it is said as many as twenty thousand of both sexes—including the great jurist Papinianus—were put to death. Innumerable acts of oppression and robbery were employed to raise supplies for the unbounded extravagance of the despot, and to pay his soldiers. In his famous constitution he bestowed Roman citizenship on all his free subjects not citizens—who formed the majority, especially in the provinces—but simply in order to levy a greater amount of taxes on releases and heritages, which were paid only by citizens. After almost exhausting Italy by his extortions, he turned to the provinces, which had been in a great measure spared by the tyranny of former emperors. In 214 he visited Gaul, Germany, Dacia, and Thrace; and after a campaign against the Alemanni, assumed the surname *Alemannicus*. He was assassinated, at the instigation of Macrinus, prefect of the Praetorians, by one of his veterans named Martialis, on the 8th of April 217, on the way from Edessa to Carrhae. All the historians combine to paint the life of Caracalla in the darkest colours. Among the buildings of Caracalla in Rome, the baths—Thermae Caracallae—near Porta Capena, were most celebrated, and their ruins are still magnificent.

Caracara, a Brazilian name applied to several of the falcon-like hawks, and especially to *Polyborus brazilensis*. The name refers to the hoarse cry. They keep a good deal to the ground, and a web joins the base of the two outer toes to the middle one. *Ibycter* is a closely allied genus, and the southern caracara (*Ibycter australis*) the best-known species.



Caracara
(*Polyborus brazilensis*).

Darwin, in his *Beagle* voyage, gives an interesting account of their mischievous and passionate habits. The bare skin of the face changes in colour according to the flow of blood associated with emotion. *Ibycter australis* frequents the Falkland Islands; *Polyborus brazilensis* spreads from Brazil over a large extent of America, and even reaches occasionally the southern parts of the United States.

Caracas, the capital of the republic of Venezuela and of the Federal District, is situated in 10° 31' N. lat., and 67° 5' W. long., 6 miles (24 by rail) S. of La Guaira, its port. Built on the southern slope of the Avila (8635 feet), it is 3025 feet above the tide-level, and enjoys from this elevation a healthy air and a temperature ranging between 48° and 100° F. The streets, built at right angles, are broad and well paved. There are a handsome promenade and numerous public parks and gardens; the town has excellent water and gas, one telephone for every 117 inhabitants, 15 newspapers (8 of them daily), two tramway lines, and is the terminus of four railways. The most notable edifices are the Federal Palaces and other official buildings, including the president's 'Yellow House'; the university, whose library (30,000 vols.) is open to the public; the Exhibition Palace (see BOLIVAR); the cathedral; the magnificent basilica of St Ann (£200,000); and over a score of hospitals and

charitable institutions. Besides the university, there are colleges of medicine, law, and engineering, and other technical schools, and in the Federal District 204 schools of all grades have an attendance of almost 12,000. Pop. (1886) 55,819.—The Federal District, with an area of 45 sq. m., includes, besides Caracas, six boroughs with a joint pop. of 14,259; total (1886) 70,078. The neighbourhood is subject to earthquakes; in that of 1812, 12,000 citizens perished.

Caracci, or CARRACCI, a celebrated family of Italian painters, the founders of the Bolognese school of painting.

LUDOVICO CARACCI, the son of a butcher, was born at Bologna in 1555. As a student he was so inapt that his master recommended him to abandon the pursuit; but instead of that, he went to Venice and Parma, making acquaintance with the works of the great masters there, and returned to Bologna imbued with art principles quite opposed to the superficial mannerism then prevailing in his native city. In conjunction with two of his cousins, who, instructed by him, had imbibed the same ideas, he founded, in spite of great opposition, the Eclectic school which afterwards became so famous in the history of painting. The first principle of this new school was that 'observation of nature ought to be combined with imitation of the best masters.' The allied artists found numerous pupils, to whom they gave practical instructions in drawing from natural and artistic models, with theoretical lessons on perspective, anatomy, &c. So great was their success that in the course of a short time all other schools of painting were closed in Bologna. Some of the finest works of this master are preserved at Bologna—among others, the 'Madonna and Child Throned,' 'Madonna and Child Standing,' the 'Transfiguration,' and the 'Nativity of St John the Baptist.' He also engraved and etched a few of his own designs. Ludovico died in 1619.

AGOSTINO CARACCI, cousin of Ludovico, was born (1558) in Bologna. He became a disciple of his cousin, but he was of too versatile a genius to devote himself closely to any subject, though his magnificent painting of the 'Communion of St Jerome,' painted for the Certosa of Bologna, now in the gallery of that city, proves that he might have attained to very great eminence had he devoted his undivided attention to the art; but he was in the habit of abandoning his easel for literature, poetry, and engraving on copper. As an engraver, indeed, he holds an important position in Italian art. He accompanied his younger brother Annibale to Rome, and there assisted in some of the paintings in the Farnese Gallery; but his brother, who was a slave to his art, soon quarrelled with him for his inattention, and he left Rome, and went to Parma, where he died in 1602. As an engraver he ranks very high for his correctness of design and skill of execution.

ANNIBALE CARACCI, brother of Agostino, was born (1560) in Bologna, where he learned, under his father, the business of a tailor, from which he was called away by Ludovico Caracci. His progress in the study of painting was rapid, and at first he took principally for his models Correggio, Titian, and Paul Veronese. His picture of 'St Roche distributing Alms' first gained for Annibale Caracci a wide reputation. His fame reached Rome, and he was employed to paint the Farnese Gallery there, which is considered his greatest work, and the manner of which partakes somewhat of Raphael and Correggio. On this gallery he was employed some four years, and he received for his work the incredibly paltry sum of 500 crowns. After a visit to Naples he died in Rome in 1609, where his remains were interred, close to Raphael's tomb, in the Pantheon. His most celebrated easel-

picture is the 'Three Maries,' formerly in the Orleans collection, now at Castle Howard. Annibale Caracci was one of the greatest followers of Correggio, and in composition approached most nearly to the style of Raphael. Ludovico had a greater talent in teaching, and Agostino had a more versatile invention, but Annibale was unquestionably the greatest artist of the three Caracci.

ANTONIO MARZIALE CARACCI (1583-1618), natural son of Agostino, was a pupil under Annibale, and painted some excellent pictures.

FRANCESCO (styled FRANCESCHINO) CARACCI, nephew of Agostino and Annibale, was born in 1595, and distinguished himself as an eminent designer. He died 1622.—The best Italian masters of the 17th century—Domenichino, Guido Reni, Albani, and others—proceeded from the school of the Caracci.

Carac'ciolo, PRINCE FRANCESCO, was born in 1752 of a noble Neapolitan family, and had risen to the supreme command of King Ferdinand's navy, when in December 1798 he fled with him before the French from Naples to Palermo. Learning, however, of the intended confiscation of the estates of all absentees, he obtained permission to return to Naples, and there entered the service of the 'Parthenopean Republic,' in April being placed at the head of its marine. For two months he ably directed the operations of the revolutionists, and not till their cause seemed hopeless, though before the capitulation, did he quit the capital. He was captured in peasant disguise, and on 29th June 1799 was brought on board Nelson's flag-ship, tried by a court-martial of Neapolitan officers, and hanged from the yard-arm of a Neapolitan frigate. See NELSON; J. Paget's *Paradozes and Puzzles* (1874); and J. C. Jeaffreson's *Lady Hamilton and Lord Nelson* (1888).

Caractacus, a king of the Britons, for nine years (43-50 A.D.) warred gallantly against the Roman invaders, but at length was completely overthrown by Ostorius in a battle near the border of South Wales. His wife and daughters fell into the hands of the victors, and his brothers surrendered. Caractacus himself fled to Cartismandua, queen of the Brigantes, who delivered him up. He was carried to Rome, 51 A.D., and exhibited in a triumphal procession by the Emperor Claudius, who was greatly impressed by his dauntless bearing and language. According to tradition he died at Rome about 54 A.D., but there is absolutely no ground for supposing that the 'Claudia of St Paul's epistle (2 Tim. iv. 21) was his daughter, and introduced Christianity from Italy to Britain.

Caraffa is the name of an ancient and famous Neapolitan family, to which several cardinals and Pope Paul IV. (q.v.) belonged.—CARLO CARAFFA, nephew of Paul IV., was born in 1517, fought in the Netherlands, joined the Knights of Malta, and was made cardinal by his uncle. Paul had ultimately to banish the cardinal and his brothers from Rome for extortion; and in 1561 Pope Pius IV. caused him to be put to death. See the work by Durny (Paris, 1883), and Canon Jenkins, *The Story of the Caraffa* (1886).

Caraites. See KARAITES.

Caramania is a name sometimes given to part of the central tableland of Asia Minor (q.v.), from the town of Karaman, a town of 7000 inhabitants, lying at the northern base of Mount Taurus. It is mostly in the province of Konieh.

Carambola, or COROMANDEL GOOSEBERRY, is the fruit of *Averrhoa Carambola*, a small East Indian evergreen tree belonging to the Oxalidaceæ. Its congener, *A. Bilimbi*, yields the acid fruit

known as the Bilimbi or Blimbing, and both species have been introduced into cultivation in the West Indies. They exhibit in a tolerably marked degree that sensitiveness familiar in other members of the order. See SLEEP OF PLANTS.

Carambole. See BILLIARDS.

Caramel is the name applied to the highly flavoured dark-brown substance produced by the application of heat to Sugar (q.v.). It is likewise formed during the roasting of all materials containing sugar, such as coffee, chicory, and malt (see BEER), and is one cause of the dark colour of porter and infusions of coffee. It is employed in the colouring of whisky, wines, vinegar, &c. Although caramel, as prepared by burning sugar, is used more as a colouring than as a flavouring agent, yet it, and bodies allied to it, play a very important part in nutrition. When meat is roasted, a very highly flavoured brown portion is produced on the surface. It is to this, a form of caramel, that the appetising flavour of roast meat is in part due, while to the same cause we can trace the distinctive flavour of toasted bread. The dark coloured gravy derived from roast meat owes its value in part to caramel; and recognising this, the cook frequently adds caramel or browning, as it is called, to make up for deficiencies. Experiments have shown that while life cannot be sustained on the tasteless fibrous meat from which the juices have been removed by water, yet the addition of caramel enables it to be assimilated and used as food.

Caranx. See SCAD.

Carapa, a genus of Meliaceæ, found in tropical America and Guinea. The stem of *C. guianensis* is used for masts; its bark is a febrifuge, and its seeds yield a lamp oil, called *carapa* (often corrupted into *crab*) oil. That of *C. guineensis* (probably the same species) is used by the negroes for anointing their bodies, its bitterness protecting them from the bites of insects.

Carapace, a term applied to the shield on the back of such crustaceans as Crab and Lobster, of the unique King Crab or Limulus, or of chelonians like Tortoise and Turtle. In the former cases it is a horny and limy modification of the outer portion of the skin, in the last it is mainly due to backbone and ribs. It is obviously therefore a term of no precise significance. For its exact nature, see CRAB and TORTOISE.

Carat. Goldsmiths and assayers divide the troy pound, ounce, or any other weight into 24 parts, and call each a carat, as a means of stating the proportion of pure gold contained in any alloy of gold with other metals. Thus, the gold of our coinage and of wedding-rings, which contains $\frac{1}{2}$ of pure gold, is called '22 carats fine,' or 22-carat gold. The lower standard, used for watch-cases, &c., which contains $\frac{1}{4}$ of pure gold, is called 18-carat, and so on. The carat used in this sense has therefore no absolute weight; it merely denotes a ratio. This, however, is not the case with the jewelry carat used for weighing diamonds and other precious stones, pearls, &c., which has a fixed weight, equal to $3\frac{1}{8}$ troy grains, and is divided into quarters, or 'carat grains,' eighths, sixteenths, thirty-seconds, and sixty-fourths. These carat grains are thus less than troy grains, and therefore the jeweller has to keep a separate set of diamond weights. Even the carat with fixed weight varies in various countries—from about 216 milligrams in Leghorn to 195 in Florence. In England it is 205.4990 milligrams; in France, 205.5000.

The name seems to have come through the Arabic *qirrat* from the Greek *keration*, the fruit of the Carob (q.v.) or locust-tree (*Ceratonia siliqua*),

used also as a weight. The origin of the word has also been sought in *Kuara*, the native name of the *Erythrina Abyssinica*, or coral-tree, the seeds of which, it is said, were very equal in size, and were used for weighing gold and precious stones.

Caravaca, a town of Spain, 40 miles NNW. of Murcia, in a rich wine country, has manufactures of woollen fabrics, soap, paper, leather, brandy, and oil. Pop. (1877) 15,018.

Caravaggio, a town in the Italian province of Bergamo, 3 miles SE. of Treviglio by rail. It has a famous church, *L'Apparizione della Madonna*, to which pilgrimages are made, and is celebrated as the birthplace of the painters Fermo Stella, Polidoro Caldara, and Michel Angelo Amerigi, all three surnamed Caravaggio. Pop. 6089.

Caravaggio, MICHEL ANGELO AMERIGI, or MORIGI DA, a celebrated Italian painter, was born in 1569 at Caravaggio (see above). His father, who was a mason, employed him in preparing plaster for the fresco-painters of Milan, and in this way the artistic genius of the boy was stirred. After studying the works of the great masters in that city for five years, and afterwards in Venice, where his colouring was for a time influenced by the paintings of Giorgione, he went to Rome, where he lived for some time in very reduced circumstances. At length a picture of his attracted the notice of Cardinal del Monte, who now patronised the young artist; his works became for a time popular, and even such painters as Guido and Domenichino found it necessary to imitate his style. But the ferocious and quarrelsome character of Caravaggio soon involved him in difficulties. Having fled from Rome to Malta on account of manslaughter, he obtained the favour of the Grand-master by painting an altar-piece in the church of St John, and other pictures. His fiery nature soon forced him to flee from Malta; and in making his way back to Rome, he was wounded, lost all his baggage, caught a violent fever, and on reaching Porto Ercole, lay down on a bank and died (1609), at the age of forty. Transcript of ordinary and often debased nature was the object aimed at by Caravaggio, who left the schools, and devoted himself to painting life as he found it in lanes, alleys, and other resorts of the lower classes. He studied no such matters as refined sentiment or the elevation of realities, but gave in his paintings expression to his own wild and gloomy character. His chiaroscuro is forced and untrue, but very effective. When he painted sacred subjects, he still remained faithful to the low realities of Italian life; so that several of his pictures executed for churches had to be removed from their places, on account of their want of harmony with sacred surroundings. Kugler, the German critic, has justly said of one of Caravaggio's most celebrated works, a 'Burial of Christ,' that it appears 'like nothing better than the funeral of a gypsy-chieftain.' One of his best paintings, 'The Fraudulent Gamblers,' is preserved in the Sciarra Gallery at Rome; his 'Christ and the Disciples at Emmaus' is in the National Gallery, London; and seven of his works are in the Berlin Museum. —An earlier and less celebrated Italian painter, POLIDORO CALDARA DA CARAVAGGIO, was born about 1492, and murdered in 1543. He aided Raphael in the subordinate parts of his frescoes in the Vatican. His celebrated picture of 'Christ bearing the Cross' is in the Naples Museum.

Caravan (Persian *kārwān*), in Africa and the East, a large company of travellers associated for mutual help and protection. Caravans following a sandy desert route employ camels, sometimes as many as 1000, which follow each other in single file; in journeys through a steep and rocky country, mules and asses are used. The term is pro-

perly confined to trading assemblages alone; for the caravans formed by pilgrims going to Mecca, the most famous of which are those which annually assemble at Cairo and at Damascus, see HAJJ. In trade-caravans, a leader, who is called *Karwan-Bashi*, or simply *Bris* ('chief'), is elected by the merchants from their own number. The leader of the Mecca caravans is called *Emir-el Hajj* ('prince of the pilgrims').

CARAVANSERAI, or KHANS, are the buildings erected in the East, generally as a pious charity, for the shelter of caravans or travellers; they are unfurnished, water only being provided. Generally erected just outside the walls of a town or village, they commonly consist of a square building of four wings built round a court-yard, in which the beasts of burden may be inclosed, and where there is usually a well, with a fountain-basin beside it; the lodgings are small rooms, generally on a second story, built over the arcade and storerooms which run round the court-yard. Always massive and strong, the buildings are often handsome and well proportioned; but in too many instances they have been allowed to sink into dilapidation and even ruin.

From 'a moving company, cavalcade, company in motion—e.g. out for a picnic,' *Caravan* had come in 1689 to mean a large covered car or conveyance capable of carrying such a company. Thence the transition was easy to the 'chained house on wheels' of the Gypsy, the showman, or Dr Gordon Stables, author of *The Cruise of the Land Yacht 'Wanderer'* (1886).

Caravances. See CHICK PEA.

Caravellas, a Brazilian port, 475 miles NE. of Rio de Janeiro, on the Caravellas, 5 miles from its mouth. It exports fish-oil, cocoa-nuts, and coffee. A railway connects it with the interior. Pop. 4000.

Caraway (*Carum Carvi* or *Carui*), a species of Umbelliferae, which has long been valued and cultivated in Europe for the sake of the well-known aromatic 'caraway seeds' which it bears; these being, however, in strictness not seeds, but the *mericarps*, into which the fruit in this order splits when ripening (see UMBELLIFERÆ). Their properties are due to the volatile caraway-oil, which is contained in the large oil-glands (*vittæ*) of the fruit, and is distilled on a large scale, chiefly for the preparation of the liqueur known as *limmel*, but also for use in perfumery and in pharmacy, as an aromatic stimulant and flavouring ingredient. Caraways are, however, chiefly used entire as a spice by bakers and confectioners, and the cultivation of the plant thus attains considerable importance, particularly in Germany and Holland.

Carbazotic Acid. See PICRIC ACID.

Carbides, formerly termed *carburets*, are the compounds of carbon with the various metals. The carbides of iron are the most important, and it is to the addition of carbon, in one way or other, that we are indebted for the valuable properties of cast-iron and steel, both of which contain carbides.

Carbine is a short rifle. In the British army all cavalry soldiers carry the Martini-Henry carbine in a leather case behind the right thigh, for use when acting on foot. Gunners of garrison batteries have the same weapon with a sword-bayonet to fit on to it, and two are strapped on to the foot-board of each limber in field batteries. It is in all respects of the same construction as the infantry rifle, but a foot shorter in the barrel, and though chambered to take the same ammunition, it has a smaller cartridge proper to it. It is sighted for 1100 yards, weighs 7 lb. 8 oz., has a barrel of 1 ft. 9½ in. long, and a muzzle-velocity of 1125 feet.

per second. Its proper cartridge carries a bullet, .45 inch in diameter, weighing 410 gr., and a charge of 70 gr. of powder.

Carbineers, or CARABINEERS, meant formerly light horsemen, used chiefly to watch and harass the enemy, defend narrow passes, and act as skirmishers. A corps under this name was raised in France in 1560; but the designation is no longer used in that country. In the English army, all cavalry were at one time often styled carbineers, but now there is only one regiment, the 6th Dragoon Guards, known by this title; and the distinction between them and other heavy cavalry is merely nominal.

Carbohydrogens. See HYDROCARBONS.

Carbolic Acid, PHENOL, or PHENIC ACID, C_6H_5OH , is one of the most important substances derived from coal-tar. Although called an acid, and forming salts, it is neutral to test-paper, and has more in common with the alcohols than with the acids (see ACIDS and ALCOHOLS). It is obtained by distilling coal-tar, reserving the portion passing over between 356° and 374° (180° — 190° C.). After rectification, this constitutes the crude carbolic acid used so largely for disinfecting purposes. By careful purification it can be obtained pure, when it forms minute white or colourless plates or needles, possessing a burning taste, and an odour resembling that of creosote. By exposure to the air it becomes pinkish, but is not otherwise injured. It rapidly absorbs water from the air, forming an oily liquid, which does not readily mix with water until about 15 volumes have been added, when it forms a solution. Carbolic acid is apt to be confounded with cresylic acid and creosote, which possess an odour somewhat similar. This remark applies only to the liquid acid, as neither of these substances can be crystallised. Liquid carbolic acid has no action on polarised light, in this respect differing from creosote. Carbolic acid is readily soluble in alcohol, ether, chloroform, glycerin, olive-oil, and volatile oils. Although called an acid, it forms but very weak combinations with the alkalis, some of the so-called carbolates used for disinfecting purposes being probably only earthly substances mixed with carbolic acid.

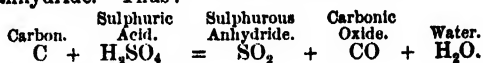
In solution carbolic acid coagulates albumen, arrests fermentation, destroys parasites, whether animal or vegetable, and prevents moulding or putrefaction. Owing to these valuable properties it has come largely into use as an antiseptic and disinfectant. Applied to the cavity of a decayed tooth it quickly relieves certain forms of toothache, acting as a local anæsthetic. Owing to its powerful action on the mucous membranes, it must not be allowed to touch the interior of the mouth. Taken internally, concentrated carbolic acid acts as an irritant poison, accompanied by a numbing of the stomach, which prevents the action of emetics. Medicinally, carbolic acid may be given in doses of one to three grains dissolved in glycerine or water. See ANTISEPTIC SURGERY.

Carbon (sym. C; atomic weight 12) is one of the elementary substances most largely diffused in nature. It occurs uncombined in the mineral graphite or Black Lead (q.v.), and in the Diamond (q.v.), which is pure crystallised carbon. It is much more abundant, however, in a state of combination. United with oxygen, it occurs as Carbonic Acid, CO_2 (q.v.), in the atmosphere, in natural waters, in limestone, dolomite, and iron-stone. In coal it is found combined with hydrogen and oxygen; and in plants and animals it occurs as one of the elements building up wood, starch, gum, sugar, oil, bone (gelatin), and flesh (fibrin). Indeed there is no other element which

is so characteristic of plant and animal organisms, and it ranks as the only element never absent in substances obtained from the two kingdoms of organic nature. Wood charcoal, coke, lampblack, and animal charcoal are artificial varieties, more or less impure, of carbon. The specific gravity of the different forms of carbon greatly varies; that of the diamond being 3.330 to 3.550, while graphite is only about 2.300. Carbon, in its ordinary forms, is a good conductor of electricity; in the form of diamond, it is a non-conductor. Of heat, the lighter varieties of carbon, such as wood charcoal, are very bad conductors; graphite in mass has very considerable conducting powers. At ordinary temperatures, all the varieties of carbon are extremely unalterable; so much so, that it is customary to char the ends of piles of wood which are to be driven into the ground, so as by this coating of non-decaying carbon to preserve the interior wood; and with a similar object, the interior of casks and other wooden vessels intended to hold water during sea-voyages, is charred (coated with carbon), to keep the wood from passing into decay, and thereby to preserve the water sweet. Even as regards combustion there is a marked difference. Wood charcoal takes fire with the greatest readiness, bone-black (animal charcoal) less so; then follow in order of difficulty of combustion—coke, anthracite, lampblack, black lead, and the diamond. Indeed, black lead is so non-combustible, that crucibles to withstand very high temperatures for prolonged periods without breakage or burning, are made of black lead; and the Diamond (q.v.) completely resists all ordinary modes of setting fire to it. In the property of hardness carbon ranges from the velvet-like lampblack to diamond, the hardest of gems. In 1879 it was announced that a method of producing pure crystallised carbon, or diamond, had been discovered, but, so far, the artificial crystals obtained have only been of microscopic size.

Besides the physical properties already alluded to, carbon possesses very remarkable absorbent powers; enabling it not only to decolourise syrupy liquids (see CHARCOAL, ANIMAL), but also to absorb gases. Thus freshly ignited wood charcoal will absorb ninety times its own volume of ammonia gas, and sixty-five times its volume of sulphurous anhydride gas. Owing to this property it has many important uses. When employed in the construction of respirators, so arranged that the air is drawn through a layer of charcoal, it is possible to breathe an atmosphere which otherwise would be irrespirable. Water and wine which have become tainted may be readily rendered wholesome by means of charcoal; while as a remedy for troublesome flatulence and as a tooth-powder, its value lies in the absorbent power referred to. Gardeners find that when it is mixed with potting-soil it prevents the souring of the soil, which is so injurious to the finer varieties of plants.

Most of the filters so much in use nowadays for the purification of water contain charcoal, which not only removes organic matter, but even lessens the hardness of the water. For decolourising liquids bone-black is preferable. The varieties of carbon, as mentioned above, differ very considerably in the readiness with which they combine with oxygen; but when burned they all yield Carbonic Anhydride, CO_2 (see CARBONIC ACID). Carbon forms another oxide, called carbonic oxide, CO, when it is burned with only a limited supply of air. When heated with sulphuric acid carbon decomposes it, forming carbonic oxide and sulphurous anhydride. Thus:



Carbon unites with metals to form Carbides (q.v.), the chief of which are those of iron. With hydrogen carbon forms a very important class of organic compounds, including such unlike substances as turpentine, oil of lemon, $C_{10}H_{16}$, and marsh gas, CH_4 . As carbon unites with nearly all the elements to form chlorides, bromides, &c., the number of carbon compounds is virtually unlimited (see AROMATIC SERIES), and those already known far surpass in numbers all other chemical compounds put together. When carbon is obtained sufficiently dense, it is found to be a good conductor of electricity, and to make an excellent electro-negative element in a galvanic pair. For this purpose graphite and the hard incrustation of carbon found in gas retorts are admirably suited; but, owing to their comparative scarcity, recourse is had to an artificial method of preparing dense carbon, devised by Professor Bunsen of Heidelberg. The carbons thus obtained for galvanic batteries, owing to their efficiency and cheapness, have given a great impetus to electrical work. The following are the more important steps in the process: A mixture of two parts of coke and one of coal in powder is placed in an iron mould and heated in a furnace. As soon as the liberation of gas has ceased, the mould is allowed to cool, and on opening it a carbon block is obtained which may be ground to the desired size. Although hard, it is still far too porous, and to remedy this it is soaked in thick gas-tar, allowed to dry, and finally heated in a fireproof crucible for some time. A second or even third time this may be repeated, care being taken to prevent the access of air to the crucible, and eventually a carbon very dense, sonorous when struck, and a good conductor of electricity, is obtained.

For a reference to the manufacture of charcoal, see separate article; and see ELECTRIC LIGHT.

Carbonado, a form of carbon resembling hematite, but akin to the diamond, used like black diamonds in Boring (q.v.).

Carbonari (literally 'colliers' or 'charcoal-burners'), the name of certain secret societies, which flourished both in Italy and France at the beginning of this century. The aim of the societies was the overthrow of the despotic and reactionary governments then existing. They originated in Italy while under the rule of the Bonapartes. Botta, in his *Storia d'Italia*, states that, under Murat's government, the Neapolitan republicans, equally hating the French and King Ferdinand, escaped about 1808 into the wild defiles of the Abruzzi, and here, naming themselves 'Carbonari,' formed a secret society. The name of Carbonari was taken from the trade of charcoal-burning pursued in that part of Italy, and a great deal of the peculiar phraseology used in reference to their organisation and their proceedings was drawn from the same source. Thus one of their lodges was called a hut (*baracca*); an ordinary meeting, *rendita* (a sale); a meeting of great importance, *alta vendita*. But much of their ceremonial and phraseology was drawn from freemasonry and the Christian religion. Their motto or war-cry was 'Vengeance for the lamb torn by the wolf.' There were four grades in the organisation, with mystic rites of initiation. Attempts at centralisation of the Italian Carbonari were attempted, but without much success.

The Carbonari played a considerable part in Italian history. Murat, the Bonapartist king of Naples, repressed them for a time, their leader Capobianco being put to death; yet they helped to overthrow French rule in Southern Italy. After the Bourbon restoration in 1815 the discontent continued, and Carbonarism attained to its greatest degree of prosperity. Priests, officers of the army,

and even women joined the organisation, which included among its members Charles Albert (afterwards king of Sardinia), Lord Byron, Silvio Pellico, and Mazzini. In 1820 its membership, variously estimated at 300,000 and 700,000, included most of the patriotism and intelligence of Italy. But its strength was broken through the unsuccessful risings of 1820 and 1821, the power of Austria and of the reaction being too great for revolutionary Italy. Subsequently the more active portion of the revolutionary party in the peninsula was absorbed by the 'Young Italy' movement (1831) of Mazzini.

After the restoration of the Bourbons several secret political unions were formed in France, and in 1820 were confederated with the Carbonari. Paris, after the prosecutions against the secret societies of Italy, was made the headquarters of a Carbonarism which, adopting all the symbolic phraseology, rules, and regulations of the Italian societies, received from the rapidly systematising genius of the French an organic character which it had never before possessed. Lafayette was president of the supreme board, and many students and inferior officers in the army joined the societies. The initiated styled themselves *bons cousins*, and spoke of the uninitiated as *pagani* (heathens). Written documents and communications were strictly prohibited by the heads of the union, and treachery was to be punished by assassination. Following the example of their Italian brethren, the French Carbonari in 1821 attempted risings in several towns in France. Though unsuccessful, they revealed the considerable numbers and effective organisation of the societies, and they survived in sufficient strength to take a part in the revolution of July 1830. After that event several of the leading French Carbonari attached themselves to the new régime, and their society was gradually dissolved. In its place the new *Charbonnerie Démocratique* was founded, having for its object the establishment of a republican government on the communistic principles of Babeuf (q.v.). But this form of Carbonarism did not long continue. Since 1848 Carbonarism generally has disappeared. The discontent that produced it has either been satisfied by the concession of constitutional government, or has found expression in later phases of the revolutionary movement. See Heckethorn's *Secret Societies* (1875).

Carbonated or **Acidulous Waters** are those which contain a great excess of carbonic acid gas. They may be divided into the artificial and the natural. The former are treated of under Aerated Waters (q.v.), and the latter under Mineral Waters (q.v.).

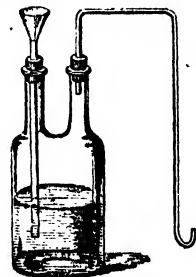
Carbondale, a town of Lackawanna county, Pennsylvania, on the Lackawanna River, 16 miles NNE. of Scranton by rail, with foundries and planing-mills, and rich beds of anthracite coal. Pop. (1880) 7714.

Carbonic Acid, CARBON DIOXIDE, or CARBON ANHYDRIDE, also called Fixed Air or Chokedamp, exists as a normal constituent of the atmosphere, of which it forms about 1/1000th part. While enormous quantities of it are poured into the atmosphere by the respiration of animals and by the combustion of fuel in our furnaces, this proportion scarcely seems to vary; for, as plants absorb carbonic acid by the leaves, and therefrom obtain the carbon necessary for the formation of wood, they remove it as fast as it is produced, and thereby keep the atmosphere in a state suitable for animal life. Carbonic acid also exists in combination as *carbonates*, the most largely distributed of which are the carbonate of lime, $CaCO_3$, either alone, or in combination with mag-

nesium as *dolomite*, the blackband ironstone (carbonate of iron, FeCO_3), malachite (basic carbonate of copper, $\text{CuH}_2\text{O}_2, \text{CuCO}_3$), &c. The term *carbonic acid* is hardly a correct one, and it is better to call the gas, CO_2 , carbon dioxide or carbonic anhydride, reserving the term carbonic acid for the solution in water. The gaseous carbonic acid is represented by the formula CO_2 , and contains 12 parts of carbon and 32 parts of oxygen by weight. It is a very dense gas, having a specific gravity of 1.529, that of air being 1.000. In consequence of this it can be poured from one vessel to another like a liquid; while in vats in which it is being disengaged by fermentation, it remains at the bottom, for some time even when freely exposed to the air, giving rise to fatal accidents when workmen carelessly enter them. Carbonic acid is a colourless gas, possessing a pleasant acidulous taste. Under a pressure of about forty atmospheres (600 lb. per square inch) it becomes condensed to a liquid. When the liquid carbonic acid is allowed to escape through a small jet, it rapidly evaporates and produces intense cold, with the result that a certain portion becomes frozen into a solid resembling snow. The solid carbonic acid volatilises without becoming liquid, and by the low resulting temperature produces strange phenomena. Thus when pressed on the skin it produces the sensation of burning, and when thrown into a hot crucible along with mercury, the latter (under suitable conditions) becomes frozen into a solid mass.

At ordinary pressures carbonic acid is soluble in about its own bulk of water, its solubility increasing with increased pressure. This property is taken advantage of in the manufacture of Aerated Waters (q.v.), the sparkling appearance of which is due to the liberation of carbonic acid. Carbonic acid is non-combustible, and it does not support combustion or animal life. A lighted taper is immediately extinguished when plunged into a vessel containing carbonic acid, and this simple experiment is used to test if workmen may safely enter a vat which has contained the gas. Although irrespirable by itself, acting as it does, like water, by causing spasm of the glottis, it can be breathed when diluted with air, and in such circumstances it acts as a narcotic poison, even so small a proportion as 4 per cent. acting rapidly. In much less quantity it causes depression and headache, but in aerated water works, where carbonic acid gas is liberated in quantity, it has never produced this effect, probably owing to the efficient ventilation. The French suicides who make use of a charcoal fire to terminate their existence, are partly poisoned by the carbonic acid, and partly by the Carbonic Oxide (q.v.) produced by the burning carbon.

Carbonic acid may be very readily prepared from chips of marble, water, and hydrochloric acid, which are placed in a glass bottle furnished with suitable tubes (see fig.). The hydrochloric acid, HCl , acts on the marble, CaCO_3 , forming chloride of calcium, CaCl_2 , and water, H_2O , while the carbonic acid gas, CO_2 , escapes with effervescence, and may be collected in suitable vessels. Carbonic acid, as indicated before, is the principal product of combustion; the carbon of the burning substance



(wood, coal, paper, coal-gas, &c.) uniting with the oxygen of the air to form carbonic acid. It is also a product of Respiration (q.v.), and is evolved more or less largely by all animals not only by the lungs, but also by the skin. During the Fermentation (q.v.)

of beer or wine it is liberated, while decaying vegetable or animal matters give off the gas in quantity. There is a popular prejudice against having plants in a bedroom during the night-time. This is based on the fact that plants give off carbonic acid in the dark, while they absorb it during the day. Plants also liberate carbonic acid during the flowering season, but the total amount from these two sources is so very small, that a single gas-burner will vitiate the air of a room more rapidly than a large collection of plants. The prejudice based on the carbonic acid theory seems therefore to be practically groundless. Carbonic acid forms two classes of salts, called *carbonates* and *bicarbonates*. The bicarbonates differ from the carbonates in containing twice as much carbonic acid gas relatively to the base. Thus carbonate of soda, Na_2CO_3 , may be regarded as consisting of soda, Na_2O , and carbonic acid, CO_2 ; while the bicarbonate, represented in the same way, would be $\text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{CO}_2$, or shortly, 2NaHCO_3 (see SODA, SODIUM). The bicarbonates very readily lose the extra molecule of carbonic acid, yielding then the ordinary carbonate. For the carbonates of potash and of iron, see POTASH, IRON.

The bicarbonate of lime is interesting as being the form in which most of the lime present in drinking water is held in solution. When the rain, impregnated with carbonic acid from the atmosphere, or charged with the gas from subterranean sources, percolates down through a chalky soil, it dissolves the chalk, or carbonate of lime, CaCO_3 , forming a bicarbonate, and thus becomes what is known as a *hard* water. Such a water may be readily *softened* by boiling, when the carbonic acid escapes, and the chalk, no longer soluble, falls to the bottom. This gives rise to the domestic phenomenon known as the furring of the kettle. A solution of slaked lime in water (the lime-water of the shops) forms a ready test for carbonic acid. Thus, if a little be placed in a wine-glass, and a steady stream of expired air from the lungs be blown into it, a turbidity will soon be noticed, due to the formation of carbonate of lime. On continuing to blow, the carbonic acid dissolves this up, and a clear solution of bicarbonate is obtained.

Other carbonates, such as those of silver, iron, copper, baryta, &c., are not of sufficient importance to warrant further notice here.

Carbonic acid in solution forms a refreshing drink in feverish states of the system, while in nausea and gastric irritation its value is very considerable. It acts also as a diuretic, and probably, when taken in moderation, as a stomach tonic. Owing to its sparkling properties it is used to conceal the taste of many drugs; and the granular effervescent preparations, such as citrate of magnesia, now so widely known, have come into use mainly on account of the ease with which nauseous drugs may be administered under the guise of an effervescent drink. In the form of gas, carbonic acid is said to be beneficial in the irritable states of the larynx, owing to its exercising a slight local anæsthetic action.

The carbonates possess mainly the medicinal properties of the bases, than which they are less irritating, the soda, potash, lime, and magnesia salts being recognised antacids. The magnesia salt, in the form of the bicarbonate, is well known as 'fluid magnesia,' which possesses both antacid and aperient properties.

Carbonic Oxide is the lower oxide of Carbon (q.v.), and is represented by the formula CO . It consists of 12 parts by weight of carbon and 16 parts of oxygen. It does not occur naturally, but may be observed burning with a pale-blue flame in fireplaces and stoves, especially in frosty weather. During the combustion of the fuel at the

lower part of the grate the oxygen of the air unites with the carbon of the fuel to form carbonic acid, CO_2 ; and this gas rising up through red-hot coal or carbon, C, has part of its oxygen abstracted by the carbon, and two molecules of carbonic oxide, CO, are produced, which taking fire on the top of the coals, burn with the characteristic blue flame, abstracting more oxygen from the air, and re-forming carbonic acid, CO_2 . Carbonic oxide can be prepared for experimental purposes by heating in a retort a mixture of oxalic acid, $\text{H}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4$, and sulphuric acid, H_2SO_4 , when the latter abstracts the water from the oxalic acid, and the other elements, C_2O_3 , escape as carbonic acid, CO_2 , and carbonic oxide, CO. On passing the mixed gases through a solution of potash, KOH, the carbonic acid is retained as carbonate of potash, K_2CO_3 , whilst the carbonic oxide remains as gas. Carbonic oxide is a transparent, colourless gas, with an oppressive odour. It is rather lighter than air, its specific gravity being only .968. In this it differs very markedly from Carbonic Acid (q.v.). For many years it resisted all attempts to liquefy it, but at last, on December 2, 1877, it yielded to the modern methods of combined cold and pressure. It burns with a blue flame, but is a non-supporter of combustion, and at once extinguishes a lighted candle introduced into it. It is very poisonous, and even when largely diluted with air, if inhaled, it produces a sensation of oppression and tightness of the head, and ultimately acts as a narcotic poison. It enters into many compounds known to the organic chemist, such as urea. It is used in Siemens's and other 'producer' gases, of which it is a principal ingredient; and is the most important reducing agent in blast-furnace processes.

Carboniferous System. The strata included under this system rest upon those belonging to the Devonian and Old Red Sandstone system, and are overlaid by the Permian. The system derives its name from the amount of coal and carbonaceous matter which it contains. It is strongly developed in the British Islands, as in Wales, the midland and northern counties of England, the central lowlands of Scotland, and over a large part of Ireland. The following are the chief divisions of the system recognised in the British area, arranged in descending order:

- | | |
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| 1. COAL-MEASURES. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Red Sandstone Series. Upper Coal-bearing Series. Middle Coal-bearing Series. Lower Coal-bearing Series. |
| 2. MILLSTONE GRIT. | |
| 3. CARBONIFEROUS OF MOUNTAIN-LIME-STONE. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Yoredale Beds. Main or Scaur Limestone. Lower Limestone, Shale (England), and Calcareous Sandstones (Scotland). |

The *Carboniferous Limestone* group is of very variable thickness, is widely distributed throughout the several districts in which the system is developed. In South Wales and the adjacent regions of England it is composed of a lower set of arenaceous and argillaceous strata, 200 to 500 feet thick, and an overlying massive gray or bluish limestone (500 feet thick) which is eminently of marine origin, being crowded with the debris of crinoids, corals, brachiopods, and other forms. Followed northward into the Pennine chain this limestone swells out to a thickness of 4000 feet, and is in that region overlaid by some 2000 feet of sandstones, shales, and limestones (Yoredale Beds). Passing into Northumberland and Scotland, the Carboniferous limestone series takes on quite a different character, the thick limestones of the more southern regions being represented by sandstones and shales, intercalated with which are seams of coal and ironstone, and only occasional beds of limestone. In Scotland the lower half of

the Carboniferous system consists of two well-defined groups—viz. the *Calcareous Sandstones*, and overlying these the *Carboniferous Limestone*. These may be taken as approximately of contemporaneous origin with the Carboniferous limestone series of England. The Calcareous sandstones comprise two groups: the lower or Red Sandstone group consisting chiefly of red, gray or white, and yellow sandstones, with subordinate beds of shale; and the upper (Cement-stone group) including a considerable thickness of white and yellow sandstones, and dark shales with beds of impure cementstones, thin limestone, coal, ironstone, bituminous shale, occasional seams of gypsum, &c. With the lower or Red Sandstone group are associated a most extensive series of volcanic rocks (chiefly porphyrites, basalt-rocks, and tuffs) which form prominent ranges of high ground that sweep round the borders of the larger basins of Carboniferous strata. The hills that extend from the head-waters of the river Irvine to the shores of the Clyde, the Campsie Hills, the hill-ranges behind Burntisland, &c. in Fife, are examples. The Cement-stone group in the basin of the Firth of Forth is remarkable for its bituminous shales, now so largely worked for the production of mineral oils. Volcanic rocks are likewise associated with this group, but not so extensively as with the older Red Sandstone group. The Scottish Carboniferous limestone consists of a variable thickness of sandstones and dark shales, with which are intercalated seams of coal, fireclay, ironstone, and a few beds of limestone—the thickest of which rarely reaches 100 feet. The whole thickness of this series does not exceed 2700 feet as a maximum. Contemporaneous volcanic rocks occur in the series only in a few places.

In Ireland the Carboniferous system is represented chiefly by strata belonging to the mountain-limestone series. In the south and central areas the Welsh and English type appears—viz. massive limestones underlain by thick shales, &c. Towards the north the Carboniferous limestone series approximates in character to that of the Lower Carboniferous of Scotland. Contemporaneous igneous rocks are associated with the limestone series in various parts of Ireland.

The *Millstone Grit* consists of a series of grits, sandstones, shales, &c., varying in England, from 300 feet up to 5000 feet in thickness. In Scotland the maximum thickness is 900 feet, and in some districts the series is hardly recognised.

The *Coal-measures* comprise a variable thickness of sandstones, and dark shales with seams of coal, fireclay, and ironstone. In South Wales this series attains a thickness of 8000 feet or thereabout; in Lancashire, 6600 feet; in the Midland districts, an average of about 3000 feet; in Northumberland and Durham, 3000 feet; in Scotland the maximum is 2100 feet. In Lancashire and Scotland the coal-bearing strata of this series are overlaid by a set of barren red sandstones.

The changes which the Carboniferous strata undergo as they are followed from England into Scotland show that the sea in which the thick mountain-limestone accumulated shallowed away towards the north; the Lower Carboniferous strata of Scotland pointing to estuarine or brackish and fresh-water conditions, interrupted now and again by longer or shorter spells when these shallow waters gave place to terrestrial conditions. The very subordinate position occupied by the thin limestones in the Scottish series sufficiently demonstrates that the low-lying tracts of Scotland were only occasionally invaded by the sea. Thus it has come to pass that many of the most important coal-seams of Scotland occur on the same geological horizon as the pure marine limestones of England and Ireland.

The Carboniferous system appears in many other parts of the world. In Europe the most notable coal-fields after those of Great Britain are the coal-fields of Liège and Mons (Belgium), and that of Saarbrück in the Rhenish Provinces. Various coal-fields also occur in France (St Etienne, &c.), in Hanover, Westphalia, Saxony, Bohemia, and Silesia. In Russia the strata belong chiefly to the lower part of the system, and are generally unproductive. A considerable coal-field, however, occurs along the northern shores of the Sea of Azov. Carboniferous rocks likewise occur in the Western Alps, but they are generally much altered, and disturbed, and barren. They are also known in the north of Spain, where they yield some coal. In China, coal-bearing strata are extensively developed, but they are worked in a very unscientific manner. Coal of Carboniferous age is worked in Japan, and in South Wales there is a considerable coal-field of the same age.

In North America the system attains a great development. The Carboniferous strata here are divided into two groups: the Lower or sub-Carboniferous (corresponding to the Carboniferous limestone of Britain) and the Carboniferous, comprising the millstone grit and the coal-measures. According to Professor Dana, the coal-bearing area of the North American continent is approximately as follows:

	Sq. Miles.
Rhode Island area.....	500
Alleghany area.....	59,000
Michigan area.....	6,700
Illinois, Indiana, West Kentucky.....	47,000
Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Arkansas, Texas.....	78,000
Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.....	18,000

It is worthy of note that Carboniferous strata have likewise been detected in the Arctic regions, as in Melville Island, the northern coast-lands of Baffin Bay, in Bear Island, and Spitzbergen.

Economic Products.—The most important of these are of course the coals, ironstones, and limestones. The individual coal-seams vary in thickness from less than an inch up to many feet or even yards; these last, however, consist generally of several seams which have come together, owing to the thinning-out of the beds that separate them elsewhere. The total thickness of workable coal naturally varies in the different coal-fields—in some of which we may have a greater thickness of strata or a larger number of seams. In South Wales—the largest coal-field in Britain—the total thickness of coal exceeds 200 feet; in Lancashire the workable coals give an aggregate of 100 feet; in Northumberland and Durham the aggregate is 47 feet; in Lanarkshire the united thickness of workable coal-seams (true coal-measures) varies from 30 to 70 feet or more, and 15 feet in the limestone series; in Midlothian there is an aggregate in the coal-measures proper of 43 feet, and in the limestone series of 68 feet. The coals vary much in character (see COAL), some being used for ordinary household purposes, others for steam, &c., others for the production of gas, mineral oil, &c. In the American coal-measures (with a maximum thickness of 3000 feet) the maximum of included coal is 120 feet. In Britain the bedded iron ores are principally clay-ironstones, and the carbonaceous variety called blackband (see IRON ORES). Hematite also occurs massively in large 'pockets' in the thick limestones (Cumberland and Northumberland). Ores of zinc, lead, and antimony are likewise met with in the limestones, as in Derbyshire, Cumberland, Yorkshire, Wales, &c. The fireclays are largely worked in many places for the manufacture of bricks, &c. The sandstones likewise are held in great repute for building purposes, some, however, being much more durable than others. The thin-bedded varieties again are largely used for flags or paving-stones.

Other kinds of sandstones are employed for mill-stones, grindstones, crushers, &c., and some of the harder kinds for road-metal. The limestones are in extensive request for mortar, cement, agricultural purposes, &c., some of the black and coloured or highly fossiliferous varieties being in considerable demand for ornamental mason-work. Amongst the shales the bituminous kinds are the most important, but from others sulphur and sulphuric acid are extracted, while some are employed in the preparation of alum and sulphate of iron. Locally certain minerals occur in sufficient quantity to be of economic importance, such, for example, as *fluor-spar*, used for ornamental purposes, and *Baryta* (q.v.), or heavy-spar.

Life of the Period.—Among the most characteristic and abundant fossils of the Carboniferous system are, as might have been expected, the plants, most of which belong to the flowerless or cryptogamic division. Ferns were especially numerous, such as *Pecopteris*, *Sphenopteris*, and *Neuropteris* (q.v.), and the arborescent forms, such as *Caulopteris* (q.v.). Besides these there were great lycopodiaceous trees such as *Lepidodendron* (q.v.), tall Equisetaceæ such as *Calanites* (q.v.), and the remarkable sigillarioid trees, as to the affinities of which there is still much doubt (see SIGILLARIA). Large coniferous trees (*Aracarioxylon*) are also met with now and again. Amongst these some botanists rank *Cordaites*, a form of not infrequent occurrence. Others, however, are of opinion that this plant had affinities with the lycopods and even with the cycads. The contemporaneous land-fauna has left but few traces. Here and there, however, specimens of true air-breathers are met with. Amongst these are amphibians, such as *Archegosaurus* (q.v.), millepedes, and insects of various kinds, such as extinct forms of May-flies, cockroaches, crickets, locusts, &c., and others which cannot with certainty be referred to any existing type, for they seem to have affinities with various widely separated modern forms. Scorpions abounded, and these ancient forms closely approximate in character to the living type. Land-snails have also been found, not differing much apparently from the living *Pupa*. The fauna of the seas and lagoons is much better represented than that of the land. The minute foraminifera swarmed in places—their shells occasionally forming beds of limestone. Corals were likewise extremely abundant, their remains crowding many of the limestones. Common forms are *Lithostrotion*, *Clisophyllum*, *Zaphrentis*, *Favosites*, &c. Other great limestone-formers were the crinoids (such as *Platycrinus*, &c.), the columns and detached plates of which are among the most abundant fossils in the limestones and calcareous shales of the system. The peculiar armless crinoids, *Pentremites*, are likewise characteristic Carboniferous fossils. Crustaceans were represented by a few *Trilobites* (q.v.), the last survivors of that great family, and by ancestral forms of our ostracods, phyllopods, and king-crabs, as well as by the extinct group of eurypterids. Polyzoa, such as *Fenestella*, are very common, as are also brachiopods; among the more frequently occurring forms being *Productus*, *Spirifer*, *Terebratula* (q.v.), &c. *Lamellibranchs* are fairly represented, especially by the *Aviculoid* group—some of the forms having apparently frequented estuaries or lagoons. *Gasteropods* and *pteropods* also occur, and are locally abundant, but they are not so common fossils as the brachiopods. *Cephalopods* are not infrequent, especially *Orthoceras* (q.v.), of which over 150 species are known from this system. Other notable forms are *Nautilus* (q.v.) and *Goniatites* (q.v.). Fishes are tolerably common. They come under the two groups of *Ganoids* and *Placoids*. The former are represented

by such forms as *Rhizodus* and *Megalichthys*; and the latter by numerous large and often finely sculptured fin-spines, and hard palatal crushing teeth. These large sharks preyed upon the smaller ganoids, whose teeth and scales are common in the *Coprolites* (q.v.), or fossil droppings of the former.

Carbon Printing. See PHOTOGRAPHY.

Carbuncle (Lat. *carbunculus*, 'a little coal'), a name given by lapidaries to the beautiful mineral of a deep red and scarlet colour, called *Pyrope* (q.v.) by mineralogists; the deeper tinge is lost when the gem is held up to the sun. The carbuncle of the ancients was probably the deep-red variety of noble garnet. The mythical carbuncle of the middle ages was said to be laid by a goldfinch, and to render its bearer invisible.

Carbuncle, so called from the two prominent symptoms—a glowing fiery redness, and a burning pain—is closely allied to Boil (q.v.), but the symptoms, both local and general, are much more severe. It consists of an inflammation, caused by some vitiated condition of the blood, or some atmospheric influence, attacking a patch of skin on the shoulders, nape of the neck, or indeed on any part of the body. The part swells slightly, feels hard, and this hardness extends deeply into the tissues; the pain is very severe, and the patient much depressed with loss of appetite, and general derangement of the secretions. As the disease advances, the redness assumes a dark purple or livid hue, the cuticle rises in blisters, and many small specks of matter appear on its surface, which discharge, and leave apertures like those in the rose of a watering-pot; through this a viscid purulent fluid escapes, and after some time the small sloughs or cores of the true skin which have been killed by the disease. In some cases the apertures meet, forming large openings, and in others the whole patch of skin sloughs and comes away.

The treatment of carbuncles consists in restoring the secreting organs to a healthy condition, the agents for which must depend on the individual case; in supporting the patient's strength by easily digested food, wine, brandy, and bark, with nitric acid; relieving pain by opiates, and encouraging suppuration with warm poultices; carrot, turnip, and yeast poultices being favourite applications in this disease. Sulphide of calcium in small doses is sometimes useful in arresting the disease.

Free incision has been strongly recommended by some surgeons; but has not been generally adopted. Quite recently (1888) early and complete removal of the sloughing tissue by cutting or scraping has been used with success. By this means it is said that the pain is arrested, the constitutional symptoms rapidly subdued, and the healing of the sore greatly hastened.

Carburet. See CARBIDES, CARBON.

Carburetted Hydrogen is a term in chemistry applied to several compounds of carbon and hydrogen. Thus, light carburetted or monocarburetted hydrogen, CH_4 , is the gaseous compound popularly known as marsh gas and fire-damp, and is the principal constituent of coal-gas (see GAS). Heavy carburetted or bi-carburetted hydrogen, C_2H_2 , is otherwise known as Olefiant Gas (q.v.).

Carcagente, a town of Spain, 25 miles SSW. of Valencia by rail, on a rich plain near the right bank of the Júcar. The plain is a vast rice-field, cut up by innumerable canals. Pop. 12,102.

Carcanet, a jewelled collar or necklace. Venice was famous for the manufacture of carcanets in the 15th century.

Carcassonne (the *Carcaso* of Cæsar), a town in the French department of Aude, on the river

Aude, and the Canal du Midi, 56 miles SE. of Toulouse by rail. It is divided by the river into two parts, the old and the new town, which are connected by two bridges dating from 1184 and 1846. The new town is well and regularly built; but the old town or *cité*, built on a height, is much more picturesque, with its ramparts and towers, some parts of them dating from the time of the Visigoths, and the rest, with the many-towered castle, from the 11th or 13th century. In 1210 this old town suffered greatly at the hands of the fierce bigot Simon de Montfort and his crusaders, who here burned 400 of the Albigeuses. In 1356 it effectually resisted the Black Prince. Of several fine churches the finest is St Nazaire. Cloth-making is the staple industry; and there are also manufactures of paper, leather, linen, and soap. Pop. (1872) 20,808; (1886) 25,951. See *La Cité de Carcassonne*, by Viollet le Duc (1858) and by Boyer (1884).

Carcharodon, an extinct genus of sharks, the large conical and sharply notched or saw-edged teeth of which are not uncommon fossils in the Tertiary deposits. Teeth of the same character were dredged in considerable numbers by the *Challenger* expedition from great depths at the bottom of the ocean. See SHARK.

Car'chemish, an ancient city on the Upper Euphrates, NE. of the modern Aleppo, was long the northern capital of the Hittites (q.v.), and was a city of great size and importance. It was identified by Mr George Smith with Jerablús or Jerabis.

Carcinoma. See CANCER.

Cardamine. See CRESS.

Cardamoms are the capsules of certain species of Zingiberaceæ (q.v.), particularly *Elettaria Cardamomum*, a flag-like perennial, abundant in the moist shady mountain forests of the Malabar coast, where they are largely cultivated on small clearings. The three-celled capsules contain numerous wrinkled seeds, which form an aromatic pungent spice, weaker than pepper, and with a peculiar but agreeable taste. On account of their cordial and stimulant properties they are employed in medicine, very generally to qualify other medicines; they are also used in confectionery, although not to a great extent in Britain; but in Asia they are a favourite condiment; and in Russia, Scandinavia, and Northern Germany they are used in almost every household to flavour pastry. Other plants belonging to the same order yield drugs employed under the same name, but all are of inferior value; thus *Anomum Cardamomum* of Siam, &c. yields Round Cardamoms, *A. xanthoides* Wild. or Bastard Cardamom, &c. See Flückiger and Hanbury's *Pharmacographia*.

Cardan (Ital. *Cardano*; Latinised *Cardanus*), JEROME, a celebrated mathematician, naturalist, physician, and philosopher, was born at Pavia, September 24, 1501, the natural son of a jurist of Milan. His education was as irregular as his birth, but he finally completed his studies at the universities of Pavia and Padua, graduating in medicine at the latter. He became professor of Mathematics at Milan, at the same time practising medicine, and though at first obscure and poor, gradually gained a high reputation. In 1552 he visited Scotland, on an invitation from Archbishop Hamilton, and managed to cure the priamite of an inveterate asthma, which had defied the skill of the most celebrated physicians. In 1559 he became professor of Medicine at Pavia, later at Bologna, where he continued teaching till 1570, when we find him in prison for heresy or debt, or both. Having regained his liberty in 1571, he

went to Rome, where he was speedily admitted a member of the medical college, and pensioned by Pope Gregory XII. The rest of his life he spent, without public employment, in Rome, where he died September 2, 1576, a few weeks after finishing his remarkably candid and interesting autobiography, *De Propria Vita*. Some writers have asserted, but on no sufficient authority, that he starved himself to death, to fulfil a prediction which he had made as to the time when he should die. He was a devoted astrologer, and cast horoscopes for himself and others, while he believed himself one of the five or six celebrated men who had, like Socrates, a familiar demon. Cardan was one of the most remarkable men of his age, and reveals throughout his works an intellect of rare subtlety and force, with a really sound conception of scientific method in spite of all the empiricism and imperfection of his knowledge. He too often spends his strength in merely futile attempts at explanations of natural phenomena for which the necessary data were not to be collected for centuries later; but he occasionally lets fall hints of scientific principles so profound, looked at in the light of after-years, that he himself cannot at all have even guessed at their significance. A summary of his notions on physics and metaphysics is given in his two works—*De Subtilitate Rerum*, in 21 books, and *De Rerum Varietate*, in 17 books. He wrote more than a hundred treatises on physics, mathematics, astronomy, astrology, rhetoric, history, ethics, dialectics, natural history, music, and medicine. A formula for the solution of certain kinds of cubic equations is called 'Cardan's formula,' and was published by him, as his own invention, in the *Ars Magna sive de Regulis Algebraicis* (1545); but it would appear that the formula was really the invention of Nicolo Tartaglia. His numerous writings were collected and edited by Charles Spon (10 vols. Lyons, 1663). See Henry Morley's *Jerome Cardan* (2 vols. 1854).

Cardboard, or **CARD**, is made by pasting together several layers of paper, according to the thickness and quality required, the outside sheets being generally white. *Bristol-board*, used by artists for pen-and-ink drawings, and many other purposes, is made in a similar manner, but of a very much finer quality of paper, and has a beautifully finished surface. According to the number of layers, they are called *three, four, six, or eight sheet boards*. See **MILLBOARD**, **STRAWBOARD**.

Cardenas, a seaport of Cuba, on the north coast, 75 miles E. of Havana, with which it is connected by rail. It has a good harbour, and exports sugar. Pop. 12,000, mostly whites.

Cardi. See **CIGOLI**.

Cardia (Gr.), the heart; also the upper orifice of the stomach, called, on account of its vicinity to the heart, by the same Greek name.—**CARDIALGIA** is the name commonly applied to the particular variety of pain called *heartburn*, arising from a disordered stomach, and accompanied by acid eructations. See **INDIGESTION**.

Cardiaceæ. See **COCKLE**.

Cardiff (*Caer-Taff*, 'fort of the Taff'), a parliamentary and municipal borough and seaport, the county town of Glamorgan, South Wales, situated on the river Taff, 56 miles SW. of Gloucester, and 170 W. of London. Its progress in recent years is the most remarkable of any town in the kingdom. The population rose from 2000 in 1801, to 10,077 in 1841; 56,911 in 1871; 85,378 in 1881, with a floating population of about 5000; and 130,500 in March 1888, the annual increase being nearly 5 per cent. Cardiff, with Cowbridge and Llantrissant,

returns one member to parliament. Among the public buildings are the infirmary, town-hall, free library and museum, county jail, law-courts, county buildings, university college, baths, a theatre, and numerous halls. There is a public park. Very few of the numerous churches belong to the Church of England. The new University College for South Wales and Monmouthshire was established in 1883.

The port of Cardiff is the outlet for the large mineral and manufactured produce of the central portion of the South Wales mineral-field, in which are the populous districts of Merthyr-Tydvil, Rhymney, Aberdare, and the Rhondda Valley, with which this port is connected by the Taff Vale, the Rhymney, the Barry, and the Ely Valley railways, and the Glamorganshire Canal. The town is also one of the chief stations on the Great Western line from London to Milford-Haven. The Bute docks, with an area of 110½ acres, constructed at the expense of the Bute estate, have cost nearly four millions sterling, and belong to the Marquis of Bute. There are about forty staitths on the quays of the docks, with machinery of a peculiar construction for the purpose of loading vessels with coal, by which the breaking of the coal is almost entirely prevented. Each of these staitths is capable of shipping 300 tons of coal per hour. There is also a tidal harbour, with seven staitths, and a low-water pier 1400 feet in length. Height of water at spring-tide, 35·9 inches; at neap-tide, 25·9. The imports to Cardiff include copper ore, live cattle, salted provisions, foreign fruit and vegetables, corn and flour, &c. The Penarth Docks, about one mile to the westward, form another outlet for the trade of the district. The Barry Dock (1888), of nearly 80 acres, adds enormously to the shipping facilities of Cardiff. Steamers ply between the port of Cardiff and New York, London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Bristol, Cork, Whitehaven, and Burnham.

The progress of Cardiff during the last ten years has been most remarkable. The trade and navigation returns for 1887 show that in the tonnage of cargo exported it now exceeds both London and Liverpool, and in this respect it is only exceeded by New York. Its coal exports in 1887 exceeded 10,000,000 tons—making it the first coal port in the world. In 1871 the total was less than 3,000,000 tons; in 1848, only 615,000 tons; in 1839, 4562 tons. The growth of Cardiff began with the opening of the canal from Merthyr-Tydvil to the sea; the bill for the construction of the first dock was obtained only in 1830, and the dock was opened in 1839. The second or East dock dates from 1854. The corporation has recently spent over £300,000 in widening and improving the streets. The corporation possesses the water-works, and in 1888 completed a new supply from the Brecknockshire Beacons, involving an outlay of nearly £600,000. The enterprise of its citizens is very marked—enormous sums are sunk in its colliery and shipping enterprises; one of its railways for years paid from 15 to 18 per cent., and another 10 to 12—and altogether it has for the last twenty years experienced an almost unparalleled prosperity. There are three daily papers.

The ancient city of Llandaff (q.v.), now a mere village, is almost connected with Cardiff. Cardiff Castle, built in the 11th century, is partly now in ruins, and partly occupied by the Marquis of Bute, who has spent large sums in rebuilding the castle, and to whom nearly the whole of the modern town belongs. Robert, Duke of Normandy, brother of Henry I., died in the castle, after twenty-eight years' captivity. Cromwell (1648) got possession of the castle through treachery, after bombarding it three days; and he afterwards hanged the traitor, as an example to his own soldiery. The town was an

important one, under British, Romans, and Normans in succession.

Cardigan (anciently *Aberteifi*, 'mouth of the Teifi'), the county town of Cardiganshire, a municipal borough and seaport on the right bank of the Teifi, 3 miles from its mouth, and 117 miles NW. of Cardiff by rail. Pop. (1851) 3876; (1881) 3669. With Aberystwith, Lampeter, and Adpar, Cardigan till 1885 returned one member to parliament. Remains of a castle crown a low cliff on the Teifi, which is supposed to have been founded in 1160 by a Norman baron. The town suffered much in the struggles between the Welsh and the Normans. The Teifi is said to have been the last British resort of the heaver.

Cardigan, JAMES THOMAS BRUDENELL, seventh EARL OF, born in 1797, sat in the House of Commons from 1818 to 1837, when he succeeded his father. He entered the army in 1824, and rapidly bought himself into the command of the 15th Hussars, which he resigned in 1833, on the acquittal of an officer whom he had illegally put under arrest. From 1836 to 1847 he commanded the 11th Hussars, on which he spent £10,000 a year, and which he made the smartest cavalry regiment in the service. He never was in any degree popular with his officers, and his treatment of them brought about a duel with Captain Harvey Tuckett, for which in 1841 Cardigan was tried before the House of Lords, but escaped through a legal quibble. He commanded a cavalry brigade under Lord Lucan in the Crimea, and led the famous charge of the Six Hundred at Balaklava. He was inspector-general of cavalry 1855-60, and died 28th March 1868.

Cardigan Bay is a semicircular bend of St George's Channel, on the west coast of Wales, 54 miles wide from north to south, and 35 miles deep, with a sweep of coast of 130 miles. It has 3 to 30 fathoms water, with three reefs. A strong current sweeps round the bay from south to north. Almost all the harbours on the coast are obstructed by bars.

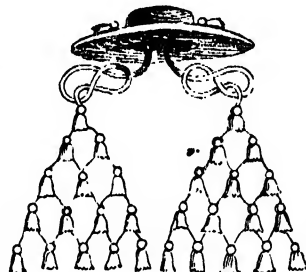
Cardiganshire, a maritime county in South Wales, on Cardigan Bay, with a crescent-shaped coast-line of 48 miles, a maximum width of 32 miles, and an area of 693 sq. m. The surface is hilly, interspersed with fertile valleys. On the Montgomeryshire border is Plinlimmon (2469 feet); and a rugged, bleak range of hills runs through the middle of the county from the south-west to the north-east, between the coast and the Teifi, ending abruptly in a shelving bench in the middle of the coast; but on other parts there are rich flat tracts. The county does not contain much wood. The chief rivers are the Teifi, which rises in a small lake near the centre of the county, and runs 70 miles south-east and east along the southern border, the Aeron, Cluerwen, Ystwith, and Rheidol. The 'sweet shire of Cardigan' contains some romantic waterfalls, especially the Rheidol Falls and the Devil's Bridge, and above twenty small lakes or llyns, noted for their wild beauty. It reposes on Lower Silurian slates and shales, containing few or no organic remains. Rich veins of copper, lead, zinc, and silver occur. Cardiganshire is an agricultural county, as much as 62 per cent. of its total area being cultivated; and the rearing of livestock is a leading industry. There are some manufactures of coarse woollens and gloves, stockings and hats. Cardigan is the county town; the other chief towns being Aberystwith, Lampeter, Adpar, Aberayron, Tregaron. Cardiganshire sends one member to parliament. Pop. (1801) 42,956; (1841) 68,766; (1861) 72,245; (1881) 70,270. The county has many remains of British and Roman camps and roads, stone circles, cairns, and castles.

Many Welsh princes and bards were buried in the abbey of Strata Florida, 16 miles SE. of Aberystwith, and some of the records of the principality were kept here. The women still wear the Welsh costume; and besides a survival of 'bride-capture,' there is a curious custom of sending 'biddings' or presents to a newly-married couple, which, when sold, often realise £50. In 1843-44 Cardiganshire was disturbed by the Rebecca riots. See Meyrick's *History of Cardiganshire* (1810).

Cardinal. The word was first used of any cleric regularly settled (*incardinatus*, 'inlined') in any church, then from the 8th century of the clergy in the cathedral, the bishop being regarded as the *cardo* or 'hinge' of the diocese. Next, the forged decretals (see CANON LAW) speak of the pope as the *cardo* or 'hinge' of the whole church, and Leo IX. claims a high and singular position for the clergy of the Roman Church; but not till the time of Pius V. was the title formally restricted to its modern use, according to which it signifies the counsellors of the pope who, next to him, hold the highest dignity in the church over which he rules.

The present college of cardinals has arisen (1) from the deacons who from early times assisted the Bishop of Rome, and who were originally seven in number; (2) from the presbyters who remained in the chief church, or administered *tituli*—i.e. subordinate churches erected as need arose in the city; (3) from bishops who resided in the Roman diocese and helped the bishop proper. The *Liber Pontificalis* makes mention of such assistant-bishops in Stephen IV.'s pontificate (768-72). After many fluctuations, the number of cardinal bishops was fixed, by Sixtus V. at six, of cardinal priests at fifty, of cardinal deacons at fourteen, making seventy cardinals in all.

According to the present law the appointment (*creatio*) of cardinals rests with the pope, who generally consults the existing cardinals, and often receives proposals from secular governments. Their seniority dates from the pope's nomination, even if that nomination be made *in petto*—i.e. even if the pope merely states that he has determined to create a new cardinal without mentioning who he is, provided always that the pope lives to proclaim the cardinal by name. The same qualifications of age, learning, character, &c., are required in the case of a cardinal and of a bishop. The cardinals in Conclave (q.v.) elect the new pope, have constant access to him, and form his chief council. They have a vote at general councils, and since the 13th century, precedence over all other members. They have quasi-episcopal jurisdiction within the churches from which they take their titles. They have had since Urban VIII. the title of 'Eminence.' The body of cardinals is called the Sacred College. Their insignia are the red cardinal's hat which is given them by the pope, and not worn, but suspended in the church of their title, and finally buried with them; the red *biretta*, the sapphire ring, the mitre of white silk, the purple cassock, &c. Cardinals, however, who belong to a religious order, retain the colour proper to it in their cassocks. If a cardinal holds an episcopal see, he must reside there; otherwise he must not leave Rome without permission. At the head of the college of cardinals



Cardinal's Hat.

stands the dean, who is usually Bishop of Ostia and senior of the cardinal bishops. It is he who consecrates the newly-elected pope, if not already a bishop. We must add that the chief affairs of the Roman Catholic Church are in the hands of the cardinals not as such, but as the chief members of the Roman (administrative) congregation. But the cardinals possess no constitutional rights under the absolute government of the papacy. They cannot even meet together without the pope's leave. From Pole's death (1558) there was no English cardinal till Wiseman's time (1850); in the United States the first cardinal was McCloskey (1875):

Cardinal Bird, or RED BIRD (*Cardinalis virginianus*), also called Cardinal Finch, Cardinal



Cardinal Finch
(*Cardinalis virginianus*).

Grosbeak, and Virginian Nightingale, one of the finest song-birds of America, belongs to the family of finches or Fringillidae, and differs from the true grosbeaks (Coccothraustes) in having the beak slightly bulging. The general colour of the male is red, the head being vermillion, and only a small portion of the plumage around the base of the bill and on the upper throat being black. The

feathers of the crown are long, and erected into a conical crest, like a red cap. The female is fallow brown above, and yellowish brown below. The cardinal abounds in Texas, Florida, and the southern states of America generally, migrating northwards in spring, but never farther than Massachusetts, where only a few stragglers are seen. Its loud, clear, sweet, and varied song is to be heard chiefly in the mornings and evenings. In size it exceeds any of the British Fringillidae, being about equal to the starling.

Cardinal Flower. See LOBELIA.

Cardinal Points. See COMPASS (MARINERS').

Cardinal Virtues (Lat. *cardinalis*, 'chief,' from *cardo*, 'a hinge'). The cardinal virtues of the ancients were Justice, Prudence, Temperance, Fortitude; and were so called because the whole of human virtue was supposed to hinge or turn upon them. This mode of dividing the virtues is to be found as far back as Socrates, and these were regarded by the Catholic Church as the *moral*, in distinction from the *theological* virtues (Faith, Hope, Charity). But this classification into cardinal virtues is manifestly somewhat arbitrary; Whewell pointed out, for example, that it wholly omits the fundamental virtue of Benevolence. See ETHICS, VIRTUE.

Carding is the process of disentangling and arranging in parallel rows the fibres of cotton or the like in order to spinning. See SPINNING.

Cardinia, a genus of fossil Lamellibranchs (q.v.).

Carditis, or inflammation of the heart, a form of disease of very rare occurrence, if the term be limited in its application to cases of true acute inflammation of the muscular structure of the heart

alone (myocarditis). Carditis, however, was commonly understood in a wider sense, so as to include certain forms of disease of the external and internal lining membrane of the heart; and it is only since the beginning of the present century that, owing to the improvements in medical pathology and diagnosis, the names of Pericarditis and Endocarditis (q.v.) have come prominently into view as indicating the most ordinary inflammatory affections of the heart. See HEART (DISEASES OF THE).

Cardona, a town of Spain, 44 miles NW. of Barcelona, on the Cardoner, with a strongly fortified castle. Close by is a celebrated mountain of salt, which has a height of about 265 feet, and measures a league round; its caves are frequently visited by parties with torches to witness its singular and beautiful reflection of the light. Pop. 4360.

Cardoon (*Cynara Cardunculus*), a perennial composite of the same genus with the Artichoke (q.v.), a native of the south of Europe and the north of Africa. It much resembles the artichoke, but is of larger size, whilst the flower-heads are smaller. It has long been in cultivation, particularly on the Continent, for the sake of the blanched leaf-stalks and midribs, which are used as a salad, or more generally as a boiled vegetable during winter.

Cardross, a village of south Dumbartonshire, on the Firth of Clyde, 3½ miles WNW. of Dumbarton by rail. King Robert Bruce died at Cardross Castle (1329), which stood between the village and Dumbarton. The suspension of the Free Church minister in 1858 led to a famous law-suit in the Court of Session.

Cards. The positive history of playing-cards commences about five hundred years back. Many theories and assertions have been hazarded as to the earlier history and origin of cards; but with regard to all of them the verdict of 'not proven' must be returned. The three chief opinions which have been held as to the origin of cards are: (1) That they had their birth in the East, and were thence transported to Europe. (2) That though there is evidence pointing to the use of playing-cards in India and China at a remote period, the appearance of cards in Europe is due to an original invention and not to importation. (3) That there is no satisfactory evidence to show that the origin of cards was other than European.

The first opinion can claim only the respect due to antiquity. It is asserted that the Arabs, Saracens, or Moors introduced cards into Europe by way of Spain. Covelluzzo (end of 15th century) states that cards were first known in Viterbo in 1379, whence they came from the country of the Saracens; but he merely chronicles an opinion prevalent in Viterbo a century later than the time of which he speaks. Bussi, the historian, who quotes Covelluzzo, states that he was rather a credulous person. Further, cards being originally called *naibi* in Europe, and the Hebrew and Arabic words, *nabi*, *naba*, *nabaa*, conveying the idea of prophecy, it is said that the name is derived from the Arabic, and that cards were first used for the purpose of divination. But no Arabic manuscript gives the meaning of playing-cards to the word *naib*. Dr Willshire (*Catalogue of Playing Cards in the British Museum*, 1877) says that 'the theories in support of the connection of cards with early eastern occult philosophy and thaumaturgy are of too recondite and shadowy a character to admit of satisfactory argument.'

The Indian theory is based on a supposed resemblance between chess and cards, chess being probably of Hindu origin; and on the similarities between certain Indian and European cards and games. But the differences between chess and cards are much more notable than their resemblances.

Modern critics are of opinion that India has imitated the games of Europe, for the peculiarities which link eastern and western card games existed in the latter at least as early as 1488; and Europe had no continuous intercourse with India prior to 1494. Taylor's theory that cards made their way into Europe by means of the Gypsies is dismissed by Dr Willshire with the remark that 'whether the Zingari be of Egyptian or Indian origin, they did not appear in Europe before 1417, when cards had been known for some time.' See, however, the article GYPSIES.

If cards really had an early and separate origin in China, so had gunpowder, printing, and engraving. At all events the latest authorities reject the notion that cards were imported from China into Europe.

Hence it may be safely said that it is very doubtful whether the origin of playing-cards should be looked for in the East. Assuming, as most probable, that cards appeared independently in Europe about 1350, it has to be decided in what part of Europe they were first known. The majority of those who maintain the European origin of cards assign them to Italy. Dr Willshire gives a 'decided inclination' to Italy and to 'Venice, as that particular district which so modified them by changes connected with the emblematic series, and the addition to it of a numeral sequence, as to acquire a right of parentage in respect of modern playing-cards, not readily to be set aside.' Dismissing various dates as not being trustworthy, the earliest known mention of European cards occurs in the registers of the *Chambres des Comptes* of Charles VI. of France. In this record, commencing February 1392, is the item, '*Donné à Jacquemin Gringonneur peintre pour trois jeux de cartes à or et diverses couleurs, ornés de plusieurs devises, pour porter devers le Seigneur Roi pour son ebatement LVI. sols Parisis.*' This date (1392) has never been contested. It will be observed that the payment is made for painting, not for inventing cards; hence it is concluded that cards were already known.

Prior to the invention of playing-cards, there existed a series of emblematic pictures, which it is supposed were used for the purposes of divination and sortilege. And it is conjectured that about the middle of the 14th century some inventive genius added a series of numeral cards to the emblematic ones, and so converted them into implements of play. The designs on these combined packs, or *tarots* (so called probably because they were *taroté* on the back—i.e. marked with plain or dotted lines crossing diagonally), were in the one series emblematic of conditions of life and of human vicissitudes (numbered also with Roman numerals in a margin above the design), and were, in the other series, similar to those now in use. The Venetian pack in the beginning of the 15th century consisted of seventy-eight cards, twenty-two emblematic, and fifty-six numerals, divided into four suits of fourteen cards each—viz. four *coat* (or court) cards, king, queen, chevalier, and valet, and ten *point* (or pip) cards numbered from one to ten. The name *atutti* (*atouts*, or trumps) was given to the emblematic cards, because they were superior to the others. The game played with these cards was called *tarocchi*.

Soon after the first quarter of the 15th century cards spread rapidly all over Europe. As cards travelled, the pack underwent a variety of modifications, and the emblematic series gradually dropped out of use, though games with *tarot* cards are still played in some parts of southern Europe. No Spanish *tarots* are known to exist. In the first instance, a pack of fifty-two numerals appears to have been used in Spain, the queens being sup-

pressed. The French similarly removed a card from each suit, but they retained the queen and abolished the chevalier. The early German numeral cards were the same as the French; but afterwards the queen was displaced, and a superior knave (Obermann) was introduced instead. England appears to have been content to adopt foreign cards as she found them, either Spanish or French, about the middle of the 15th century.

The suits of numeral cards have always been four, but the signs or marks of the suits have differed among various nations. The earliest signs were cups, money, clubs (batons), and swords. These marks are still retained in *tarot* cards and in Italian and Spanish numerals. The Germans early employed hearts, bells, leaves, and glands (acorns). During the second quarter of the 15th century, the French adopted the signs of spades (*pique*), hearts, clubs (*trèfle*), and diamonds.

The origin of the marks of the suits and their meaning has been the subject of much speculation. It is said that they were originally emblematic, cups representing Faith; money, Charity; swords, Justice; and clubs, Fortitude. A good deal of ingenuity has been expended in explaining the meaning of modern signs; but, on the whole, it seems probable they were merely chosen as being well known and easily recognised. The symbol called in England spade, is evidently the German *grün* (leaf of the wild plum), with the Italian name (*spade*) of the corresponding suit (swords). Why the French, from whom we received it, called it *pique* is not known. The English club closely resembles the German acorn (*cichet*). The French formed it like a trefoil and called it *trèfle*; when we borrowed it, we gave the suit an Anglicised Italian name, clubs (*bastoni*). The German heart survives in French and English cards, and requires no explanation. It corresponds to the Italian and Spanish suit of cups. How money (Italian and Spanish) or bells (German) became transmitted into the French *carreau* and the English diamonds is not known. The circular symbol has become a square one, possibly from a mere love of change.

Beyond occasional alterations in the devices on the cards, the fifty-two card pack has remained much the same as it now is ever since the middle of the 15th century. But numerous improvements have taken place in the manufacture of cards, which comprises many interesting processes. Of these a brief notice is appended.

The cardboard employed is generally formed of several sheets of paper pasted together. Usually the sheet which is to form the front surface is first printed with the court cards and pips; in former days stencil-plates were used for printing the fronts. The printed sheets are then interleaved with plain ones, and the requisite number are joined together with strong paste, to form boards. The boards are then subjected to high pressure in a hydraulic press, and are afterwards dried, flattened, and rolled, preparatory to receiving a coat of colour on the back. The colour is usually formed of tinted enamel. After enamelling, the boards are once more rolled under high pressure to prepare them for the printing on the back.

The ornamentation of the backs of playing-cards requires great skill, especially in the case of the more elaborate designs, which take seven, eight, or even more printings, each of which has to be accurately registered. Numerous designs by the late Owen Jones have thus been reproduced on the backs of cards by Messrs De La Rue & Co., the well-known London manufacturers. Generally, however, the cards used in clubs have their backs plain white or red. After printing, the boards must be once more pressed and polished. They are then cut up into separate cards. Each

card is then subjected to a very careful examination, all defective or marked cards being rejected. Those which pass the ordeal are formed into packs, and the packs have finally to be made ready for sale, and sealed with a stamped wrapper. The packs are variously named, according to their degree of excellence; the best are called Moguls; the second quality, Harrys; the inferior ones, Highlanders, Andrews, and Harlequins. Recently very elaborate machinery has been introduced for rounding off the corners.

It has also become the fashion to place small index pips at the corners of the cards, to indicate their value without feathering them out to any great extent. The indicator system was invented by the late Dr Normandy, and was first brought out in 1860. Another improvement was that of double-headed court cards, which enables players to read the kings, queens, and knaves, whichever way they may happen to be held up. Though a great number of the technical terms used by the workpeople engaged in the manufacture of cards are of French origin, it is not in evidence that the home manufacture can be traced back to the French.

In Russia the manufacture of playing-cards is a government monopoly, and is carried on at the imperial factory in St Petersburg, where an enormous number of packs are produced. In England the manufacture has attained considerable magnitude, and the consumption is on the increase. In 1861, the last year of the shilling duty, 290,660 packs were sealed. In 1862, mostly at a shilling, but a small part at threepence, about 160,000 more packs were sealed. In 1863, the duty being threepence, 732,960 packs were sealed. After 1867 the number rose to 737,120, then to 813,920; and in 1873 it exceeded a million. In 1878 duty was paid on 1,115,200 packs of home manufacture, to which must be added large numbers exported which pay no duty; in 1887, on 1,254,000. In the United States the manufacture has attained enormous proportions; the average number made annually is calculated at from 14,000,000 to 15,000,000 packs.

A duty was first imposed on playing-cards in England in 1615. The amount was five shillings per gross of packs. In the reign of Charles I. this duty was complained of by the Commons as being arbitrary and illegal, and levied without the consent of parliament. In the reign of Queen Anne (1710) an act was passed to obtain a fund 'for carrying on the war and other her Majesty's occasions,' in which it was enacted that cards should pay a duty of sixpence a pack for a term of thirty-two years. Frauds having been discovered, it was made felony, punishable with death, in a subsequent amended act, to counterfeit or forge the seals, stamps, or marks which denoted the payment of the duties. In 1719 (George I.) further provisions for preventing fraud were passed, and the term of thirty-two years was extended indefinitely. In 1756 (George II.) an additional tax of sixpence a pack was imposed, and further measures were framed to prevent fraudulent evasions. Eleven years later the duty was raised to one and sixpence a pack. In 1789, and again in 1801, the duty was further increased, by sixpenny steps, to half a crown a pack. In 1828 the half-crown duty was reduced to a shilling. In 1862 the duty was reduced to threepence in hopes of suppressing the enormous evasion of the duty which notoriously prevailed (Report of Commissioners of Inland Revenue, 1863), and for other reasons. The duty was also levied on the seal or wrapper, instead of on the ace of spades, and second-hand cards could no longer be sold free of duty, but had to be inclosed in a fresh wrapper and to pay a second duty. It is believed that now there is no evasion; and the amount realised under

the threepenny tax greatly exceeds that which was formerly collected under the shilling tax.

See W. A. Chatto, *Facts and Speculations on the Origin and History of Playing Cards* (1848); E. S. Taylor, *History of Playing Cards* (1865); and W. H. Willshire, *Descriptive Catalogues of Cards in the British Museum* (1877); besides separate articles on WHIST, ECARTE, EUCHE, &c.

Carducci, GIOSUÈ, who is generally regarded by his countrymen as the foremost of contemporary Italian poets, was born in 1836 at Val di Castello, near Pietrasanta, in the province of Pisa. He was the son of a physician, and his youth was spent in study. At the age of twenty-five he was appointed to a professorship in the university of Pisa, from which he was transferred in 1860 to a chair in the university of Bologna. He has been throughout his life a staunch Republican, and in 1867 was for a short while suspended from his professorship for having signed an address to Mazzini. In 1876 he was returned to the Italian parliament as member for Lugo di Romagna. His earliest poems, *Juvenilia* and *Levia Gravia*, were written in imitation of Manzoni and Alfieri. Cold and artificial, they contrast strongly with their author's later works. Signs of a transition in sentiment and in style appeared in the *Decennalia*, which dealt mainly with political events of the years 1860-70. The change became complete in the *Nuove Poesie*, in which Carducci, taking Hugo instead of Manzoni for his master, gave fiery expression to the most advanced political views. These poems are remarkable for the sustained power and dignity of the language and the frequent nobility of the thought. The *Odi Barbare*, written in metres borrowed from Horace, have excited the ardent admiration of Italians; to foreign critics, however, Carducci seems in these pieces to have erred in the rejection of rhyme. Carducci has been claimed as a leader by the *veristi*, the members of the Italian 'naturalist' school, on the strength, it would seem, of his revolutionary opinions and antagonism to the followers of Manzoni. But the productions of Zola's Italian disciples have nothing in common with Carducci's works, in which ideal aspirations and a genuine love of beauty find expression in language impregnated with classical culture.

Cardwell, EDWARD, VISCOUNT, born in Liverpool, 24th July 1813, obtained a double first-class at Oxford, where he became professor of Ancient History. He entered parliament in 1842, from a Peelite gradually became a Liberal, held portfolios in four cabinets, and was raised to the peerage in 1874. For reforms introduced by him as Secretary for War, see article ARMY. Cardwell was one of Peel's literary executors, and edited his *Memoirs* (1856-57). He died 15th February 1886.

Care or **Carle Sunday**, the Sunday before Palm Sunday, said to be so called because it was the practice in many parts of the country to eat gray peas, called carlings, fried in butter, pepper, and salt, on this day. This practice apparently had its more immediate origin in the custom of the Roman Catholic Church of eating hallowed beans fried at this time—these beans being described in some religious books as symbolical of confession; and their steeping before use, of meditation. It appears, however, to have been adopted by the church from a heathen custom.

Careening is the operation of heaving down a ship on one side, in order to expose the other side for cleaning. In sea-phrase, a vessel is said to 'careen' when she leans over very much through press of sail.

Carella. See KARELIA.

Carême. See QUADRAGESIMA.

Carème, MARIA ANTONIN, *chef de cuisine* and author, born in 1784 in Paris, where he died in 1833, wrote *Les Déjeuners de l'Empereur Napoléon*, *La Cuisine Française*, and other works connected with his craft. As Talleyrand's cook, he played an important part at the Congress of Vienna.

Caret (Lat., 'it is wanting'), a character of this form, A, denoting that something has been omitted and is interlined.

Carew, THOMAS, poet, descended from an old family in Gloucestershire, was born about 1589, and after quitting Corpus Christi College, Oxford, without a degree, studied for a while in the Middle Temple. Between 1613 and 1619 he visited Italy, Holland, France; afterwards he rose into high favour with Charles I. Carew deserves mention chiefly as the precursor and representative of what may be called the courtier and conventional school of poetry, whose chief characteristic was scholarly ease and elegance, with a spice of indelicacy and even indecency. His poems, mostly lyrical, and treating of trifling subjects, are among the best of their kind, and exhibit much fancy and tenderness. He seems to have died in 1639. The best edition of his poems, which first appeared in 1640, is by W. C. Hazlitt (1870).

Carex, a very large and widely distributed genus of Cyperaceæ (q.v.), commonly known as Sedges, including about 1000 species, which are distributed chiefly throughout temperate and arctic climates, nearly 60 being natives of Britain. There are nearly 200 species found in the United States, east of the Mississippi. Though some grow in dry situations, the majority inhabit wet and swampy soils, of which they often form almost the sole vegetation. They are of no value as fodder, and in general occur only in very inferior pastures, from which drainage generally causes them to disappear. They are sometimes of use in converting swamps into dry ground; and their creeping rhizomes are often of service in binding the sands of the sea-shore, *C. arenaria* being carefully planted along the shores and dikes of Holland. The rhizomes of this and other species are sometimes used medicinally under the name of German Sarsaparilla, but are little esteemed. The leaves of other species are used for packing, and those of *C. brizoides* are a source of the 'seagrass' of upholsterers, which is used as a cheap substitute for horse-hair. Some of the larger growing species are sufficiently conspicuous and graceful to be worth employment in appropriate situations by landscape-gardeners, and a variegated variety of *C. japonica* is cultivated by the florist.

Carey, HENRY, poet and musician, is believed to have been an illegitimate son of George Savile, Marquis of Halifax. The date of his birth is unknown, but his first volume of poems, published in 1713, was produced when he was very young. He wrote innumerable songs, witty poems, burlesques, occasional pieces, farces, and dramatic pieces, sometimes composing the accompanying music. He published over 200 works in all. His best-known poem is 'Sally in our Alley'; there seems no sufficient ground for attributing 'God save the King' to him, as is often done. He died suddenly, by his own hand apparently, in 1743.

Carey, HENRY CHARLES, political economist, was the son of Mathew Carey (1760-1839), a journalist and publisher, who in 1784 had emigrated from Ireland to Philadelphia, where Henry was born, 15th December 1793. He early became a partner in his father's bookselling business; and when in 1835 he retired from business to devote himself to his favourite study, he was at the head of the largest publishing concern in the United

States. He died 13th October 1879. His *Principles of Political Economy* (3 vols. 1837-40) had a marked influence on economic speculation. In 1838 he published *The Credit System of France, Great Britain, and the United States*; and in 1848, *The Past, the Present, and the Future*, a work marked by great vigour and originality. In 1853 appeared the *Letters on International Copyright*; in 1858-59, *Principles of Social Science* (3 vols.); in 1867, *Review of the Decade 1857-67*; and in 1872, *The Unity of Law*. The most important of these have been translated into most European languages. Carey was originally a zealous free-trader, but was ere long recognised as the head of a new school of political economy. According to his system, free trade was impossible in the existing state of American industry; it might be the ideal towards which the country should tend, but a period of protection was an indispensable stage in the progress toward it.

Carey, SIR ROBERT, youngest son of Lord Hunsdon, was born about 1560, and rose to eminence in the service of Queen Elizabeth, for the last ten years of whose reign he was English warden on the Border marches. He was present at her death-bed (1603), and in two and a half days galloped with the news to Edinburgh. Charles I., at his coronation, created him Earl of Monmouth, a title that became extinct on his death without issue, 12th April 1639. His *Memoirs*, the best edition of which is Scott's (Edin. 1808), are interesting from their notices of events connected with Border history.

Carey, WILLIAM, D.D., Baptist missionary and orientalist, was born at Paulerspury, near Towcester, Northamptonshire, 17th August 1761. Apprenticed at fourteen to a shoemaker, he joined the Baptists in 1783, and three years later became a minister, first at Moulton in Lincolnshire, and then at Leicester. A pamphlet which he published about this time attracted the attention of his co-workers in the ministry to the subject of Foreign Missions, and ultimately a missionary society, chiefly through Carey's exertions, was formed. Carey and a Mr Thomas were chosen its first missionaries to India in 1793. From that time until his death on 9th June 1834, Carey was indefatigable (under many difficulties, especially during the early years) in his efforts to spread the knowledge of the gospel among the heathen. Under his direction, the Serampore mission, of which he was the principal founder, had up to 1832 issued above 200,000 Bibles, or portions thereof, in about forty Oriental languages or dialects, besides a great number of tracts and other religious works in various languages. A great proportion of the actual literary labour involved in these undertakings was performed by Carey himself, who published valuable grammars and dictionaries of Bengali, Malhatta, Sanskrit, and other languages. From 1801 to 1830 he was Oriental professor at Fort-William College, Calcutta. See his *Life* by Culross (1881) and Dr G. Smith (1884).

Cargill, DONALD, one of the heroes of the Covenant, was born about 1619 at Rattray in Perthshire. He studied at Aberdeen and St Andrews, and in 1655 was ordained minister of the Barony parish in Glasgow. Deprived of his benefice for denouncing the Restoration, he became an indefatigable field preacher, fought at Bothwell Bridge, and took part with Richard Cameron in the famous Sanquhar declaration (1680). Alone, in the same year, he solemnly excommunicated the king, the Duke of York, and others at Torwood, Stirlingshire. A large reward was now offered for his capture. He was soon seized, and suffered with triumphant courage at the cross of Edinburgh, July 17, 1681.

Caria, in ancient geography, the south-western-most country of Asia Minor, bounded N. by Lydia, E. by Phrygia, SE. by Lycia, and W. and SW. by the Mediterranean. A large portion of what was Caria is mountainous, with forests of oak and pine, where large herds were anciently pastured. The most important river was the Meander, famous for its windings. Among the chief towns were Cnidus, Halicarnassus, and Miletus. The early inhabitants, who seem to have been a people of Indo-European stock, akin to the Lydians, were a warlike race, and formidable as pirates, but gradually sank into a dependent state; their princes became satraps of the Persian empire. Very early there were extensive Greek colonies, Dorian and Ionian, on the coast; and the country subsequently passed into the hands of Alexander's successors and of the Romans. It was taken by the Osmanlis in 1336, and now belongs to the province of Aidin.

Carliacou, or CARJACOU, also called Virginian Deer (*Cervus virginianus*), a species of deer found in all parts of North America, from Mexico to about 43° N. lat., and from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. It is the species commonly called Deer by the Anglo-Americans. It is smaller and more elegant than the common stag, and measures 3 feet in height at the shoulder. The colour is very variable—light reddish brown in spring, slaty blue in autumn, and dull brown in winter; the belly, throat, chin, and inner parts of the limbs white. The horns of the adult male are of moderate size, bent strongly backward, and then suddenly forward, so as to bring their tips nearly above the nose; they have several snags. The fawn is profusely decked with white spots, arranged in lines, and sometimes running into stripes. The Virginian deer is timid, and domesticated with some difficulty. It is a common form in European zoological gardens, and also in parks. Its palatable flesh used to be one of the chief sources of food-supply to the Indians. The name Carliacou is extended generally to several nearly allied species, found in Mexico, California, &c., and the title Cariaeus is sometimes used technically for a sub-generic division of Cervus.

Carlama (*Dicholophus cristatus*), a South American bird, regarded by some as allied to Cranes, and referred to the order Grallæ, by others as a game bird, and placed among the Gallinaceæ, but most probably ranked along with the Secretary among the Birds of Prey. The beak is hooked at the point, the forehead bears a tuft of feathers, the wings are short and little used, the tail is long and rounded, and the short claws are much bent and sharply pointed. It is larger than the common heron, predominantly brown and gray in colour, shy in habit and swift of foot, living on insects, amphibia, reptiles, and also small birds and mammals. The bird frequents the grassy regions of Guiana, Brazil, and Paraguay. Its flesh is much esteemed.

Caribbean Sea, lying between the Antilles and the South and Central American mainland, and communicating with the Gulf of Mexico by the Yucatan Channel, 120 miles wide. During the rainy season (July to October) hurricanes are not infrequent. A shallow bank extending from Honduras to Jamaica separates the two great depressions of the sea, of which the eastern and larger has a depth of 20,577, and the western 20,541 feet; and these are united by the strait (over 3300 feet) between Jamaica and Cuba and Hayti. The sea forms the turning-point of the Gulf Stream (q.v.).

Caribbee Bark, or PITON BARK, is the bark of *Ecostemma caribbeum* and other species, small West Indian trees of the order Cinchonaceæ, growing also in southern Florida. It was formerly

imported as a variety or substitute for cinchona bark, but contains none of its characteristic alkaloids.

Caribou is the American Reindeer (q.v.).

Caribs, an American Indian race, found by Columbus in possession of a large number of the West India Islands, from which they have since been either exterminated or expelled, but who still form a considerable family along the shores of the Caribbean Sea, from the Isthmus of Darien nearly to the mouth of the Amazon. The pure Caribs, mostly found about the Orinoco and in the forests of Guiana, have preserved the traditional warlike, savage, but intelligent features of the race. The native name is *Carina*, *Callinago*, or *Calina*, from which the term cannibal was derived; and most accounts describe the South American Caribs as still man-eaters. A mixed Carib tribe is found in Guatemala, and a few half-breeds also survive along the Mosquito coast, whither their ancestors were deported by the English from St Vincent in 1738. There is a reservation of land for the Caribs in the island of Dominica. See Ober's *Camps in the Caribbees* (1880); Paton's *Down the Islands, a Voyage to the Caribbees* (1888).

Carica. See PAPAWE.

Caricature is a branch of satire, and the word is equally used to express either a pictorial or a descriptive representation, in which, while a general likeness is retained, peculiarities are exaggerated so as to make the person or thing ridiculous. Although sometimes applied to literary descriptions, the word caricature, when used alone, is generally understood to relate to design. Caricature being a natural expression of natural feelings, must be as old as man himself, and possibly the eccentric markings found on rocks and in caves are not entirely due to bad drawing, but were intended in certain cases to ridicule the artist's enemies. Examples of caricature have been found in the art of the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Romans. Fortunately some Egyptian examples have been preserved, showing that the most ancient masters of the art did not spare even the sacred person of the king. One papyrus (the Satirical Papyrus of Turin), published as the last plate in Lepsius' *Auswahl*, contains rough sketches caricaturing the concerts depicted on the walls of the palace, also the battles, and particularly a scene on the walls of Ramses' pavilion, where the king is depicted playing chess with a girl of the harem. The king is drawn as a lion, the girl as a gazelle, and the whole has an undeniable humour in it that defies the touch of time. The popular pictures of the 'Dance of Death' in the middle ages may be looked upon in the light of caricatures. Although so considerable an antiquity may be claimed for the art, the name itself is quite modern, and being introduced from the Italian, it continued its foreign form for many years. The meaning is an overloaded representation, and the word is formed from the verb *caricare*, 'to load.'

One of the first writers to use the word *caricatura* was Sir Thomas Browne (1605-82), in his posthumous work on *Christian Morals*; and in the *Spectator* (1712) the Italian form is still retained: 'Those burlesque pictures which the Italians called *caricaturas*, where the art consists in preserving, amidst distorted proportions and aggravated features, some distinguishing likeness of the person, but in such a manner as to transform the most agreeable beauty into the most odious monster.' The word is not in Johnson's *Dictionary* (1755), but in 1788 Francis Grose wrote *Rules for Drawing Caricatures*, a work which was translated into French. Pictorial satires on the clergy were not uncommon in the middle ages, and in the reigns of Henry

VIII. and Elizabeth the pope was frequently satirised. During the Civil Wars, the satirists to some extent thrived in England. The reign of William III. again was a period of political satire, when Romeyn de Hooghe was the chief artistic champion of the king of England.

Modern caricature, however, may be said practically to commence with Hogarth (1697-1764), who lashed social vices instead of confining himself to the portrayal of political disagreements. Hogarth was succeeded by a host of talented artists, whose productions became the rage. Of these the most prominent were John Collet (1725-80), Henry William Bunbury (1750-1811), Thomas Rowlandson (1756-1827), George Montard Woodward, John Heinrich Ramberg (1763-1840), James Gillray (1767-1815), styled 'the prince of caricaturists', Denis Dighton (1792-1827), and James Sayer, commonly called Pitt's caricaturist. Of these Gillray and Rowlandson stand out as the chief. Bunbury's works were engraved by Rowlandson, who gave them much of his own style. The history of the time (grossly exaggerated, it is true) is to be found written in the works of these caricaturists. To these engravings we must go to understand the manners of the time, as well as to see what was the contemporary public opinion of Bute and Wilkes, of Pitt and Fox, and the political leaders of the Georgian era. George IV. was the object of satirical prints to an extraordinary degree. So great was the popularity of these caricatures, that shops were opened for their exclusive sale, and particular publishers devoted themselves to this business alone. Mention should also be made of John Kay, whose portraits illustrate so remarkably the history of Edinburgh life at the end of the last and beginning of the present century.

To eyes educated by the refined satire of the present day, the works of Gillray and Rowlandson and their followers appear singularly coarse. These caricatures are vigorous, but they are frequently disgusting to our taste. With the early part of the present century a complete change in the character of caricature took place, and for this ascendancy of good feeling we are largely indebted to the two Doyles, John and Richard, father and son.

John Doyle commenced his political sketches in 1829, and they became famous as the caricatures of H.B. It is scarcely possible to imagine two styles of art more distinct than those exhibited respectively in the caricatures of Gillray and Doyle. H.B.'s sketches are sometimes styled weak, but they exhibit a vivid picture of the party politics of the period over which the series extend. The Duke of Wellington, Sir Robert Peel, and the other leaders of the time stand out before us now as they appeared to their contemporaries. In the works of the older caricaturists likenesses were to some extent retained, but the persons caricatured were usually depicted as monsters rather than as human beings. In the caricatures of H.B. the resemblance was perfect, and it was the position rather than the person that was distorted. There was plenty of satire, but it was of a refined character. When H.B.'s sketches were discontinued, the weekly periodical *Punch* was started (1841), and Richard Doyle designed the well-known cover. In its pages may be seen the finest examples of delicate caricature by Leech, Tenniel, Du Maurier and other artists of high repute, that have ever been produced. It may be remarked that our modern Hogarth, George Cruikshank, lived through the periods distinguished by the two styles of caricature. His earliest satires are in the manner of Rowlandson, while his later ones are in the more refined style of the present day. A return to the more robust style of the older caricaturists has been made by Pelligrini and

others in *Vanity Fair*, where the portraits of celebrated men have been drawn in an exaggerated manner, so as to produce a ludicrous effect without essentially destroying the likeness, thus carrying out the original idea of caricature, without the grossness which was so generally united to the exaggeration of the older caricaturists. The American representative of *Punch* is the vigorous and clever *Puck*, in which the political cartoon is coloured. Equally well known are the *Fliegende Blätter* of Munich, and the less artistic *Kladderadatsch* of Berlin. The most eminent American caricaturists have been Thomas Nast and J. F. Keppler, both of German birth.

Caricature in France may be said to date from about 1830, from the foundation by Philipon of *La Caricature*, and the greatest names are still those of Daumier, Gavarni, Grandville, and Monnier. Daumier combined in a remarkable degree the sense of form with that genius for happy exaggeration which is characteristic of the highest types of caricature. Monnier has secured his own immortality in that of his creation, Joseph Prudhomme. Grandville is, by universal consent, superb in portraiture. Other names are those of Decamps, Traviès, Charlet, Ruffet, Isabey, Giraud, Carle Vernet, Chaun, and Grévin.

A History of Caricature and Grotesque in Literature and Art was published by Thomas Wright in 1865, but the most important work on the subject is the *Catalogue of Satirical Prints and Drawings in the British Museum* (with Hawkins's valuable memoranda). Parton's *Caricature and other Comic Arts* (New York, 1877) deserves mention. Everitt published in 1886 *English Caricaturists of the 19th Century*. Joseph Grego has published two copiously illustrated works on caricatures, one devoted to the productions of Gillray, and the other to those of Rowlandson. Several works on the history of caricature have been published in French, among the latest being Dayot's *Maîtres de la Caricature Française au XIX^e Siècle* (1888), and Grand Carteret's *Les Maurs et la Caricature en France* (1888).

Caries ('rotteness') is a disease of bone analogous to the ulceration of soft tissues. It is characterised by a gradual loss of substance, from the particles of bone being absorbed, or being cast off and washed away in a purulent discharge. It begins as an unhealthy inflammation, followed by exudation of new materials, and softening of the part affected. On examination, the bone-cells are found filled with a reddish glairy fluid, and in scrofulous patients, deposits of tubercle. After caries has existed for some time, an abscess forms, and bursts; its aperture remains open, discharging a thin fluid, which contains particles of the bone. If a probe be passed through this opening, it will be felt to sink into some soft gritty substance; this is the carious bone, which, if removed and well washed, will be found to resemble in whiteness and fragility loaf-sugar softening in hot water.

Caries may attack any bone, but it usually selects the skull and face, the vertebrae, the bones of the foot, and the soft ends of long bones forming joints, especially in the lower limbs. To this terrible disease most deformities not congenital are owing. The carious vertebrae yield under the weight of the trunk, and the spine curves forwards, or to one side. In the joint-ends of bones the part enlarges, the cartilages become affected, matter forms, and amputation of the limb, or excision of the joint, is frequently necessary to save the patient's life. Too often the disease recurs with night-sweats, hectic symptoms, and death.

The causes of caries are usually constitutional, though it may be accidentally determined to some particular part of the body by any irritation, such

as a blow, or exposure to atmospheric changes. Scrofulous persons, and those who have had syphilis or mercury in excess at any period of their lives, are more subject to it than others. If it affect a small bone, that bone may be entirely removed; and if the disease is strictly limited to the ends of bones forming a joint, these may be excised. Since 1860 great advances have been made in this department of surgery, and caries of the joints is comparatively seldom counted a sufficient reason for amputation; the knee, hip, shoulder, elbow, ankle, and wrist joints have all been repeatedly excised successfully. In situations where the part cannot be reached by instruments, lotions of dilute acid may be injected, with the view of stimulating the carious surface to assume a healing action.

The treatment of caries consists in supporting the patient's strength by judicious change of air and tonics, with the administration of medicines, such as cod-liver oil in scrofula, which appear to combat the constitutional predisposition to the disease. Under such treatment, with careful attention to free exit of the discharge and cleanliness of the wound, recovery often takes place without operation; but when the natural processes are not able to effect this in those parts where the diseased bone can be reached, it should be gouged or scraped away, or removed by caustics, so as to leave a healthy surface of bone, which may granulate up, and heal. See BONE. Caries of the Teeth is dealt with at TEETH.

Carigna'no, a town of Piedmont, on the Po, 11 miles S. of Turin, with some fine churches, and manufactures of silk-twist. It gives the title of prince to the reigning branch of the House of Savoy. Pop. 4270.

Carillon. See BELL.

Carima'ta, a name applied to the strait between Borneo and Billiton; also to a cluster of a hundred islets and reefs (area, 57 sq. m.; pop. 500) in that strait; and lastly, to the principal member of the group, whose highest point reaches 2600 feet.

Carinaria, a genus of free-swimming marine snails (Gasteropoda) belonging to the small order Heteropoda. They are beautiful transparent animals, with a thin brittle shell (like a miniature paper nautilus) covering only the visceral hump and leaving even the gills exposed, and with the ventral surface or 'foot' pulled out into a movable tail, and bearing anteriorly a leaf-like swimming fin, provided with a sucker. The head protrudes far in front of the soft body, and bears a pair of tentacles. The organs and their working can be beautifully seen within the transparent body. The sexes are separate. Carinaria is represented by eight species in warmer seas. They swim back downwards, and feed voraciously on other marine animals, such as jelly-fish and pteropods. The common Mediterranean species, *C. mediterranea*, may be over six inches in length, has a violet proboscis and a rose-coloured foot, and is a beautiful transparent snail. The neighbouring genus Pterotrachea has no shell.

Carinate Birds, the technical name for the ordinary flying birds, in which the muscles working the wings are partly inserted on a prominent keel (Lat. *carina*) on the breast-bone. See BIRD.

Carini, a town of Sicily, 12 miles W. by N. of Palermo. It has an old castle, and a population of 11,607, chiefly engaged in fishing.

Carinthia (Ger. *Kärnthen*), a crown-land of the Austrian empire, forming part of the old kingdom of Illyria, with an area of 4005 sq. m., and a pop. of (1869) 337,694; (1886) 355,185. The principal river is the Drave, which passes through the country from west to east, in a course of 102 miles.

The general aspect of the country is mountainous, with long deep valleys, that of the Drave widening at Villach and Klagenfurt into a great plain, and dividing the *Noric* from the *Carinthian Alps*. The loftiest point is the Grossglockner (12,450 feet). Only 15 per cent. of the entire area is devoted to tillage, owing to the mountainous character of the country, great part of which is occupied in pasture, or covered with brushwood. Many horses and cattle are reared and exported. The principal products are mineral. A leading industry is the manufacture of hardware; the other manufactures include woollens, silk stuffs, and cottons. The capital is Klagenfurt. Carinthia, which derives its name from the Celtic *Carni*, belonged before the time of Augustus to Noricum, afterwards to the Roman empire. By-and-by the Carni were swept away in the deluge of immigration from the east, and Slavs settled in the country. In 1335 it came into the possession of Austria (q.v.). Only 30 per cent. of the present population are Slavs (Slovenians), the remainder being Germans; 5 per cent. are Protestants; and 46 per cent. of the births are illegitimate.

Carlsbrooke, a village in the Isle of Wight, 1 mile SW. of Newport. In its ruined castle Charles I. was imprisoned (1647-48), as were also his children Prince Henry and the Princess Elizabeth, the latter of whom died here. From the castle well, 200 feet deep, the water is drawn by a donkey inside a wheel. A Norman castle was built here by William Fitzosborne; it was besieged by King Stephen; the outworks date from the time of the Armada panic. Carlsbrooke was a Roman station, and a Roman villa was discovered here in 1859.

Carissa, a genus of Apocynaceae. *C. Carandis* is a thorny shrub, much used for fences in India, and the fruit for tarts and preserves. Some species are as bitter as gentian, notably *C. xylopiæron*, the *Bois amère* of Mauritius.

Carissimi, GIACOMO, composer, born in 1604 at Marino, near Rome, was organist from 1628 in Rome, and died there in 1674. His greatest service was the development of the sacred cantata. The finest of his oratorios, including *Jephtha*, have been edited by Chrysander in *Denkmäler der Tonkunst* (vol. ii. 1882).

Carità (Ital.), in Art, the technical name for a representation of Maternal Love.

Carlaveroek. See CAERLAVEROCK.

Carlén, EMILIE, a Swedish novel-writer, was born 8th August 1807 at Strömstad, near the Christiania Fjord. It was not till 1833 that her first novel, *Waldemar Klein*, was given to the world. She was then a widow; and in 1841 she married her second husband, J. G. Carlén, a lawyer and poet, in Stockholm. Her fictions, chiefly founded on the characteristics of the lower and middle classes, though faulty in many respects, are rich and striking in incident. Her novels were collected in 31 vols. (Stockholm, 1869-75), and many of these have been translated into English. She died at Önön, in Dalecarlia, 12th February 1883. See her *Reminiscences of Swedish Literary Life* (1878).

Carleton, WILL., American author, was born in Hudson, Michigan, 21st October 1845. He graduated at Hillsdale College in that state; and soon after completing his studenthood, he began to lecture in various parts of the United States and Canada. He has more than once visited Europe. His best-known works are ballads of domestic life. His fresh and striking *Farm Ballads* (1873), *Farm Legends* (1875), *Farm Festivals* (1881), *City Ballads* (1885), and other poems, possess both vigour and pathos, and have attained a wide popularity on both sides of the Atlantic.

Carleton, WILLIAM, Irish novelist, was born in 1794 at Prillisk, in County Tyrone. Of peasant birth, the youngest of fourteen children, he received some scanty instruction in a hedge-school; and falling in with a copy of *Gil Blas* about the same time that he gave up all thoughts of the priesthood, he came up to Dublin with only three shillings in his pocket. He thought first of turning bird-stuffer, of enlisting, then took to tuition, and finally to literature, contributing to the *Christian Examiner* a series of sketches, which in 1830 he republished under the title of *Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry*. Their freshness of style pleased the public; a second series (1833) was no less well received; and in 1839 appeared the powerful story, *Fardorougha the Miser*, in several passages of which, however, his humour becomes extravagant. He next published a series of tales (3 vols. 1841), mostly of pathetic interest, but including a very genial and humorous sketch of the *Misfortunes of Barney Brannigan*, which proved a great favourite. *Valentine M'Clutchy* (1845) is half-political and half-religious in its tendency, defending the Irish Catholic priesthood, and advocating repeal of the Union. *Rody the Rover* (1846), *The Black Prophet* (1847), and *The Tithe Proctor* (1849) are also worthy of mention. Carleton is the true historian of the Irish people. Sharing in their qualities of mind and temperament, he has a true sympathy with all their joys and sorrows, and a graphic and picturesque pen with which to describe them. In consideration of his literary services he received a pension of £200 a year some time before his death, which took place in Dublin, 30th January 1869.

Carli, GIOVANNI RINALDO, Italian economist and archaeologist, was born in 1720 at Capo d'Istria. In 1741 he was appointed professor of Astronomy at Venice, and in 1754-60 published his great numismatic work, *Della Moneta*. For his merits as a financier, Carli was made by the Emperor Joseph President of the Council of Commerce at Milan. His works embrace Istrian and other antiquities, dissertations on classical subjects, against sorcery, and against Rousseau's theory of natural religion. He died 22d February 1795.

Carlile, RICHARD, a much-prosecuted Radical, was born at Ashburton, in Devonshire, 8th December 1790. After some education at the village free school, where Gifford had been a scholar, he served in a chemist's shop, and afterwards as apprentice to a tinsman, whose undue severity kept alive the rebellious spirit of the boy. Paine's *Rights of Man* converted him into a Radical propagandist, and in 1817 he began to vend a London weekly, *Black Dwarf*, next sold thousands of Southey's *Wat Tyler*, reprinted Hone's *Parodies*, and wrote a series of imitations of these, for which he was rewarded with eighteen weeks in the King's Bench. For reprinting Paine's works and some similar books, he was sentenced, after a three days' trial, in November 1819 to a fine of £1500 and three years' imprisonment in Dorchester gaol. Here he at once began to issue his periodical, *The Republican*, of which the first 12 vols. are dated from his prison. His wife, for continuing to publish, was sentenced in 1821 to two years' imprisonment. But the indomitable Radical continued still to publish spite of a public subscription, for the prosecution of his assistants, of £6000, headed by the Duke of Wellington; of repeated seizures of his stock; of a three years' extension of his own confinement in lieu of the fines; the imprisonment of his sister for a year besides a fine of £500; and the imprisonment of nine of his shopmen in terms of from six months to three years. After his release Carlile continued his activity, editing *The Gorgon*, and holding free discussions in the London Rotunda.

Three more years' imprisonment he suffered for refusing to give sureties for his good behaviour after a prosecution that grew out of his refusal to pay church-rates; and a second period of ten weeks, in 1834-35, for resisting the same payment, brought up the total of the imprisonment of this much-enduring man to nine years and four months. He died 10th February 1843. This martyr at least was as ready to suffer as to bluster, and may safely be said to have done as much as any Englishman for the freedom of the press. See Holyoake's *Life and Character of R. Carlile* (1848).

Carlina Thistle (*Carlina*), a beautiful genus of Compositæ, closely allied to the true thistles, from which they are distinguished by the inner spreading bracts of the involucre, which, coloured and shining, are remarkably hygrometric, expanding in dry and closing together in wet weather, and this property they retain for a long time; the heads of flowers are therefore often nailed on cottage-doors in many parts of Europe to indicate the weather. The name is said to be derived from a legend that an angel showed the root of one of the species, *C. acaulis*, to Charlemagne as a remedy for a plague in his army. Linnæus, however, tells the story,



Carlina Thistle (*Carlina acaulis*).

without the angel, of the army of Charles V., while the most sceptical regard the name as merely a corrupt diminutive of Ital. *cardo* (dim. *cardina*), 'a thistle.' The root is certainly a drastic purgative, and hence was formerly held in high medical repute; now, however, it is quite disused, save in veterinary practice. The only British species is *C. vulgaris*.

Carlisle, a parliamentary and municipal borough, the county town of Cumberland, stands on a gentle eminence in a wide-spreading plain, at the influx of the Caldew and Petteril to the Eden—three streams that nearly encircle it. An important railway centre, it is 299 miles N.W. of London, 101 miles S. of Edinburgh, 22½ E. by N. of its seaport, Silloth, and 66 W. by S. of Newcastle. In spite of its hoar antiquity, 'merry' Carlisle as a whole is disappointingly modern, its gates having vanished, and almost the whole of the walls. The castle was founded in 1092, and now serves as a barrack. The remains of its Norman keep form a massive tower; but that portion of the fortress in which Mary Queen of Scots was for two months imprisoned (1568) was demolished in 1835. The cathedral, founded by William Rufus, and dedicated in 1101 by Henry I., in 1133 was made the cathedral church of the newly-formed diocese. It has four times suffered by fire, the greatest in 1292; and ranging in date between 1092 and 1419, it comprises

every variety of style from Norman to Perpendicular. The fragment of the Norman nave, long used as a parish church, is cut off from the choir, which, mainly Decorated in style, is 137 feet long, 71 broad, and 75 high. It is one of the finest choirs in England, the exquisite tracery of its nine-light east window being of matchless beauty. The central tower, only 127 feet high, formerly supported a timber spire, which was removed in the 18th century. There are monuments and other memorials to Paley, Dean Close, and Archbishop Tait's five children; and in Carlisle Cathedral Scott married Miss Carpenter (1797). The building was restored in 1853-57. The court-house and county gaol are the most noticeable of the public buildings; the Eden is crossed by a handsome five-arch bridge (1851); and in the town are statues of the second Earl of Lonsdale and of James Steel, editor of the *Carlisle Journal*. The chief branches of industry are cotton, calico, hat, and iron manufactures; fancy biscuits are largely made; and the Eden has salmon-fisheries. The parliamentary representation was reduced to one member in 1885. Pop. (1801) 10,221; (1851) 26,310; (1881) 35,866. The *Lugvaallum* of the Romans, and *Cuer-Luel* (hence *Carlisle*) of the Britons, the town was destroyed by the Danes in 875, and restored by William Rufus in 1092. From its position as a Border fortress, it has a wealth of martial memories—none more famous than the rescue of 'Kinmont Willie' by Buccleuch from Carlisle Castle in 1596. During the Great Rebellion it twice surrendered to the Parliamentarians (1645-48); and in the '45 it was held for a time by the Jacobites, thirty-one of whom were afterwards executed on Harray Hill. See Freeman's *English Towns* (1883).

The Carlisle Tables of Mortality, based on the deaths which occurred in Carlisle (1779-87), were drawn up by Dr Heysham, and have been since much used by life-insurance offices. See MORTALITY.

Carlisle, capital of Cumberland county, Pennsylvania, 19 miles WSW. of Harrisburg by rail, is the centre of a rich agricultural country. It is the seat of Dickinson College (Methodist), and has United States barracks, machine-shops, a foundry, and manufactures of railway cars, carriages, and shoes. It was shelled by the Confederates, July 1, 1863. Pop. (1880) 6209.

Carlisle, GEORGE WILLIAM FREDERICK HOWARD, seventh EARL OF, K.G., was born in London, April 18, 1802. Educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford, he took in 1821 the Chancellor's and Newdigate prizes, and graduated with a first-class in classics. In 1826 he was returned for the family borough of Morpeth, and at once attached himself to Earl Grey and the cause of parliamentary reform. In 1830 he, along with Henry Brougham, was elected for Yorkshire, and after the Reform Bill he was returned for the West Riding, a seat which he lost in 1841, but recovered in 1846. Under Lord Melbourne, he was Chief-secretary for Ireland (1835-41), and, under Lord John Russell (1846-52), Chief-commissioner of Woods and Forests, and afterwards Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. In 1848 he succeeded to the peerage. Palmerston appointed him Lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1855, and again, on the downfall of Derby's government, in 1859. Carlisle obtained some literary reputation by his lectures on his travels in the United States, and on the life and writings of Pope, his *Diary in Turkish and Greek Waters*, and a volume of posthumous *Poems*. He died at Castle Howard, December 5, 1864.

Carlists, the name given to the supporters of the Spanish pretender, Don Maria Isidor Carlos de Bourbon, who was born March 29, 1788, the second

son of Charles IV. of Spain, and was educated chiefly by priests. After the expulsion of the French from Spain, and the re-accession of his brother, Ferdinand VII., who had had no children from three marriages, Don Carlos naturally began to cherish the hope of succeeding to the throne. A fourth time, however, the indefatigable Ferdinand married, and the result was a daughter, the Infanta Maria Isabella (queen of Spain till her deposition in 1868), born October 10, 1830. Now as the Salic Law excluding females from succession to the throne, introduced into Spain by Philip V. in 1713, had been abrogated after much hesitation by Ferdinand at the instigation of his new wife, Christina, in a formal 'Pragmatic Sanction,' four months after their marriage, the birth of this daughter completely destroyed the hopes of the Carlists. As Don Carlos still continued his agitation, he was banished in 1833 to Portugal, and soon afterwards was commanded to reside in the Papal States. But before he had embarked for Italy, King Ferdinand VII. died, September 29, 1833. The child Isabella was at once proclaimed queen with her mother Christina as regent; she was supported mainly by the liberals in the state, while Don Carlos rallied round him chiefly the supporters of absolutism. His chief strength lay in the indomitable courage of the inhabitants of the Basque provinces, whose ancient *fueros* the Liberals had foolishly refused to confirm, and here the struggle raged hotly for some years. Under Zumalacarrequi and Cabrera the Carlists had at first considerable success, but were at length subdued by Espartero in 1839. Meanwhile the claim of Don Carlos had been recognised not only by the Carlists, but also by Dom Miguel in Portugal; the latter, however, was banished by the quadruple alliance of Spain, Portugal, England, and France. In June 1834 Don Carlos embarked for England, but in the following month he returned to the Continent, and passed in disguise through France into the northern provinces of Spain, whence he was ultimately compelled to escape into France. In 1836 his claims to the throne were unanimously rejected by the Constituent Cortes; in 1844 he abdicated in favour of his eldest son. He died at Trieste, March 10, 1855.—DON CARLOS, his son, born 1818, was better known as the Count de Montemolin. This second pretender made an attempt in 1849 to pass under a disguise through France into Spain, but failed. In 1860 an attempt was made at Tolosa in Valencia to stir up another Carlist insurrection, in consequence of which the Count de Montemolin and his brother Ferdinand were arrested, but liberated after they had signed a renunciation of all their claims to the Spanish throne. He died in 1861.—The next representative of the Carlist pretensions was his nephew, DON CARLOS, born 30th March 1848. His father, Juan (1822-87), who in 1863 renounced his claim in favour of his son, was brother of Don Carlos the second. On his behalf, Carlist risings—speedily repressed—took place in 1869, 1870, and 1872; but the insurrection headed by him in person after the abdication of King Amadeo in 1873, proved much more formidable, and kept the Basque provinces in great confusion till the beginning of 1876, when it was finally crushed, and the last of their ancient privileges stripped from the Basques, whose noble and unquestioning loyalty of nature did not know how to abandon a lost cause even when disaster was a foregone conclusion. The most striking feature of the last Carlist war was a total lack of ability on the part of the leaders, that would have rendered the whole struggle completely contemptible but for the heroic courage of the Basque soldiers. Don Carlos crossed into France, and when expelled for expressing sympathy with the

Legitimists in 1881, took refuge in London. He is put forward by the ultra French Legitimists as the true heir to the throne of France as well as Spain, in opposition to the Orléanist princes.

Carlo Dolce. See DOLCE.

Carlos, DON, son of Philip II. by his first marriage with Maria of Portugal, was born at Valladolid, July 1545. After his recognition as heir to the throne, Don Carlos was sent to study at the university of Alcalá de Henares; where, however, he profited so little, that the king, regarding him as unequalled to reign, invited a nephew, the Archduke Rudolf, to Spain, intending to make him heir to the throne. The weak intellect, with vicious and cruel tendencies, which the young prince showed early, may have been due to an injury to his head from a fall down the stairs at Alcalá de Henares; or more probably was congenital through the fatal descent from 'Juana la loca,' and only aggravated by his accident. Excluded from all participation in the government, he early conceived a strong aversion towards the king's confidants, and especially was unwilling that the Duke of Alba should have the government of Flanders. In confession to a priest, on Christmas eve 1567, he betrayed his purpose to assassinate a certain person; and as the king was believed to be the intended victim, this confession was divulged. The papers of Don Carlos were seized; he was tried and found guilty of conspiring against the life of the king, and of traitorously endeavouring to raise an insurrection in Flanders. The sentence was left for the king to pronounce. Philip declared that he could make no exception in favour of such an unworthy son; but sentence of death was not formally recorded. Shortly afterwards he died, July 24, 1568, and was interred in the Dominican monastery, El-Real, at Madrid. The suspicion that he was poisoned or strangled has no valid evidence to support it, and natural causes, as constant fever, a depraved appetite, and an injury to the brain, are of themselves enough to account for his death. The enemies of Philip II. were eager to prove him the murderer of his son, and much has been written on this problem. The version of the story which obtained so much currency through *Don Carlos*, the great tragedy of Schiller, was due to the romancing pen of Saint-Real in 1672. Its credibility was shattered first in 1817 by the Spanish writer, Llorente, and in 1820 by the learned Ranke in vol. xlv. of the *Wiener Jahrbücher der Literatur*. The most important contribution to the question since is Gachard's *Don Carlos et Philippe II.* (2d ed. Paris, 1867). A new and not unfavourable light on Philip's character as a father has been thrown by the publication of *Lettres de Philippe II. à ses filles* (Paris, 1884) by the same editor. See also Maurenbrecher, *Don Carlos* (2d ed. Berlin, 1876), and Stirling-Maxwell, *Don John of Austria* (1883).

Carlovingians, or KARLINGS, the second dynasty of Frankish kings. The family came from the eastern part of the Frankish kingdoms, and its origin is traced to Arnulph, Bishop of Metz, at the beginning of the 7th century. Pepin, a grandson of the bishop, became Mayor of the Palace to the Frankish kings of the Merovingian line. Pepin's natural son, the famous Charles Martel, and Charles's son Pepin, followed in the same office. They were the real rulers of the Frankish monarchy, till in 752 Pepin deposed the last of the *faible* Merovingian sovereigns and placed himself on the throne. Incomparably the greatest of the line was Charles the Great (Charlemagne), from whom it was named, and who in 800 was proclaimed Emperor of the West. Charles' son, Louis (814-840), was a weak ruler, after whose death the great Frankish empire erected by Charlemagne was divided in 843 between

his three sons, Lothar, Louis, and Charles. United in 884 under Charles the Fat, the empire was finally broken up in 887 into divisions roughly corresponding to the modern France and Germany with Lorraine and Burgundy between them. Members of the Carlovingian house, however, continued to rule in Germany till 911, and in France till 987, when they were superseded by the House of Capet. The Carlovingian kings had for some time previous possessed no real power. A subsequent marriage, however, connected their family with that of the Capets, and enabled the kings of France to trace their descent from Charlemagne.

The Carlovingian dynasty figures in the early history of France as the ally of the church. It aided the popes against the Lombards; made war on the Aquitanians, who pillaged and despoiled the churches; established the temporal power of the successors of St Peter; subdued and converted the still pagan Saxons; and fought the Mohammedans in Spain. Nor, on the other hand, do we find the church ungrateful: it sanctioned, by benediction and prayer, the conquests of this powerful family; in various ways impressed its sacred stamp of approbation upon it; and for its sake resuscitated the imposing idea of an empire of the West. But this alliance which was advantageous to the policy of kings like Pepin and his son Charlemagne, because they had genius, vigour, and design, became at a later period, under their feeble successors, a chief cause of the overthrow of the dynasty, for the clergy after 814 grew stronger and more exacting every day, and forced the monarchs to new concessions.

The word Carlovingians is formed on a false analogy from Merovingians (q.v.) or Merwings; it should be *Caroblings* or *Karlings*, and means descendants of Karl the Great, or Charlemagne.

Carlovitz, or KARLOVITZ (in England, however, usually *Carlovitz*), a town of the Austrian empire, in Slavonia, on the right bank of the Danube, 30 miles NW. of Belgrade. It has a Greek cathedral, and is noted for its wine, which—especially the red variety—ranks with the best and strongest obtained in Hungary, and is largely exported. Pop. 4916. The treaty of Carlovitz was concluded, in 1699, between the allies Austria, Russia, Poland, and Venice, on one side, and the Porte on the other, and provided that Austria should repossess the territories captured by the Turks during two centuries, including Hungary, Slavonia, &c.; that Venice should hold the Morea; that Poland should take back Podolia and part of the Ukraine; and that Russia should have the territory of Azov.

Carlow, a small inland county of Ireland, in the province of Leinster, with an area of 346 sq. m. Except on the south-east border, where Mount Leinster rises to 2610 feet, Carlow is a triangular fertile level, or gently undulating plain, between the Wicklow and Wexford range of hills on the east, and the highlands beyond the Barrow on the west. The chief rivers are the Barrow and Slaney. The predominant rock is granite, covered in the middle plain, or richer tracts, by limestone gravel, on which are fine loams and pasture. In the uplands the soil is gravelly. Lower carboniferous limestone crops out in the valley of the Barrow. On the west side of the county begins the great coal district of Leinster. Barely one-third of the entire area is under oats, wheat, potatoes, and other crops. There are many dairies on the plains. Along the Barrow, which falls more than a foot per mile, are many large corn-mills. Pop. (1841) 86,228; (1871) 51,472; (1881) 46,508, of whom 88 per cent. are Catholics. Since the passing of the Distribution of Seats Act (1885) the county returns

but one member to parliament. The chief towns are Carlow, Bagenalstown, and Tullow. Several engagements occurred in the county during the Irish rebellion of 1798. The chief antiquities of Carlow are cromlechs, castles, and the cathedral church of Old Leighlin. A cromlech near Carlow town has a covering stone 23 feet long, and of nearly 90 tons weight.

CARLOW, the county town, stands at the influx of the Burren to the Barrow, 56 miles SW. of Dublin by rail. It has a Catholic cathedral and divinity college, the county court-house, extensive flour-mills, and is the emporium for the agricultural produce of the district. Pop. (1851) 9121; (1881) 7185. Till 1885 it returned a member to parliament. There are remains of a castle, picturesquely situated on an eminence on the Burrow, founded in 1180 by Sir Hugh de Lacy. In 1361 the Duke of Clarence established the exchequer of the kingdom in this place. It constituted one of the boundaries of the Pale, beyond which the king's writ was not recognised by the 'Irishry.' The town grew up around this castle, which was dismantled after its capture by Ireton in 1650. In 1798 the rebels attacked the town, but were repulsed by the garrison and yeomanry, and 600 of them killed. The Barrow is here navigable for small craft to its junction with the Grand Canal at Athy.

Carlsbad, a town in Bohemia, on the Tepl, near its influx to the Eger, 116 miles W. by N. of Prague by rail. It is widely celebrated for its hot mineral springs, and frequented in summer by visitors of the most aristocratic character from all parts of Europe. The permanent population numbered (1880) 10,579, who are very industrious, making jewelry, porcelain, and various articles such as are likely to find ready purchasers among the visitors, who in the season—April to October—number from 25,000 to 30,000. Set in most lovely scenery, the town is well built, and offers good accommodation for its guests. The temperature of the hot springs varies from 117° to 167° F. The principal spring, the Sprudel, has a very large volume, and is forced up to a height of 3 feet from the ground. Altogether, the daily flow of the springs of Carlsbad is estimated at 2,000,000 gallons. The principal ingredient in the water is sulphate of soda. The whole town of Carlsbad appears to stand on a vast caldron of boiling water, which is kept from bursting only by the safety-valves the springs provide. Ascribing its foundation to the Emperor Charles IV. (1347), Carlsbad was made a free town by Joseph I. See Kraus, *Carlsbad: its Thermal Springs* (Lond. new ed. 1888); and Merrylees, *Carlsbad* (Lond. 1886).

Carlsburg. See KARLSBURG.

Carlshamn, a fortified seaport on the south coast of Sweden, 30 miles W. of Karlskrona, and 339 miles SSW. of Stockholm by rail. Founded in 1664, it has manufactures of tobacco, brandy, &c., and a considerable trade. Pop. 6529.

Carlskrona, the capital of a Swedish province, is built on five rocky islets in the Baltic, 240 miles (by rail 350) SSW. of Stockholm. It was founded in 1680 by Charles XI., who gave it his own name, and made it the great naval station and arsenal of Sweden, instead of Stockholm. It has a magnificent harbour, with a sufficient depth of water to float the largest vessels. The only practicable entrance is strongly defended. Pop. (1875) 16,877; (1886) 19,497.—The coast province of Blekinge or Carlskrona has an area of 1164 sq. m., with a population (1886) of 140,980.

Carlsruhe, or KARLSRUHE, the capital of the grand-duchy of Baden, is situated 5 miles east of the Rhine, and 39 WNW. of Stuttgart, 34 SSW. of

Heidelberg. Founded in 1715, and built in the form of a fan, with thirty-two streets radiating from the palace, it has a number of fine buildings—the palace itself (1751-76), the parliament-house (1845), the theatre (1853), the town-hall (1821), the museum (1852), with the ducal library of 150,000 vols. Before the palace stands a bronze statue of the city's founder, the Margrave Charles William; and in the market-place is a stone pyramid inclosing his remains. The manufactures include machines of various sorts, engines, locomotives, railway carriages and wagons, jewelry, carpets, chemical products, and cloth. Pop. (1875) 42,895; (1885) 61,066.

Carlstad, a town of Sweden, on the island of Tingvalla, near the east shore of Lake Wener, 205 miles WSW. of Stockholm by rail. Connected with the mainland by two bridges—one of which is a handsome structure—and greatly improved since the fire of 1865, it is a well-built place, with a cathedral, and a considerable trade. Pop. 7737.

Carlstadt, a fortified town of Croatia, Austro-Hungary, on the Kulpa, 32 miles SW. of Agram by rail. It is the seat of a Greek bishopric, and has a large transit trade. Pop. 5824.—**CARLSTADT**, in Bavaria, on the Maine, is 15 miles NNW. of Würzburg; pop. 2320 inhabitants.

Carlstadt (properly, ANDREAS RUDOLF BODENSTEIN), reformer, born prior to 1483 at Carlstadt in Bavaria, joined Luther, who in 1521 was compelled to rebuke his iconoclastic zeal, and whom he afterwards opposed on the question of the Eucharist. Accused of participation in the Peasants' War (q.v.) and other intrigues, he fled to Switzerland, and became professor of Theology at Basel, where he died, 25th December 1541.

Carlton Club, the famous Conservative club (see CLUB), was so named as being near the site of Carlton House, built by Lord Carlton in 1709. Carlton House was the residence of Frederick, Prince of Wales (father of George III.), and of George IV. when Prince of Wales. It was pulled down in 1826.

Carluk, a town of Lanarkshire, 2½ miles E. of the Clyde, and 19½ SE. of Glasgow by rail. The neighbourhood is rich in coal, iron, and limestone, and mining is the chief industry. General Roy, the antiquary, was a native. Pop. (1881) 3867.

Carlyle, ALEXANDER, of Inveresk, was born 26th January 1722 at Prestonpans, East Lothian, of which parish his father was minister. Educated at the universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Leyden, he was ordained in 1748 minister of Inveresk, and here he remained till his death, 25th August 1805. With Robertson, the historian, he helped to lead the moderate party in the Church of Scotland; and he enjoyed in succession the highest honours of his profession, being occasionally sent to London as the accredited agent of his church, appointed Moderator of the General Assembly in 1770, and Dean of the Chapel-royal in 1789. His imposing presence earned him the popular name of 'Jupiter Carlyle'; 'he was,' says Sir Walter Scott, 'the grandest demigod I ever saw.' Throughout his long lifetime he enjoyed the intimate friendship of some of the most notable men of his time, as Hume, Adam Smith, Smollett, John Home, and many others on both sides of the Tweed; while he had seen and even shared in events as striking as the Porteous Mob and the Royalist rout at Prestonpans. Hence the unique interest of his *Autobiography*, which was not begun till he had reached his seventy-ninth year, and comes down only to 1770, when he was but forty-eight. It was not published till 1860, when it was edited, and completed with a supplementary

chapter, by the Scotch historian, John Hill Burton. Keen observation, perfect sincerity, and a not unkindly sarcasm combine to give the book a charm of a quite singular character, and indeed there are few books that can be compared with it as an intimate picture of the social habits of a bygone age. Its author unconsciously reveals himself a man of singularly genial, sagacious, and liberal nature, none the less a sincere Christian that he had a sound relish for claret, whist, play-going, and all the honest good things of life.

Carlyle, THOMAS, was born 4th December 1795, at Ecclefechan, in the parish of Hoddam, Annandale, Dumfriesshire — a small Scottish market-town, the 'Entepfull' of *Sartor Resartus*, 6 miles inland from the Solway, and about 16 by road from Carlisle. He was the second son of James Carlyle, stonemason (1758-1832); but his first son by his second wife, Margaret Aitken (1771-1853). James Carlyle, who came of a family which, although in humble circumstances, was an offshoot of a Border clan, was a man of great physical and moral strength, of fearless independence, and of, in his son's opinion, 'a natural faculty' equal to that of Burns; and Margaret Aitken was 'a woman of the fairest descent, that of the pious, the just, and the wise.' Frugal, abstemious, prudent, though not niggardly, James Carlyle was prosperous according to the times, the conditions of his trade, and the standard of Ecclefechan. He was able, therefore, to give such of his sons (he had a family of ten children in all, five sons and five daughters) as showed an aptitude for culture an excellent Scottish education. Thomas seems to have been taught his letters and elementary reading by his mother, and arithmetic by his father. His home-teaching was supplemented by attendance at the Ecclefechan school, where he was 'reported complete in English' at about seven, made satisfactory progress in arithmetic, and took to Latin with enthusiasm. Thence he proceeded in 1805 to Annan Academy, where he learned to read Latin and French fluently, 'some geometry, algebra, arithmetic thoroughly well, vague outlines of geography, Greek to the extent of the alphabet mainly.' His first two years at Annan Academy were among the most miserable in his life, from his being bullied by some of his fellow-pupils, whom he describes as 'coarse, unguided, tyrannous cubs.' But he 'revolted against them and gave them shake for shake.' In his third year, Carlyle had his first glimpse of Edward Irving, who was five years his senior, and had been a pupil at Annan Academy, but was then attending classes at Edinburgh University. In November 1809 Carlyle himself entered that university—travelling on foot all the way, a hundred miles, between Ecclefechan and the Scottish capital. Except in one department, Carlyle's college curriculum was not remarkable. In 'the classical field' he describes himself 'truly as nothing,' and learned to read Homer in the original with difficulty. He preferred Homer and Æschylus to all other classical authors, found Tacitus and Virgil 'really interesting,' Horace 'egotistical, leichtfertig,' and Cicero 'a windy person and a weariness.' Nor did he take much to metaphysics or moral philosophy. In geometry, however, he excelled, perhaps because Professor (subsequently Sir John) Leslie 'alone of my professors had some genius in his business, and awoke a certain enthusiasm in me.' But even in the mathematical class he took no prize.

In 1813 Carlyle's attendance at the Arts course in Edinburgh University came to an end, and he began formal though fitful preparation for the ministry of the Church of Scotland by enrolling

himself, on 16th November of the same year, as a student at its Divinity Hall. In the summer of 1814 he competed successfully at Dumfries for the mathematical mastership of Annan Academy. The post was worth only between £60 and £70 a year; but it enabled Carlyle, who was as frugal as his parents, to relieve his father of the expense of his support and to save a few pounds. Meanwhile he read widely, and wrote of his reading at great length, and with considerable power of satiric characterisation, to some of his college friends. But he found himself 'abundantly lonesome, uncomfortable, and out of place' in Annan, and from the first disliked teaching; while his 'sentiments on the clerical profession' were 'mostly of the unfavourable kind.'

In 1816 Carlyle accepted the post of assistant to the teacher of the parish (or grammar) school of Kirkcaldy, with 'an emolument rated about a hundred a year,' and all actual scholastic duties to perform. This change brought him into intimate relations with Edward Irving, who, having acquired a reputation as a teacher in Haddington, had been induced by the patrons of an adventure school in Kirkcaldy to undertake the management of it. The two, though professionally rivals, became fast friends, and read and made excursions into different parts of Scotland together. Carlyle was also introduced by Irving to various Kirkcaldy families, including that of Mr Martin, the parish minister, one of whose daughters his friend subsequently married. He himself became attached to an ex-pupil of Irving's, a Miss Margaret Gordon, with some of whose graces he afterwards endowed the dark and fickle Blumine of *Sartor Resartus*. She reciprocated Carlyle's affection, but the aunt with whom she lived put a stop to some talk of an engagement.

Carlyle found the people of Kirkcaldy more to his mind than those of Annan; but in two years the work of teaching became altogether intolerable to him, although he did it conscientiously. Successful opposition sprang up to Irving and himself, moreover, in the shape of a third school. Irving resolved to leave Kirkcaldy, and, in September 1818, Carlyle wrote to his father, who had now given up business in Ecclefechan and taken the farm of Mainhill, about two miles distant, that, having saved about £70, he purposed removing to Edinburgh, where he thought he 'could, perhaps, find private teaching to support him, till he could fall into some other way of doing.' He had now totally abandoned all thoughts of entering the ministry.

Carlyle removed to Edinburgh in November 1818. His prospects were for some time dubious; he even entertained the idea of emigrating to America. Ultimately, however, he obtained fairly regular and well-paid private teaching. An introduction to Dr (afterwards Sir David) Brewster, the editor of the *Edinburgh Encyclopædia*, led to his writing articles, chiefly biographical and geographical, for that work, at 'bread-and-butter wages,' and subsequently to his translating Legendre's *Elements of Geometry* from the French for £50. At the beginning of the session of 1819, he enrolled in the class of Scots Law, with the intention of becoming an advocate. But he found law as uncongenial a study as divinity. Till 1822 he lived in various lodgings in Edinburgh, finding his chief relief from tutorial drudgery in visits to his parents in Dumfriesshire. His health, which had suffered from too close application to study, was at times 'most miserable;' he 'was in a low fever for two weeks,' was harassed by sleeplessness, and began to be tortured by his life-long foe, dyspepsia. At the same time his mind was perplexed with doubt on religious matters, regarding which he seems to

have unburdened himself solely to Irving, who was then assistant to Dr Chalmers in Glasgow. For a period he was 'totally irreligious.' This struggle terminated in June 1821, 'all at once,' and when he was walking along Leith Walk (the Rue St Thomas de L'Enfer of *Sartor Resartus*), in what he regarded as his 'spiritual new birth.' He was now absorbed in German literature, especially the writings of Schiller and Goethe. The latter, indeed, had a more abiding influence on him than any other author.

In June 1821 also occurred his introduction, through Irving, to Miss Jane Baillie Welsh (1801-66), only daughter of Dr John Welsh, medical practitioner in Haddington, who had died two years before, leaving his daughter sole heiress of the small estate of Craigenputtock, 16 miles from the town of Dumfries. Miss Welsh, who was descended through her father from John Knox, was then living in Haddington with her mother, who claimed kindred with the patriot Wallace, and, according to Carlyle, 'narrowly missed being a woman of genius.' Miss Welsh had been the private pupil of Irving when he was a teacher in Haddington, and the result of the acquaintance thus brought about was a passionate attachment. They would, indeed, have been married, but for Irving's engagement to Miss Martin. The introduction of Carlyle to Miss Welsh, then twenty years of age, led to a correspondence between them on literary matters. After a time Carlyle attempted to adopt the tone of a lover. This, however, she peremptorily forbade, although she refused other suitors.

Early in 1822 Irving, who was on the point of entering on the pastorate of the Caledonian Chapel in Hatton Garden, London, recommended Carlyle as tutor to the three sons of Mr Buller, a retired Anglo-Indian. The salary offered was £200 a year. Carlyle, who had previously declined the editorship of a Dundee newspaper, accepted the offer; and two of the three, Charles Buller (q.v.) and Arthur, came to Edinburgh in the spring, to be under his care, while attending classes at the university. Carlyle found his duties pleasant, and was now able to give substantial pecuniary aid to his family, particularly as regarded the education of his younger brother John (1801-79), who subsequently became a physician, but is better known as the translator of Dante's *Inferno* (1849). Carlyle, after contemplating a history of the British Commonwealth, and a novel in association with Miss Welsh, arranged to write a *Life of Schiller* for Mr Taylor, the proprietor of the *London Magazine*, and a translation of the *Wilhelm Meister* of Goethe for Mr Boyd, an Edinburgh publisher. These two enterprises fully occupied his leisure while he was engaged as a tutor to the Bullers, whose parents, after spending the winter of 1822 in Edinburgh, removed in the following spring to Kinnaird House, near Dunkeld, on the Tay.

Carlyle paid his first visit to London in June 1824, whither the Bullers had gone, and, although his engagement with them was abruptly broken off, he remained there till March 1825, superintending the publication in book-form of his *Life of Schiller*. At this time he received the first of a series of letters from Goethe, and made the acquaintance of Coleridge, Thomas Campbell, Allan Cunningham, Procter, and other literary notabilities. On March 26, 1825, he removed to the farm of Hoddam Hill, about two miles from Mainhill, which he had leased, his brother Alexander doing the practical work of farming, while he himself translated German romances. Miss Welsh now consented to become his wife, after a lengthened correspondence. In 1826 he quarrelled with his landlord; his father gave up his farm; and both removed to Scotsbrig, another farm in the vicinity

of Ecclefechan. The marriage between Carlyle and Miss Welsh took place on 17th October 1826, at her grandfather's house at Templand, Dumfriesshire, and they at once settled in 21 Comely Bank, Edinburgh. Here Carlyle completed four volumes of translations from Tieck, Musæus, and Richter, which were published under the title of *German Romance*, and commenced a didactic novel, but burned his manuscript. An introduction from Procter to Jeffrey led to his becoming a contributor to the *Edinburgh Review*, his first article, on Jean Paul Richter, appearing in June 1827. The same year, he failed in his candidature for the chair of Moral Philosophy in the university of St Andrews in succession to Dr Chalmers. Various subsequent attempts to obtain an academic position for Carlyle met with no better success.

In May 1828 the Carlyles removed to Mrs Carlyle's little property of Craigenputtock, which, in a letter to Goethe he described as 'the loneliest nook in Britain, six miles removed from any one likely to visit me,' and there they lived for about six years. Carlyle subsisted during this period by writing for a number of Reviews, including the *Edinburgh*, the *Westminster*, the *Foreign Quarterly*, and *Fraser's Magazine*. The chief of the essays which he produced at Craigenputtock are those on Burns, Samuel Johnson, Goethe, Voltaire, Diderot, and Schiller. He also wrote a *History of German Literature*, the best parts of which were subsequently published in the form of essays; and in 1833-34 there appeared by instalments in *Fraser's Magazine*, *Sartor Resartus*, his most characteristic work, the fantastic hero of which, Diogenes Teufelsdröckh, illustrates in his life and opinions the mystical and grotesque 'Philosophy of Clothes.' *Sartor Resartus* is notable in the literary history of Carlyle as revealing the Germanisation of his mind, and his abandonment of the comparatively simple diction of his earlier essays for the thoroughly individual style of his later works—eruptive, ejaculatory, but always powerful, and often rising to an epic sublimity. Life at Craigenputtock was varied on the part of Carlyle by occasional visits to Edinburgh, in one of which the idea of writing his *French Revolution* occurred to him, by a residence of six months in London, during which he made the acquaintance of John Stuart Mill and John Sterling, and by visits from old friends like Jeffrey and new admirers like Emerson. In 1830 Carlyle was reduced to great straits; and he had to borrow £50 from Jeffrey for the expenses of his journey to London, although he declined to accept an annuity of £100 from the same source.

Having by 1834 again saved £200, Carlyle resolved to try his fortune in London, and on June 10 established himself in the house, 5 Cheyne Row, Chelsea, in which he lived till the day of his death. Here he settled down to the writing of his *French Revolution*, which appeared in 1837. This enterprise was almost put an end to in 1835, owing to the destruction, by a servant girl, of all but four or five leaves of the manuscript of the first volume, which had been lent to John Stuart Mill. Carlyle accepted £100 from Mill as compensation for his loss.

In the years 1837, 1838, 1839, and 1840, Carlyle lectured to considerable yet select audiences on 'German Literature,' 'The Successive Periods of European Culture,' 'The Revolutions of Modern Europe,' and 'Heroes, Hero-worship, and the Heroic in History.' Carlyle's yearly earnings from these lectures, the last series of which has been published, varied between £135 and £300, and maintained him and his wife till the *French Revolution* not only established his reputation as a literary genius of the highest order, and as in Goethe's phrase 'a new moral force,' but placed him beyond the possibility of want. Yet, until

late in life, his annual income from literature was not more than £400. In 1838 appeared *Sartor Resartus* in book-form, and the first edition of his *Miscellanies*. The following year Carlyle, who at one time was not averse to the idea of becoming a personal force in politics, published the first of a series of attacks on the shams and corruptions of modern society under the title of *Chartism*. This he followed in 1843 with *Past and Present*, and in 1850 with *Latter-day Pamphlets*, which proved among other things that, if he did not quite approve of slavery, he disapproved of the manner in which it had been abolished in the British dominions. In 1845 appeared *Cromwell's Letters and Speeches*, perhaps the most successful of all his works, inasmuch as it completely revolutionised the public estimate of its subject. In 1851 he published a biography of his friend John Sterling. From this time Carlyle gave himself up entirely to his largest work, *The History of Friedrich II. commonly called Frederick the Great*, the first two volumes of which were published in 1858, and which was concluded in 1865. The preparation of this book led Carlyle to make two excursions to the Continent, which, with a yachting trip to Ostend, two tours in Ireland (on which he intended to write a book based on a diary that was published after his death), and regular visits to his kindred and friends in Scotland, formed the chief distractions from his literary labours. Among the few public movements with which Carlyle identified himself was that which resulted in the establishment of the London Library in 1839. In August 1866 he also allowed himself to be elected chairman of the committee for the defence of Mr Eyre, who had been recalled from his post of Governor of Jamaica on the ground of his having shown unnecessary severity in suppressing a negro insurrection which had broken out in October of the previous year, or as Carlyle put it, for having 'saved the West Indies and hanged one incendiary mulatto, well worth the gallows.'

On November 11, 1865, Carlyle was elected Lord Rector of Edinburgh University by a majority of 657 votes over 310 recorded for Mr Disraeli. On April 2, 1866, the ceremony of his installation took place amidst extraordinary demonstrations of enthusiasm, when he delivered an address in which he embodied his moral experiences in the form of advices to the younger members of his audience. The success attending this visit to Edinburgh was quite obliterated by the news which reached him in Dumfries of the death, on April 21, of Mrs Carlyle, as she was driving in her carriage in Hyde Park. Carlyle's grief developed into remorse when he discovered from certain of her letters, and from a journal which she kept, that during a period of their married life his irritability of temper and unconscious want of consideration for her wishes had caused her much misery and even ill-health, which she studiously concealed from him. It has also been demonstrated by the *Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle* that in the years 1855 and 1856 they were somewhat estranged, owing to Carlyle's liking for the society of Harriet, Lady Ashburton. After the death of Lady Ashburton there were no differences between them, except such as might be expected in the case of two persons of irritable and high-strung natures, and of uncompromising veracity. These *Memorials* are also of note as proving Mrs Carlyle to have been one of the keenest critics, most brilliant letter-writers, and most accomplished women, of her time.

Carlyle wrote no important work after his wife's death, although after a visit to Mentone in 1867, where he partially composed his personal *Reminiscences*, he settled down to his old life in London.

In August 1867 there appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine* his view of British democracy, under the title of 'Shooting Niagara.' He prepared a special edition of his collected works, and added to them in 1875 a fresh volume containing 'The Early Kings of Norway' and an 'Essay on the Portraits of John Knox.' On November 18, 1870, he wrote a letter to the *Times* on the Franco-German Question, defending the attitude of Germany. He expressed privately strong opposition to the Irish policy of Mr Gladstone. In February 1874 he was offered and accepted the Prussian Order of Merit in recognition of his having written the life of Frederick the Great, who founded the Order. Towards the end of the same year Mr Disraeli offered him the Grand Cross of the Bath (with the alternative of a baronetcy) and a pension of 'an amount equal to a good fellowship,' but he declined both.

His eightieth birthday, December 4, 1875, brought Carlyle many tributes of respect, including a gold medal from a number of Scottish admirers, and 'a noble and most unexpected' note from Prince Bismarck. On May 5, 1877, he published a short letter in the *Times*, referring to a rumour that Mr Disraeli, as Premier, meditated forcing on a 'Philo-Turk war against Russia,' and protesting against any such design. This was his last public act. On the 5th February 1881 he died at his house in Chelsea. A burial in Westminster Abbey was offered; but, in accordance with his own wish, he was laid in the churchyard of Ecclefechan beside his kindred. His wife is buried beside her father in the ruined abbey church of Haddington.

The time has not yet come for the passing of a final judgment on Carlyle's position in British literature. He was above all things 'a prophet, in the guise of a man of letters, who predicted the reverse of smooth things for his country and for the world; and it has yet to be seen if his predictions will be fulfilled. But it may be said even now, and without risk of contradiction, that, for good or evil, he exerted a greater influence on British literature during the middle of the nineteenth century, and, through that literature, on the ethical, religious, and political beliefs of his time, than any of his contemporaries; that, as a humorist, using humour seriously and as a weapon for the enforcement of his opinions, he has no superior, combining in himself what is best in Dunbar, Burns, Rabelais, and Swift; that as a master of the graphic in style he has no rival and no second—showing an equal facility in photographing nature and in grasping and presenting in appropriate phraseology the salient points of personal character as exhibited in expression, habits, features, build, and dress.

Of Carlyle, as a man, it is also permissible to say that, irritable, impatient, intolerant, fiercely proud, occasionally hasty in his judgments though he was, preserving to the last, nor caring to get rid of, certain Scottish and Annandale rusticities of manner and mental attitude, no one was ever more essentially self-controlled, patient, and humble than he, or ever faced the real misfortunes of life with a calmer courage; that he was as incapable of conscious injustice, unkindliness, or vindictiveness, as he was of insincerity or impurity; that in pecuniary straits, even in despair, he never wrote a line that he did not believe, never swerved by a hair's breadth from the noble purposes which dominated his life and extinguished all selfish ambition.

The leading authorities on Carlyle are his collected works, of which various editions have been published: *Reminiscences of Thomas Carlyle* (two editions: Froude's and Norton's); Froude's *Thomas Carlyle, a History of the first forty years of his Life, 1795-1835* (published in 1882); the same author's *Thomas Carlyle, a History of his Life in London, 1834-81* (published in 1884); *Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle* (1883); *Corre-*

spondence between Carlyle and Emerson, edited by Charles Eliot Norton (1883); *Early Letters of Thomas Carlyle*, edited by C. E. Norton (1886; second series, 1888); and *Correspondence between Goethe and Carlyle*, edited by C. E. Norton (1887). Of the innumerable other biographies of and books upon Carlyle which have been published since his death, we may mention *Thomas Carlyle, the Man and His Books*, by W. H. Wylie (1881); *Bibliography of Thomas Carlyle*, by R. H. Shepherd (1881); *Thomas Carlyle*, by Moncure D. Conway (1881); *Carlyle, Personally and in his Writings*, by D. Masson (1885); *The Open Secret of Carlyle's Life*, by H. Larkin (1886); and *Life of Thomas Carlyle*, by R. Garnett (1887). See also the articles BIOGRAPHY, BOEHM, BURSARY.

Carmagnola, a town of North Italy, 18 miles S. of Turin by rail. The *condottiere*, Francesco di Bártolommeo Bussone, afterwards Conte di Carmagnola, was born here about 1390. Pop. (1881) 3730.

Carmagnole, the name of a popular song and dance of the French Revolution, every verse of which ended with the refrain :

Dansons la Carmagnole—vive le son du canon !

Littre thinks the name was given to the air from the fact of its being sung by persons wearing the jacket known as *carmagnole*, popular during the Revolution. The *Carmagnole* rivalled in popularity the notorious *Ça ira* itself. Till 1799 both were played by military bands and by stage orchestras; with the *Marseillaise* and the *Chant du Depart*, they carried the French to victory in Italy and Egypt, but Napoleon suppressed them when he became consul.

Carmania, the ancient name of Kerman (q.v.).

Carmarthen (Welsh *Cae'r Fyrdlyn*, the *Martidunum* of Ptolemy), the capital of Carmarthen-shire, on the right bank of the Towy, 39 miles NW. of Swansea, and 56 S. of Aberystwith, by rail. It lies in a picturesque situation; the streets are irregular, steep, and often narrow. The 'winding Towy, Merlin's fabled haunt,' is navigable for vessels of 200 tons up to the town, which is 9 miles from Carmarthen Bay; and salmon are caught in the river. Steele is buried in the old parish church: a ruined castle of the Welsh princes was in 1787 incorporated in a new county gaol; Generals Picton and Nott, both natives, are commemorated by an obelisk and a bronze statue; and a lunatic asylum (1863) and training-college (1847) may also be noticed. Near the town are tin and iron works; and Carmarthen exports tin-plates, slates, domestic produce, &c. It unites with Llanelli in returning one member to parliament. Pop. (1851) 10,524; (1881) 10,512.

Carmarthenshire, a maritime county of South Wales, washed on the S. by Carmarthen Bay, a semicircular inlet of the Bristol Channel, and bounded on the other sides by Pembroke, Cardigan, Brecknock, and Glamorgan shires. The largest of all the Welsh counties, it has a maximum length and breadth of 45½ and 26 miles, and an area of 947 sq. m., of which 70·8 per cent. is under cultivation. The county is mountainous in the north and east, and is characterised by productive though narrow valleys and deep, wooded glens; Carmarthen Van or Beacon (2596 feet) is the highest summit. The coast is marshy; the chief river is the Towy, which has a course of 65 miles, five-sixths in Carmarthenshire. It yields plenty of salmon, trout, eels, and lamprey, and is navigable for the last 9 miles of its course. On this river is the celebrated vale of the Towy, 30 miles long, with an average breadth of 2 miles. Carmarthenshire, north and west of the Towy, comprising three-fourths of the county, consists of Lower Silurian clay-slate and graywacke. In the

south-east corner of the county is a band of carboniferous limestone and grit, to which succeeds a small part of the great South Welsh coal-field, chiefly composed of stone-coal and culm. The mineral productions of the county are iron, coal, copper, lead, slates, lime, dark-blue marble. These, with tinned iron, grain, cattle, horses, sheep, and butter, are exported. The climate is mild, but moist; the soil is stiff and poor in the uplands, affording pasturage for small cattle; but the rest of the county is well wooded, and in the south part along the rivers very fertile. Agriculture is rather backward, the chief crops are oats and barley. The principal towns are Carmarthen (the county town), Llanelli, Llandilo-vawr; Llandovery, and Newcastle-Emlyn. The chief manufactures are woollens and leather. Pop. (1801) 67,317; (1841) 106,326; (1881) 124,864, largely Welsh-speaking. Carmarthenshire sends one member to parliament for each of its eastern and western divisions. Traversed by the old Roman Julian way, the county contains several so-called Druidical remains, the ruins of Dynevor and Carroccennin castles, and remains of four religious houses. It was the birthplace of the 'Rebecca' Riots (q.v.), directed in 1843-44 against the turnpike-gates.

Carmathians. See KARMATHIANS.

Carmel is a limestone-ridge which runs from SE. to NW. for 14 miles, forming the only great promontory on the low coast of Palestine. It attains a height of 1887 feet. On the east are the river Kishon and the Plain of Esdraelon. The name Carmel signifies 'orchard,' and the mountain is still richly clad with pine and holm-oak trees, and in its lower parts with olive, walnut, and bay trees, and a great variety of plants and flowers. Its excellency above the rest of Western Palestine was due to its abundant springs of water. The caves of Carmel, to the number (it is said) of 1000, have often been a refuge for the persecuted and for hermits. Mount Carmel, the scene of Elijah's sacrifice, is renowned in Jewish history, and is often alluded to in the imagery of the prophets. On its north-west point, which rises 500 feet above the sea, there is a monastery, the monks in which are Carmelites (q.v.). The mountain's usual modern name, *Mar Elias*, indicates its connection in the popular mind with the life of the great prophet.

Carmelites, or ORDER OF OUR LADY OF MOUNT CARMEL, a monastic order founded as an association of hermits on Mount Carmel by Berthold, a pilgrim or crusader from Calabria about 1156. A legend, however, ascribes the foundation of the order to the prophet Elijah; and another makes the Virgin Mary to have been a Carmelite nun. They received the rule of their order from the patriarch Albert of Jerusalem in 1209, and it was confirmed by Pope Honorius III. in 1224. Driven out by the Saracens, they settled first in Cyprus (1238), then in various parts of Western and Southern Europe, and at their first general chapter held at Aylesford in England in 1245, they elected as their head Simon Stock, under whom they were changed into a mendicant order by Pope Innocent IV. in 1247. From that time they shared in the usual vices of the mendicant orders. They subsequently divided into several branches, more or less rigid in their rules, one distinguished by walking barefooted. They exist at the present day in many Roman Catholic countries, and have charge of the Casa Santa at Loreto. Their distinctive dress is a scapulary of gray cloth. In 1880, 176 Carmelites were banished from France.—The order of *Carmelites*, or *Carmelite Nuns*, was instituted by the Carmelite general Soreth in 1452, and is very numerous in Italy. It played a considerable part in France in

the last century, and counted among its members La Vallière and the daughter of Louis XV.

Carmen Sylva, the pen-name of Elizabeth, queen of Roumania, who was born 29th December 1843, the daughter of Prince Hermann of Wied Neuwied, and Maria of Nassau, and married King (then Prince) Charles of Roumania in 1869. Her only child, a daughter, died in 1874, and out of this great sorrow of her life arose her literary activity. Two poems, printed privately at Leipzig in 1880 under the name 'Carmen Sylva,' were followed by *Stürme* (Bonn, 1881), *Leidens Erdengang* (Berlin, 1882; translated into English as *Pilgrim Sorrow* by Helen Zimmern, 1884), *Jehovah* (Leip. 1882), *Ein Gebet* (Berlin, 1882), and *Pensées d'une Reine* (Paris, 1882). Many of the translations in *Rumän. Dichtungen* (Leip. 1881) are from her pen. Another book, in which she worked into literary form many native traditions of her adopted country, is *Pelesch-Märchen* (Leip. 1883). In the war of 1877-78, as *munia rântilor* ('mother of the wounded'), she endeared herself to her people by her devotion to the wounded soldiers, and since that time she has diligently fostered the national women's industries.

Carmin'atives (from Lat. *carmen*, 'a charm'), medicines to relieve flatulence and pain in the bowels, such as cardamom, peppermint, ginger, and other stimulating aromatics.

Carmine (Arabic *Kermes*) is the red colouring principle obtained from the cochineal insect (see COCHINEAL). The method by which it is prepared is said to have been accidentally discovered by a Franciscan monk at Pisa, while compounding a medicine containing cochineal; and in 1656 its manufacture was begun. There are several processes by which carmine may be prepared, all of which in effect depend on exhausting powdered cochineal with boiling water, and precipitating the pigment by the addition of a weak acid or an acid salt. The following is an example of the processes: Digest 1 lb. of cochineal in 3 gallons of water for 15 minutes, then add 1 oz. of cream of tartar, heat gently for 10 minutes, add $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of alum, boil for 2 or 3 minutes, and after allowing impurities to settle, the clear liquid is placed in clean glass pans, when the carmine slowly separates and deposits. After sufficient time the liquid is drained off, and the pigment is dried in the shade. It is alleged that bright sunny weather is essential to the production of the finest qualities. Hence it is said the United Kingdom is unfavourably situated for the manufacture; but the fact is that details of successful processes are guarded with jealous care; and in all probability brightness and purity of product are due to important minor details in the manufacturing process. Carmine is soluble in water, weak spirit, and in ammoniacal solutions; the latter agent affording a ready means of detecting the presence of the adulterants—chalk, China clay, and vermilion—frequently added to the costly pigment. Carmine is a most beautiful pinky red, sometimes used for silk and wool dyeing, but more sought for colouring fine confections, and dyeing feathers and artificial flowers; and it is not unknown as cosmetic rouge. Carmine Lake, prepared with alumina, is a most important artist's colour. There are various other tinctorial agents known under the name of carmine, of which the commonest are Archil Carmine made from Archil (q.v.); Brilliant Carmine Red, a lake of Brazil-wood; Indigo Carmine, a purple preparation of indigo, and Sorgho Carmine, obtained from the juice of the sugar or Chinese Sorghum, *Sorghum Saccharatum*.

Carmona, a town of Andalusia, Spain, 27 miles ENE. of Seville by rail, is picturesquely situated, and commands an imposing view of the valley

of the Guadalquivir. Julius Cæsar speaks of *Carmo* or *Carmona* as 'by far the strongest city of the whole province of further Spain.' Recent important excavations on the site of the ancient necropolis, to the west of the modern town, have brought to light a large number of tombs and funeral triclinia in almost perfect preservation. Considerable portions of the Moorish wall and Alcazar still remain. Pop. (1877) 17,426.

Carnac, a village in the French department of Morbihan, 20 miles SE. of Lorient. Pop. about 700. It is remarkable on account of the number and variety of the Celtic monuments and Gallo-Roman ruins, consisting of Menhirs (q.v.), Dolmens (q.v.), and Tumuli, with which the neighbourhood is studded. The principal group of menhirs is situated on a sterile moor near the seashore, and consists of 1000 or more rude monoliths of granite, resting with their smaller ends in the ground, rising, many of them, to a height of 18 feet, though a large proportion do not exceed 3 feet. They are arranged in 11 roughly parallel rows, with two slight breaks, extend from east to west about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in length, and have at one end a curved row of 18 stones, the extremities of which touch the outer horizontal rows. The origin and object of the monument remain a mystery. Smaller monuments of the same character as the great one at Carnac are found to the west of it at Erleven and St Barbe. The Bossenno, a group of mounds, about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Carnac, otherwise called 'Cæsar's Camp,' contains the principal Roman remains, and was first explored systematically by Mr Miln (1874-80). The result was the discovery of buildings giving evidence of the existence of a Gallo-Roman settlement at the Bossenno. Numerous remains were found consisting chiefly of pottery (some of it very fine), tiles, bronze and iron objects, fine glass ware, Roman coins, statuary, and food refuse. While most of the pottery is evidently of Gaulish and Roman origin, many of the bronze ornaments are of Celtic type, and the coins all Roman, with dates from 200 to 353 A.D. The houses had evidently been destroyed by fire, but no human remains were found. See STANDING STONES, and Miln's *Excavations at Carnac* (2 vols. 1877-81). For Karnak in Egypt, see THEBES.

Carnahuba, or CARANAIBA PALM (*Copernicia cerifera*), a very beautiful and useful palm, which abounds in the northern parts of Brazil, in some places, particularly river-banks, forming vast forests. It attains a height of only 20 to 40 feet, but its timber is put to many uses, and is even fine enough for veneering. The olive-like fruit is eaten, and the seeds are roasted as a substitute for coffee, the terminal bud yields a palm-cabbage, and the pith a kind of sago; while the leaves are used in thatching, mat-making, &c. (For the extraordinary variety of uses to which it is put, see Wells' *Brazil*, 1886). Like *Ceroxylon andicola*, this tree is also an important source of palm-wax; this substance exudes in scales from the under sides of the cut leaves, and drops off when these are dried and shaken. This wax is melted into masses, and beeswax is often adulterated with it. It has been imported into Britain, and used in the manufacture of candles.

Carnarvon, HENRY HOWARD MOLYNEUX HERBERT, EARL OF, born in 1831, from Eton passed to Christ Church, Oxford, where in 1852 he took a first-class in classics. He had succeeded his father as fourth earl in 1849, so now entered the Upper House as a Conservative, and in 1866 accepted from Lord Derby the office of Colonial Secretary. As such he had moved the second reading of an important bill for the confederation of the British North American colonies, when, with the

future Marquis of Salisbury, he resigned office upon the Reform Bill of 1867, which he regarded as democratic and dangerous. On Disraeli's return to power in 1874, Lord Carnarvon resumed office as Colonial Secretary, once more, however, to resign in January 1878 in consequence of the despatch of the British fleet to the Dardanelles. During the brief Conservative administration of 1885-86 he was Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and his negotiations with Mr Parnell gave rise, two years later, to considerable controversy. He is author of *The Druses of Mount Lebanon* (1860), *Reminiscences of Athens and the Morea* (1869), and translations of the *Agamemnon* (1879) and the *Odyssey* (1886).

Carnarvon (*Caer-yn-ar-Fon*, 'fort opposite Mon or Anglesea'), a parliamentary and municipal borough and seaport in North Wales, the capital of Carnarvonshire, stands near the south end of the Menai Strait, on the right bank of the Seiont, 69 miles W. of Chester. Carnarvon has a castle situated at the west end of the town, the building of which was commenced by Edward I. in 1283. It is one of the noblest ruins in the kingdom, the walls, which are 7 to 9 feet thick, being still entire, and inclosing an oblong of three acres. There are thirteen embattled towers, with five, six, or eight sides, and surmounted by turrets. The gateway under the great square tower has four portcullises. The town itself was once surrounded by walls and round towers. These walls, with several of the gates, still exist, but are now within the town. Carnarvon unites with Pwllheli, Nevyn, Criccieth, Conway, and Bangor in returning one member to parliament. The harbour admits ships of 400 tons. The chief exports are slates, stones, and ores. There are also iron and brass foundries. Carnarvon is a bathing-place, and is much frequented by tourists on account of its vicinity to the grandest scenery in North Wales, and its very convenient railway connections. Pop. (1851) 8674; (1881) 10,237. Half a mile from Carnarvon are the remains, covering seven acres, of Segontium, or Caer Seiont, a Roman station or city. Gold, silver, and copper coins and ornaments, and other Roman relics, have been found here. There is a Roman fort on the left bank of the Seiont, still almost complete, with walls 11 feet high, and 6 feet thick. Carnarvon was the seat of the native princes of North Wales down to 873. In 1284 was born here, the first Anglo-Norman Prince of Wales, afterwards the unhappy Edward II. In 1294 the town and castle were burned, and the English inhabitants massacred by the Welsh under Madoc, the illegitimate son of Llewelyn, a native prince of Wales. From the Twt Hill (190 feet) near the town there is a fine view of Snowdon and the island of Anglesey.

Carnarvonshire, a maritime county of North Wales, bounded E. and SE. by Denbigh and Merioneth shires, and on all other sides by the Irish Sea and the Menai Strait. With a maximum length and breadth of 34 and 23 miles, it has an area of 379 sq. m., of which 50.7 per cent. is under cultivation. The surface is grandly mountainous, traversed by the highest ranges in South Britain. The chief of these runs right along the middle of the county, from south-west to north-east, and is very bold and rocky. It attains its maximum altitude in Snowdon (q.v.), 3571 feet, in the centre of the county, the loftiest summit south of the Scottish Border. Carnarvon Bay is 34 miles across, and 16 deep, with 2 to 30 fathoms water; it communicates with the Irish Sea through the Menai Strait, which is 14 miles long, and 200 yards to 2 miles broad. The rivers of Carnarvon are numerous, but small. The chief is the Conway, which is navigable for 10 miles, and runs along the east border. Almost

all the streams flow through small lakes or tarns—of which there are 50 or 60 in the county—around the central or Snowdon group of mountains. There are many fine cataracts on these streams. Igneous rocks almost everywhere intrude on the Lower Silurian and Cambrian beds; and the mineral products of Carnarvon include copper, lead, zinc, coal, roofing and writing slates. The Penrhyn slate-quarries employ many thousands of workmen. The chief towns are Carnarvon (the county town), Bangor, Pwllheli, Conway, Nevyn, and Criccieth. In addition to the above boroughs, several flourishing towns and tourist centres have come into prominence—Llandudno, Tremaloc, Bethesda, Bettws-y-Coed, Llanberis, and Beddgelert. The county returns two members to parliament—one for the south or Efon division, and one for the north or Arfon division. Pop. (1801) 41,521; (1841) 81,093; (1881) 119,349. Carnarvon contains several hill-forts, stone-circles, two Roman stations, some ruined castles, and vestiges of monasteries. The Snowdonian mountains were long the stronghold of the Welsh against the Romans, Saxons, and Normans in their efforts to subjugate Wales, and here the Welsh were conquered by Edward I. in 1277-82.

Carnatic, a region on the east or Coromandel coast of India, now included in the province of Madras, extending inland to the Eastern Ghats, and lengthwise from Cape Comorin to 16° N. It extended for about 600 miles along the east coast, and from 50 to 100 miles inland. The name *Karnataka* was originally applied by its Mohammedan conquerors to Mysore and the country above the Ghats. In course of time the same term has come to be applied exclusively to the country below the Ghats. The Carnatic is no longer an administrative division, but is memorable as the theatre of the struggle of last century between France and England for supremacy in India.

Carnation, one of the finest of florists' flowers, a double-flowering variety of the Clove Pink (*Dianthus caryophyllus*, see PINK), and existing only in a state of cultivation, of which, however, we have traditions as early as the 13th century. The taller *Tree Carnations* (*D. fruticosus*, usually reckoned a sub-species or variety of the preceding) are less esteemed by florists. 'Scarlet, purple, and pink are the prevailing colours; but whatever are the colours of a carnation, it is of no value in the eyes of a florist unless they are perfectly distinct. Fullness and perfect regularity are also deemed essential.' Despite this crude standard of selective taste, happily now developing towards a subtler and more refined appreciation of form and colour, the varieties are extremely numerous: those which have only one colour, disposed in large stripes through the white ground of the petals, are called *Flake Carnations*; those which have two or three shades of colour, also in stripes, *Bizarre Carnations*; and those which have the edge bordered with a different colour from the white or yellow ground are called *Picotees*; in these the limb is often spotted and the petals fringed. By French florists a different but equally arbitrary classification is adopted. Carnations are propagated in summer either by layers or by *pipings*, which are short cuttings of shoots that have not yet flowered, each having two joints.

Carneades, a Greek philosopher, born at Cyrene, in Africa, about 213 B.C. He studied logic at Athens under Diogenes, but became a partisan of the Academy, and an enemy of the Stoics, whose stern and almost dogmatic ethics did not suit his sceptical predilections. He was in fact one of the most important of the ancient sceptics, and held that no criterion of truth exists

either in the senses or the understanding of man. He was founder of the Third or New Academy. In 155 B.C., along with Diogenes and Critolaus, he was sent as ambassador to Rome, where he delivered two orations on justice, in the first of which he eulogised the virtue, and in the second proved that it did not exist. Honest Cato, who had no relish for intellectual jugglery, and thought it a knavish excellence at the best, moved the senate to send the philosopher home to his school, lest the Roman youth should be demoralised. Carneades died at Athens, 129 B.C.

Carnegie, ANDREW, iron-master, was born 25th November 1835, in Dunfermline, whence his father, a humble weaver, emigrated in 1845 to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. After tending a small stationary engine for a time, young Carnegie passed through the grades of telegraph messenger and operator to railway clerk, and finally superintendent. Fortunate speculations in oil were followed by the establishment of a rolling-mill, from which has grown up the largest system of iron and steel works in the world. Besides erecting public buildings in his native place, he has added a laboratory to Bellevue Hospital, in New York, and given \$500,000, \$250,000, and £50,000 respectively to Pittsburgh, Allegheny City, and Edinburgh for free libraries. He has published records of his holiday coaching tours, and *Triumphant Democracy* (1886).

Carnelian, or CORNELIAN, in Mineralogy, the name given to some of the finer varieties of Chalcedony (q.v.). The colour is blood red or flesh-colour, reddish brown, reddish white or yellow, more rarely milk white. The fracture is in the common carnelian perfectly conchoidal, but there is a variety of a somewhat fibrous structure with a splintery fracture. Carnelian is found in pieces of irregular form and in lamellar concretions. The finest specimens are brought from the East, but it is found in Scotland and in many parts of Europe and America. It is much used by the lapidary, and in the East it is prized beyond every other stone, the gems excepted. Bright red carnelian of unmixt colour is most highly valued, but a mass of considerable size is seldom found with the colour equal throughout.

Carniola (Ger. *Krain*), a south-west crown-land of the Austrian empire, has an area of 3856 sq. m., and a pop. (1886) of 494,912, of whom 30,000 are Germans and 16,000 Croats, the rest being Slavs of the Slovenian branch. It is traversed in the north by a continuation of the Carinthian Alps, and in the south by the Julian Alps, the loftiest summit being the Terglou (9393 feet), between the two sources of the Save, which is the principal river. The scenery of the country abounds in interesting and singular features, amongst which are Lake Zirknitz (q.v.), the Adelsberg Grotto (q.v.), and the rock-bridge of St Kanzian, 131 feet high, and 164 feet broad, with a perfect arch 65 feet high. The climate is in general mild, except in the high mountainous parts. The country does not produce corn or cattle enough to supply the wants of its inhabitants, and buckwheat, millet, pulse, and wild-fruits are principal articles of food of many. Some districts yield excellent wines and much fine fruit. Flax, silk, maize, and honey are produced. The chief minerals are iron, quicksilver, and brown coal; the quicksilver mines of Idria are, next to Almaden, the most important in Europe. Linen-weaving and the manufacture of a coarse lace are practised. Laibach is the capital. Carniola received its present name (from the Slav *krai*, 'frontier') after the settlement here of the Slovenians. From 972 it had margraves of its own; but in 1245 and 1364 it passed to the

Dukes of Austria. See three historical works by Dimitz (6 vols. Laibach, 1874-86).

Carnival (Ital. *Carnovale*; from late Lat. *carnelevamen*, 'a solace of the flesh'; incorrectly explained as if meaning 'farewell to flesh,' as in Byron's *Beppo*), a festival which originally began on the day following the feast of the Epiphany, and continued till midnight on Shrove-Tuesday. With Ash-Wednesday of course began the fast of Lent, which made an end of the preceding feasting, masquerading, and buffoonery. In later times, the Carnival was limited to the time of from three to eight days before Ash-Wednesday. Without doubt the forms and customs still preserved in the celebration of the Carnival originated in the heathen festivals of spring-time; and they still remind us partly of the Lupercalia and Bacchanalia of Southern Europe, and partly of the Yule-feast among northern peoples. Banquets of rich meats and drinking-bouts were the chief attractions of the Carnival during the middle ages. Shrovetide, or Shrove-Tuesday, called also Fasten-Even or Pancake-Tuesday, was a relic of the English Carnival, and formerly a season of extraordinary sport and feasting. The rich commenced the festive time at the feast of Epiphany, or on 'Three Kings' Day; but the middle classes restricted their days of revelry to the week immediately preceding Lent; while the poor indulged in only a few days of mad mirth. The several chief days of Carnival had distinct names, such as 'fat' or 'greasy Sunday,' 'blue Monday' (or 'fools' consecration'), &c. The Tuesday before the beginning of Lent was especially styled Carnival—the *Fasnacht* of the German people. In Germany it is celebrated in the cities of the Rhine provinces, but has even been revived in the austerer north—in Leipzig, Hamburg, and Berlin. In most countries the celebration is confined to wearing of masks, processions in costume, and masked balls. In the south of France and throughout Italy, especially in the cities, it is still a popular festival of universal observance. Venice used to be pre-eminent for the splendour of its carnivals: that of Rome is now the best known. Here, races of riderless horses (*barbieri*) along the crowded Corso are one of the chief items in its celebration; as also here and elsewhere the throwing of flowers and plaster confections (*coriandoli*) from the windows and balconies on the occupants of the carriages and processional cars in the streets, and a return fire from below.

Carnivora, a well-defined order of Mammals more or less efficiently adapted for predaceous life, and including most of the forms popularly known as Beasts of Prey. It partly corresponds with the order *Ferr* defined by Linnaeus, but the latter included also Marsupials and Insectivora. Not all animals carnivorous in diet are Carnivora in structure, for the Dasyure or Tasmanian Devil is a Marsupial, and the blood-sucking *Desmodus* is a bat. Nor are all the members of the order Carnivora in diet purely carnivorous, for the polar bears eat grass greedily, the rats are very partial to honey, and many forms eat fruits, berries, insects, molluscs, or crustaceans in a highly omnivorous manner.

General Characters.—The dentition of most Carnivora is very characteristic; there are in each jaw six pointed cutting teeth, two strong sharp recurved canines, and molar teeth often adapted for cutting. The skull is short and dense. The lower jaw works up and down in a deep transverse semi-cylindrical groove, and there are deep hollows on the sides and prominent crests on the roof of the skull for the reception and insertion of the powerful muscles which work the jaw. The toes are clawed, with more or less pointed nails almost always well developed.

As one would expect in animals with a vigorous life-experience, the convolutions of the brain and olfactory lobes are well developed. In contrast to herbivorous animals, the stomach is simple, and the



Skull of Tiger.

cæcum or blind process of the intestine is either absent or small. The placentation is deciduate and generally zonary. Carnivorous diet, vagrant predatory habit, fierce disposition, and high intelligence are familiarly characteristic.

Classification.—It becomes at once necessary to distinguish two sub-orders (*a*) the typical, terrestrial Carnivora (*Fissipedia*), and (*b*) the aberrant, aquatic forms (*Pinnipedia*), which may be thus contrasted:

FISSIPEDIA.	PINNIPEDIA.
Terrestrial, at most partially aquatic.	Aquatic, except at birth.
Special cutting back-tooth in each jaw.	Very uniform back-teeth.
Incisors almost always 3.	Always fewer.
Strong curved sharp claws.	Webbed feet.
First and fifth digits of hind-foot never longer than the others.	Outmost and inmost toes of hind-foot predominate in length and strength.

The second sub-order, with its numerous adaptive characters, has doubtless been derived from the first, and is divided into three families, with about fifty species: (1) Otariidæ (Sea-bears), nearest the typical Carnivores, (2) Trichecidæ (Walrus), and (3) Phocidæ (Seals). Some Tertiary fossil forms are known, but they are not nearer the typical Carnivores than those now existing.

Cuvier proposed to divide the typical carnivores into Plantigrades, walking on the entire sole—e.g. bears, and Digitigrades, walking on finger-tips—e.g. cats; but these physiological differences are rendered useless by the multitude of transitional links connecting them, and besides, as an accurate fact, the majority of Carnivores 'belong to neither one form nor the other, but may be called sub-plantigrade.' It is at once more accurate and useful to divide the typical Carnivores into three sections, represented familiarly by bear, dog, and cat, and technically known as Arctoidea, Cynoidea, and Feluroidea. The distinctions are based on certain features in the base of the skull, but are corroborated by other more general characteristics. There are about 300 living species.

(1) The *Arctoidea*, which are least specialised, and nearest the aquatic sub-order, include the following families: (*a*) Mustelidæ—e.g. Otter (*Lutra*), Sea-otter (*Enhydra*), Skunk (*Mephitis*), Sand-bear (*Arctonyx*), Badger (*Meles*, *Taxidea*), Ratel (*Mellivora*), Grison (*Galeotis*), Marten and Sable (*Mustela*), Stoat or Ermine (*Putorius*), Glutton (*Gulo*), &c.; (*b*) Procyonidæ—e.g. Raccoon (*Procyon*), Coati (*Nasua*), Kinkajou (*Cercoleptes*); (*c*) Ailuridæ—e.g. Panda (*Ailurus*); (*d*) Ursidæ—e.g. Bear (*Ursus*).

(2) The *Cynoidea* (q.v.), occupying a median position, include numerous forms in two series represented by dog and fox.

(3) The *Feluroidea*, comprising the most specialised carnivores, include four families: (*a*) Felidæ—e.g. Cat, Lion, Tiger, Jaguar, Cheetah (*Felis*); (*b*) Viverridæ—e.g. Civet (*Viverra*), Binturong (*Arctictis*), Ichneumon (*Herpestes*); (*c*) Hyenidæ—e.g. Aardwolf (*Proteles*), and Hyæna.

Pedigree and History.—The fossil history of Carnivora is of great interest, for not only have some remarkable forms like the sabretoothed tiger (*Machairodus*, q.v.) been unearthed, but the various families are linked together, as the cats and civets by *Proviverra*, and the ancestors of at least the cats and the dogs are found in primitive generalised carnivores, such as *Miacis*, *Oxyæna*, and *Arctocyon*. The group affords beautiful illustration of increasing and of divergent specialisation as illustrated in the passage from primitive forms to the lion on the one hand and the seal on the other. As to the relation of the Carnivora to other orders of mammals, speculation is rife, but firmly based conclusions hard to find. Looking backward, some naturalists have discovered affinities with the marsupials, while others looking forward have with more abundant evidence regarded the primitive carnivores as ancestral to Insectivora, and through them to Chiroptera. Some, again, find affinities between Cetacea and carnivores, though this is vigorously denied by other authorities. See Huxley, *Anatomy of Vertebrate Animals*; and Flower, *Osteology of Mammalia*.

Carnivorous Plants. See INSECTIVOROUS PLANTS, DIONÆA, SUNDEW.

Carnot, LAZARE NICOLAS MARGUERITE, the 'organiser of victory' during the early wars of the French Revolution, was born at Nolay, Burgundy, in 1753. He entered the army as engineer. In 1791 he became a member of the Legislative Assembly, and in the Convention voted for the death of Louis XVI. During a mission to the army of the north, he took temporary command and gained the victory of Wattignies. On his return he was elected into the Committee of Public Safety and intrusted with the organisation of the armies of the Revolution, in that task displaying marvellous energy and ability. In a short time he raised fourteen armies, and drew up a plan of operations, by which the forces of the European reaction were repelled from the frontier. Though he endeavoured to restrict the power of Robespierre, he was accused, with others, after the Reign of Terror; but the charge was dismissed. Carnot was a member of the Directory at its institution in 1795, but in 1797, having opposed the extreme measures of Barras, his colleague, he was sentenced to deportation as a suspected royalist. He escaped into Germany, where he wrote his defence, which conduced to the overthrow of his colleagues in 1799. The 18th Brumaire brought him back to Paris, where he was made Minister of War, 1800; and by his energy, skill, and fertility of administrative resource, helped to achieve the brilliant results of the Italian and Rhenish campaigns. He retired, however, from his office when he understood the ambitious plans of the emperor, but hastened, when he witnessed the reverses of the empire, to offer his services to Napoleon, who gave him the command of Antwerp in 1814, which he heroically defended. During the Hundred Days he held office as Minister of the Interior; and after the second restoration retired first to Warsaw, and next to Magdeburg, where he died in 1823. Of his numerous writings on mathematics, military tactics, &c., the best is *Réflexions sur la Métaphysique du Calcul Infinitesimal* (1797).

See his *Mémoires* (2 vols. 1861-64), and the *Lives* of him by Arago (1850) and Picaud (1885).—His son, NICOLAS LEONARD SADI, founder of the science of thermo-dynamics, was born at Paris, 1st June 1796; studied at the Polytechnic, served in the engineers, and became captain; but died of cholera, 24th August 1832. His principal work is the *Réflexions sur la Puissance du Feu* (1824), (see THERMO-DYNAMICS).—Another son, LAZARE HIPPOLYTE CARNOT, born at St Omer, 6th April 1801, one of the leaders of the French democracy, was in early life a disciple of St Simon, but, like others, left that school on account of the lax morals advocated by Enfantin—protesting against 'the organisation of adultery'—and devoted himself to the inculcation of a more orthodox and virtuous socialism in various periodicals. After the February Revolution (1848) he was appointed Minister of Public Instruction, but soon resigned. In 1863 he entered the Corps Législatif, and the National Assembly in 1871. He was elected a senator for life in 1875, and died 16th March 1888. He wrote an *Exposé* of St Simonianism and *Mémoires* of Henri Gregoire and of Barrère.—MARIE FRANCOIS SADI CARNOT, President of the French Republic, born at Limoges, 11th August 1837, is the eldest son of the last named. He studied at the École Polytechnique, and is by profession a civil engineer. In 1871 he was chosen to the National Assembly, and was finance minister in the Brisson Cabinet of 1879, as also in the Freycinet Cabinet of 1887. In December 1887 he was, on the resignation of Grévy, chosen President of the Republic, a result largely due to the circumstance that the leading factions could not agree as to their special candidates. The president bears a high character for moderation and integrity.

Carnuntum, a Celtic town of Pannonia, on the Danube, important in Roman days as a trading and garrison post, and station of the Danube flotilla. Only extensive ruins of the town, which was destroyed by the invading Magyars in the 9th century, now remain, about 16 miles E. of Vienna.

Caro, ANNIBALE, Italian author and poet, born at Cittanuova in Ancona, 1507, lived as secretary with a succession of cardinals, and died at Rome in 1566. Only two humorous works appeared during his lifetime; the rest of his writings, including the *Rime*, a translation of the *Æneid*, a play, and four series of letters, have been most of them often republished, and, from their elegant style and masterly handling of Tuscan, are still esteemed classics.

Caro, ELME MARIE, a French philosopher, was born at Poitiers, March 4, 1826. After studies at the École Normale of Paris, and at Angers and Douai, he became in 1857 a lecturer at the École Normale, ten years later professor at the Sorbonne. In 1876 he was elected to the French Academy. He died 13th July 1887. His Wednesday lectures at the Sorbonne were exceedingly popular, and were never too difficult for the fashionable ladies who thronged to hear them. Pailleron made 'le philosophe des dames' the butt of his clever railery in his well-known comedy *Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie*. Caro's chief works are *Le Mysticisme au XVIII. Siècle* (1852-54), *L'Idée de Dieu et ses nouveaux Critiques* (1864), *Le Matérialisme et la Science* (1868), *Le Pessimisme au XIX. Siècle* (1878), *La Philosophie de Goethe* (2d ed. 1880), *George Sand* in 'Les Grands Écrivains Français,' and *Mélanges et Portraits* (1888).

Carob, ALGAROBIA, or LOCUST-TREE (*Ceratonia siliqua*), a tree of the order Leguminosæ, sub-order Cæsalpinieæ, a native of the Mediterranean countries. In size and manner of growth it some-

what resembles the apple-tree, but with abruptly pinnate dark evergreen leaves, which have two or three pair of large oval leaflets. The flowers are destitute of corolla; the fruit is a brown leathery pod, 4 to 8 inches long, a little curved, and containing a fleshy and at last spongy and mealy pulp, of an agreeable sweet taste, in which lie a number of shining brown seeds, somewhat resembling small flattened beans. The seeds are bitter and of no



Branch of Carob.

use (although they were formerly used as weights by jewellers, and are said to be the original of their *carats*), but the sweet pulp renders the pods an important article of food to the poorer classes of the countries in which the tree grows. In Cyprus, &c., they are even pressed for their sugar, the residue being given with fodder. They are much used by the Moors and Arabs. They are also valuable as food for horses and cattle, for which they are much employed in the south of Europe, and are also imported into Britain under the name of Locust Beans, which name and that of St John's Bread they have received in consequence of an ancient opinion or tradition, that they and not the true (insect) locust are the 'locusts' which formed the food of John the Baptist in the wilderness. It seems more probable that they are the 'husks' (*keration*) of the parable of the Prodigal Son.—The Arabs make of the pulp of the carob a preserve like tamarinds, which is gently aperient.—The carob-tree is too tender for the climate of Britain, but its extensive introduction into the north of India has been recommended. The produce is extremely abundant, some trees yielding as much as 800 or 900 lb. of pods. The wood is hard, and much valued, and the bark and leaves are used for tanning.—The LOCUST-TREE (q.v.) of America is quite distinct from this.

Carol, originally a term for a dance, or for songs intermingled with dancing, came afterwards to signify festive songs, particularly such as were sung at Christmas. In England the practice of singing Christmas carols was widely spread as early as the 15th century, to which date belong many of the carols printed in the collections of Ritson, Wright, and Sandys. Some of these ancient carols—'Cherry Tree Carol,' the 'Carol of St Stephen,' and others—preserve curious legends that have descended from a remote past. Unfortunately many of the traditional carols are not extant in early manuscript copies, and were greatly corrupted when they found their way into print. In the second half of the 18th century, a Birmingham publisher, T. Bloomer, did good service by issuing (in broadside form) all the carols that came to his notice. The first printed collection of carols

came from the press of Wynkyn de Worde in 1521. A unique fragment of it is extant, containing the famous 'Boar's Head Carol,' which is still sung at Queen's College, Oxford, on Christmas-day. Another collection (of which only a fragment has come down), printed by Richard Kele, appeared about 1550. In Ravenscroft's *Melismata* (1611) is found the carol 'Remember, O thou Man,' with musical accompaniment; and there are well-known carols, of a somewhat later date, among the *Roxburghe Ballads*. Besides the sacred carols that were sung in the open air, there were jovial carols that were sung at Christmas feasts. A small black-letter collection of these pieces was published in 1642, another in 1661, another is undated, and a fourth appeared in 1688. These collections, which are of the highest rarity, contain curious specimens of the songs that were sung by shepherds and ploughmen at Christmas entertainments in farm-houses. The Puritans did their best to discourage carol-singing; but the practice revived at the Restoration, and continued throughout the 18th century. Hone, writing early in the 19th century, predicted that in the course of a few years Christmas carols would be heard no more. His prediction has not been fulfilled; but for some time past it has been a growing practice to sing carols in churches instead of in the open air, and the quaint fantastic carols of old days are in consequence falling out of remembrance. William Sandys' *Christmas Carols, Ancient and Modern* (1833), is the most complete collection that has yet appeared of English carols. In France the singing of Christmas carols, called *noëls*, was common at an early date. Collections of *noëls* were published early in the 16th century. In 1701 a collection was published at Dijon, in the dialect of the country. Another edition, with the title, *Noël Borquignon de Gui Barózar*, containing thirty-four *noëls* and two chansons, with music and glossary, appeared in 1720. Russian literature is very rich in carols, and religious songs generally. The best collection of them is by Bezsonov, under the title, *Kalicki Perekhozhie*, or 'The Wandering Cripples,' the singers being beggars and lame people who go about for charity. Many of the legends preserved in the Russian carols are of great antiquity. There is a large store of *Maux* carols, or *carols*, but only a very few have been printed. The *Iffyr-Carolan*, or 'Book of Carols' (Shrewsbury, 1740), contains sixty-six Welsh Christmas carols.

Carolina, NORTH AND SOUTH. See NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA.

Caroline OF ANSBACH (1683-1737), the queen of George II. (q.v.). For her daughter, Caroline Matilda, see STRUENSEE.

Caroline, AMELIA ELIZABETH, wife of George IV., was the second daughter of Charles William, Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, and of George III.'s sister, the Princess Augusta of Britain. She was born on 17th May 1768. Her education was defective, but she was kind-hearted and very fond of children. In 1795 she was married to the Prince of Wales. The marriage was disagreeable to him, and although she bore him a daughter, the Princess Charlotte, he separated from her immediately on her recovery from childbed; and she lived by herself at Shooters Hill and Blackheath, the object of much sympathy, the people regarding her as the victim of her husband's love of vice. Reports to her discredit led the king in 1806 to cause investigation to be made into her conduct, which was found to be imprudent, but not criminal. In 1814 she obtained leave to visit Brunswick, and afterwards to make a farther tour. She visited the coasts of the Mediterranean, and lived for some time on the Lake of Como, an Italian, by name

Bergami, being all the while in her company. When her husband ascended the throne in 1820, she was offered an annuity of £50,000 sterling to renounce the title of queen, and live abroad; but she refused, and made a triumphal entry into London, whereupon the government instituted proceedings against her for adultery. Much that was very reprehensible was proved as to her conduct; but the manner in which she had been used by her husband, and the splendid defence of Brougham, caused such a general feeling in her favour, that the ministry were obliged to give up the Divorce Bill after it had passed the House of Lords. She now fully assumed the rank of royalty, but was refused coronation, and turned away with needless brutality from the door of Westminster Abbey on the day of the coronation of her husband, on 19th July 1821. On 7th August she died.

Caroline Islands, a group in the Western Pacific, lying between the Marshall and Pelew islands; with an area of about 270 sq. m., and a pop. of some 22,000; but the Pelew (q.v.) group is generally included in the Caroline Archipelago (area, 560 sq. m.; pop. 36,000), which thus stretches across 32 degrees of longitude and 9 of latitude. There are some 500 small atolls in the archipelago, but three-fourths of both area and population are included in the five volcanic islands of Babelthouap, Yap, Rouk, Ponapé (Ascension), and Kusari (Strong Island); these are all fertile and well watered, and many of the low-lying lagoons, though less so, are well wooded and to some extent inhabited. The climate is moist, but not unhealthy, and is tempered by cooling breezes. The people belong to the brown Polynesian stock, are strongly built, and are gentle, amiable, and intelligent; they are bold sailors, and carry on a brisk trade with the Ladrões to the north, where they have several settlements. Besides the usual products of the Polynesian islands, Copra (q.v.) has been largely exported, the German factories alone transmitting 1000 tons yearly. The islands were discovered in 1527 by the Portuguese, and called Sequeira; in 1686 they were annexed and rechristened in honour of Charles II. by the Spaniards, who, however, shortly changed the name to New Philippines. After the failure of several missionary attempts in the 18th century, Spain took little active interest in the group, until August 1885, when the German flag was hoisted on Yap. The sharp dispute which followed was submitted to the pope as arbitrator, who decided in favour of Spain, but reserved to Germany special trade privileges. In 1887 disturbances broke out at Ponapé, in which the governor, who had arrested one of the American Protestant missionaries, was killed by the natives; but the rising was shortly put down. —A British Caroline island near the Marquesas is only 2 sq. m. in area.

Caroline Pink. See SPIGELIA.

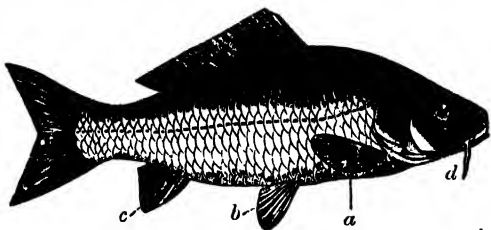
Carolings. See CARLOVINGIANS.

Carotid Artery, the great artery which on each side distributes blood to the different parts of the head, appears to have derived its Greek name *carotis* from Gr. *karos*, 'sleep,' there being an old idea that deep sleep was caused by the increased flow of blood through the carotids. Each carotid artery consists of the primitive or common carotid, which, at the upper margin of the larynx or organ of voice, separates into two great divisions, of nearly equal size—the external and the internal carotids. The external carotid supplies the larynx, pharynx, tongue, face, and scalp with blood; its principal branches being the superior thyroid, the lingual, the facial, the occipital, the posterior auricular, the internal maxillary, and the temporal. The internal carotid enters the cavity of the

cranium through a somewhat tortuous canal in the temporal bone, and after perforating the dura-mater, or fibrous membrane of the brain, separates into the anterior and middle cerebral arteries, which are the principal arteries of the brain; while in its course through the dura-mater, it gives off the ophthalmic artery. See AORTA, CIRCULATION.

Carouge, a Swiss town $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile S. of the city of Geneva. Pop. 5889.

Carp (*Cyprinus carpio*), a bony, fresh-water fish, in the physostomatous division, and type of the large family Cyprinidae. The body is covered with large scales; the head is naked; the wide, thick-lipped, terminal mouth is toothless, but there are teeth in the throat; a small barbule occurs on the upper jaw, and a large one at the corner of the mouth; the dorsal fin is long, the anal short, and



Carp (*Cyprinus carpio*):

a, fore-fin; b, hind-fin; c, anal fin; d, large barbule.

both have the third ray strong and toothed; the hind-fins lie about the middle of the ventral surface. The back is blackish gray or brown, the sides yellowish brown, the belly yellow. At the reproductive season the male bears white or brown tubercles on the head and sides. The usual length is between 1 and 2 feet, but large forms 5 feet long or more have been caught.

The carp is mainly vegetarian, but also eats small animals, such as larvae and worms. The general habit is sluggish, except at the spawning period in May and June. The fecundity is very great; a single ovary of a moderate-sized specimen contains 700,000 or so eggs. They prefer ponds and the quiet parts of rivers. In winter they hibernate in the mud. Their longevity is great; some are said to have lived one hundred and fifty to two hundred years. The original home of the carp was in the central regions of Asia and probably also Europe, but it has been artificially spread everywhere—for instance in North America. They may be kept alive for weeks in damp moss; but are liable to skin diseases, and grow gray with mould. The carp was introduced into England before the 15th century. Fancy varieties have been reared, such as the King-carp, with few rows of large scales, and the Leather-carp, which is quite naked. *C. Kollarii* is a hybrid between carp and crucian (*Carassius*), or German carp, which like the Gibel (*C. Gibelio*) or Prussian carp, has no barbules. The Goldfish (q.v.) is *C. auratus*. The carp is a difficult fish for the angler, as it is by no means a free biter. It is an important food fish, and is easily bred. A good carp-pond, in Germany especially, is a by no means unimportant source of income. The carp is largely bred in the United States.

Carpaccio, VITTORE, a painter of the early Venetian school, was born in Istria about 1450, and was early influenced by the Vivarini and Gentile Bellini. His rich colouring and accurate knowledge of perspective, his boundless invention and fancy, his powerful delineation of character, and his love of varied incident, are amply visible

in the nine subjects from the life of St Ursula, which he painted, 1490-95, for the school of St Ursula, Venice, and which are now preserved in the Accademia there. About 1494 he executed another work now in the same collection, 'The Patriarch of Grado casting out a Devil.' His next great series of works was the nine subjects from the lives of the Saviour, and Saints Jerome, George, Tryphonius, 1502-8, painted for the school of San Giorgio de Schiavoni, and still preserved there. In 1510 he executed for San Giobbe the noble 'Presentation in the Temple,' now in the Accademia, which is usually regarded as his masterpiece. His later works show a marked decline in power. Among these may be mentioned an altar-piece in San Vitale, Venice, 1514, and a group of ladies with pet dogs and birds (most unduly praised by Mr Ruskin), in the Correr Museum. His latest dated works, at Pirano and Pozzale, are inscribed 1519; and he is believed to have died about 1522. The 'Virgin and Child adored by the Doge Mocenigo,' assigned to him, in the National Gallery, London, is a very doubtful work. See Molmenti, *Il Carpaccio* (1885); Crowe and Cavalcaselle, *Painting in North Italy* (1871); Ruskin and Anderson, *St. Mark's Rest* (1877 and 1879); and Ruskin, *Guide to Academy of Fine Arts, Venice* (1882-83).

Carpathian Mountains, the second great range of central Europe, extend in a great semi-circle over a space of 880 miles from Presburg on the Danube to Orsova on the same river. They form two great masses, one in Hungary to the NW., and one in Transylvania to the SE., with ranges of lower and wooded mountains between. The highest group of the Hungarian Carpathians is that of Tatra (see AUSTRIA), in the very north of Hungary; on the northern declivity small glaciers exist. Many of the Hungarian mountains are of limestone, while the mountains of Transylvania are mostly of primitive rocks. On the eastern and southern borders the latter reach their greatest height; Negoï, the culminating peak, has an elevation of 8343 feet. The range is generally clothed with wood to a height of more than 4000 feet, and with steep precipices, narrow ravines, extinct craters, and cones of volcanic origin, exhibits scenes of grandeur rarely exceeded. See Crosse, *Round about the Carpathians* (1878).

Carpeaux, JEAN BAPTISTE, sculptor, was born at Valenciennes, 14th May 1827, and in 1854 obtained the *Prix de Rome*. His bronze Neapolitan boy attracted notice; and 'Ugolino and his four sons' (1863), also in bronze, though it defied the canons of sculpture, made him famous. He settled in Paris in 1862. His *chef d'œuvre*, the marble group, 'The Dance,' in the façade of the New Opera in Paris, fully showed his dramatic power and the exuberance of his imagination; but it provoked much hostile criticism as involving an attempt to stretch beyond their natural province the limits of the plastic art. The most notable of his later works is the great fountain in the Luxembourg Gardens. He died 11th October 1875.

Carpel (Gr. *karpos*, 'fruit'), in Botany, a modified leaf forming the whole or part of the gynoecium or female (ovule-bearing) organ or organs of a flower (see FLOWER). The number of carpellary leaves may vary greatly; at first indefinite in the simplest flowers (e.g. Ranunculaceæ), it becomes definite, and may even be reduced to one (e.g. Leguminosæ, Berberidaceæ). The carpellary leaves may also unite more or less completely to form a compound ovary with or without united styles or stigmas. This is characteristically three-celled in most monocotyledons (e.g. Liliaceæ), and five or two celled in the majority of dicotyledonous

orders. The carpellary leaves like any others are in their simplest forms at first individually developed, and are clearly recognisable as reduced foliage leaves in Cycadaceae. In Coniferae (Gymnosperms) they are still further reduced, while in monocotyledons and dicotyledons (Angiosperms) they never fully open as leaves at all, save sometimes in the splitting of the fruit after maturity. For a discussion of their relation to the ovule, see PLACENTATION.

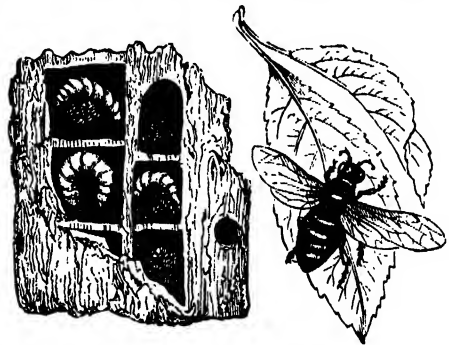
Carpentaria, GULF OF, a broad and deep indentation of the north coast of Australia, stretching from 11° to 17° 30' S. lat., and from 136° to 142° E. long. Its name is said to have been derived from the river Carpentier, so named by Carstensz in 1623, in honour of Pieter Carpentier, governor-general of the Dutch Indies. The gulf contains many islands. Its eastern boundary is Cape York Peninsula. To the south and west are the territories of Queensland and the northern territory of South Australia. On the east it receives the Mitchell and Van Diemen rivers; at the south the Flinders, Leichhardt, and Albert; and on the west the Roper.

Carpenter, MARY, philanthropist, was born at Exeter, 3d April 1807, the eldest child of Lant Carpenter, LL.D. (1780-1840), Unitarian minister at Exeter from 1805 till 1817, and afterwards at Bristol. Trained as a teacher, and afterwards a governess, she took an active part in the movement for the reformation of neglected children, and besides advocating their cause in her writings, she founded a ragged school, several reformatories for girls, one of which, the Red Lodge Reformatory, she superintended. The visit of Rammohun Roy to Britain in 1833, and of Tuckerman, the Boston philanthropist, had helped to turn her attention and sympathy towards India, and towards the destitute children of her own country. She founded in 1835 a 'working and visiting society,' of which she was secretary for more than twenty years. She opened a ragged school in one of the worst parts of Bristol in 1846, and boys' and girls' reformatories at Kingswood and at the Red Lodge (1852-54); and in 1852 gave evidence before a parliamentary committee on juvenile delinquency. She promoted the Industrial Schools Act of 1857, and some of her proposals were adopted in the amended Acts of 1861 and 1866. In the prosecution of her philanthropic labours she visited India four times, had an interview with the Queen in 1868 in connection with her work; and in 1870 instituted the National Indian Association, whose journal she edited. She attended Darmstadt at a congress on women's work as a guest of the Princess Alice, and visited America in 1873. Her plan of day-feeding industrial schools in connection with school boards was adopted in 1876. She died June 14, 1877. Besides her reformatory writings she published *Our Convicts* (1864), a book which drew public attention to the treatment of young criminals; *The Last Days of the Rajah Rammohun Roy* (1866); and *Six Months in India* (1868). See *Mary Carpenter*, by J. E. Carpenter (1879).

Carpenter, WILLIAM BENJAMIN, biologist, Mary's eldest brother, was born at Exeter, 29th October 1813. He was educated at Bristol, passed some time in the West Indies with the family doctor, then studied medicine at Bristol, London (1833), and Edinburgh (1835-39). His graduation thesis (1839) on the nervous system of invertebrate animals led up to his *Principles of General and Comparative Physiology* (1838), one of the earliest works giving a general view of the science of life. Removing to London in 1844, he was appointed Fullerian professor of physiology at the Royal Institution, lecturer or professor at the London Hospital and University College (1849),

examiner at the university of London, and its registrar (1856). He also edited (1847-52) the *British and Foreign Medico-Chirurgical Review*, and a *Popular Cyclopaedia of Science* (1843). On his retirement in 1879 he received the distinction of C.B. His death, 16th November 1885, resulted from burns caused by the upsetting of a spirit-lamp. While vice-president of the Royal Society he persuaded it to apply to government for aid in investigations in marine zoology. Three voyages were made to the North Atlantic and Mediterranean by Carpenter and his colleagues. The *Challenger* expedition was a result which sprang from these expeditions. Carpenter made valuable researches on the Foraminifera; on the *Eozoon Canadense*; on feather-stars and crinoids; on the relation between mind and brain, and unconscious cerebration. His deep-sea explorations led him to advocate the doctrine of vertical ocean circulation sustained by opposition of temperature only, independent and distinct from the horizontal currents produced by winds. He received medals from the Royal and Geological Societies, was LL.D. of Edinburgh, and corresponding member of the Institute of France (1873). Carpenter's other chief contributions to the science of physiology, &c. are *Principles of Human Physiology* (7th ed. 1869); *Principles of Mental Physiology*; *Animal Physiology*; *Manual of Physiology*; *Zoology and Instincts of Animals*; *Microscope and its Revelations* (5th ed. 1875); *Introduction to the Study of the Foraminifera*; *Use of Alcoholic Liquors* (1851); *Physiology of Temperance* (1870); *Mesmerism and Spiritualism* (1877). Two of his sons, W. Lant Carpenter and Dr P. Herbert Carpenter, have followed in his footsteps.

Carpenter Bee, a name given to various bees which excavate their nests in wood. This is most



Carpenter Bee (*Xylocopa*):

Showing the cells for eggs and larvae, excavated in dead wood.

economically performed by those which choose a pithy branch such as bramble and briar. *Ceratina albibras* carves out a canal about a foot long, divided by partitions of glued pith particles into a series of perhaps a dozen chambers. More than a score of Hymenoptera, including not a few true bees, have a similar habit.* Much more laborious is the work of *Xylocopa violacea*, a very large bee with deep violet wings, found in southern and middle Europe. She chooses rotting vine-props and espaliers, and with her mandibles unwearyingly bites a hole a foot or more in length. The grain of the wood is followed, but the progress is not much over $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch per diem. The tube is divided into a dozen or so chambers by partitions of glued sawdust. Each chamber contains an egg with a store of honey and pollen, and the roof of each cradle forms as it is made the floor of the one above (see BEE, p. 26). The North American *X. vir-*

ginica exhibits similar habits in great perfection. The common British *Megachile willughbiella* bores in willow-trees. Various species of *Osmia* also burrow. Lazier species sometimes gain possession of old holes.

Carpentras, a town in the French department of Vaucluse, on the Auzon, 17 miles N.E. of Avignon by rail. It was the *Carpentoracte* of the Romans, and a triumphal arch attests their former presence here. Carpentras has besides a cathedral (1405), the stately Porte d'Orange of the 14th century, a massive aqueduct (1734), and manufactures of cottons, woollens, &c. Pop. 7563.

Carpentry may be described as the art of timbering, or combining and framing together pieces of timber in the construction of ships, bridges (and centering), roofs, scaffolding, &c., while joinery is the art of framing or joining woodwork for the finishing of houses, making doors, windows, stairs, &c. Carpenter work is put together with iron ties, bolts, and nails. Joinery includes all woodwork which can be put together with glue. Carpentry forms a most important branch of the civil engineer's and architect's labours, and many scientific principles are involved in producing the maximum of strength in the construction, with the minimum of weight in the materials employed. Every individual part should bear its due proportion of the strain, not only of its own weight, but of any outside pressure it may be calculated to resist. In America, where timber abounds, many ingenious uses have been made of it in the building of bridges, houses, &c. Iron is now superseding timber in many of its uses. The details of carpentry are treated under the various heads of BRIDGE, BUILDING, FLOOR, MORTISE AND TENON, ROOF, SCARE, SHIPBUILDING, STRENGTH OF MATERIALS, &c. See also R. S. Burn, *New Guide to Carpentry* (1871); T. Tredgold, *Principles of Carpentry* (new ed. 1886).

Carpet-bagger, a term applied after the American civil war of 1861-65 to political adventurers from the northern states who tried to secure the votes of the negroes in the south; and implying that they had no property in the district save the contents of their carpet-bags.

Carpets. When and where the earliest carpets were made can only be matter of conjecture. Skins of animals covered with fur, and plaited plant stems, such as those of rushes, would in all probability be used as mats in prehistoric times. Sir G. Wilkinson states that imperfectly preserved fragments of woollen stuff, presenting the appearance of a carpet, were found at Thebes in Egypt. He also calls attention to a small ancient rug brought from Egypt to England. It is made of woollen threads on linen string, and has upon it the figures of a boy and a goose—the hieroglyphic of a child. But in Dr Birch's opinion this rug is of the Greek or Roman, not of the Pharaonic period. Carpets were in use in ancient Greece and Italy.

Persian Carpets.—The manufacture of these goes back to a very remote period. Indeed it appears to be certain that pile carpets were first made in Persia, and from that country introduced into India by the Mohammedan conquerors. The Persian habit of sitting and sleeping on the ground probably brought into use soft floor-coverings suited to such a custom. Even among the higher classes in Persia carpets constitute the whole furniture of a room, except a few ornaments placed in niches in the wall. A Persian not only sits and sleeps upon, but also makes a table of a carpet. Fine Persian fabrics of this kind are very highly prized for their beautiful and appropriate designs, and for the quiet harmony of their colours. They are of great durability. Sir Murdoch Smith states that the floor of the chief

pavilion of the Chehel Sitân palace at Ispahan is covered with a fine carpet which has been in use since the time of Shah Abbas, who reigned in the end of the 16th century. Persian pile carpets are made by firmly knotting tufts of woollen yarn on the warp threads, and these tufts are held in their place by the woof yarn. The finest are those of Kurdistan; but carpets are made in many parts of Persia, so also are felts or *nûmûds*, the best of which are fully an inch thick. These felts are formed of camel's hair, more or less mixed with wool, and are ornamented on one side with inlaid devices. They are used to cover the sides and end of a room, and owing to their thickness are softer to sit upon than ordinary carpets. An attempt was made to introduce the making of Persian carpets after the Persian manner into Finland in 1888. At the sale of the Goupil collection in Paris in the spring of 1888, two small old Persian carpets, each 7 feet by 6 feet, brought respectively £800 and £1300. For three others, also of small size, the sum of £1500 was obtained. About £200 is believed to be the highest price hitherto paid in Persia itself for a small carpet. There are photo-engravings of two of Goupil's carpets in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* for 1885, and larger coloured illustrations of fine Persian carpets in the *Portfolio of Persian Art*, issued by the South Kensington Museum.

Indian Carpets.—Both cotton and woollen carpets are made in India. Those composed of cotton are chiefly made in Bengal and Northern India, and are usually in two coloured stripes, such as red and blue. They are often further ornamented with squares and diamond shapes, and occasionally with gold and silver. Sir George Birdwood, a high authority on the history of Indian manufactures, considers that the patterns upon these cotton carpets, as well as those upon portions of some native dresses, illustrate the most ancient ornamental designs of India. The patterns on the woollen pile carpets of India can be traced back to Persian originals, and both fabrics are made in the same way. Many of the older ones, as well as some quite recently made, are scarcely less remarkable than those made in Persia for their beauty and other meritorious qualities. In numerous

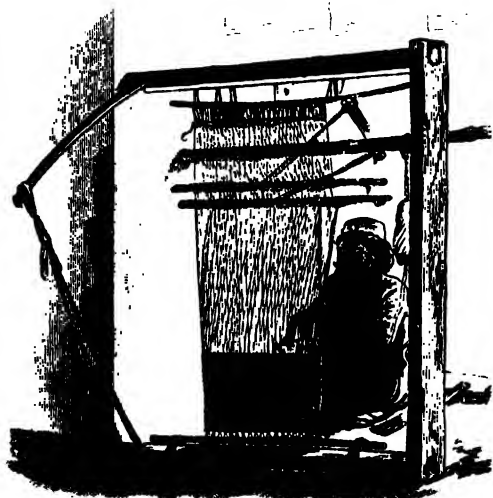


Fig. 1.—Carpet Loom, Cawnpore.

parts of India, however, the designs have suffered from European influence. Fig. 1 shows an Indian carpet loom; those used in Persia are equally primi-

tive. Carpets are made in Cashmere, the Punjab, Sind, and on the Malabar coast; also at Agra, Mirzapur, Jubbulpore, Hyderabad, Masulipatam, and elsewhere. Some silk and velvet carpets are likewise made in India.

Turkey Carpets.—Like the carpets of Persia, India, and North Africa, these are made on rude simple looms by knotting tufts of woollen yarn on the warp threads across the width of the carpet, and firmly binding the rows of these tufts by the weft. The most characteristic patterns of Turkey carpets are diamond shapes and zigzags—that is, they are more purely geometrical than the Persian designs. The arrangement of the colours usually adopted produces a rich and pleasing effect, and the fabric from its mode of construction and depth of pile is extremely durable. Turkey carpets are chiefly made at Ushak, near Smyrna, in Asia Minor.

The carpets of the kind manufactured from 1755 till 1835 in England at Axminster, and still made to a small extent at Wilton, as well as some of the highly ornamental French carpets, such as those of Aubusson and Beauvais, are made on the same principle as oriental pile carpets.

Kidderminster or Scotch Carpet.—This is the oldest kind of machine-made carpet. It has no pile, the yarn of which it is composed lying flat upon the surface like an ordinary worsted cloth. In some respects, although coarser and stronger, it resembles a woollen damask of two colours, and like it is reversible. The pattern is most perfect on the face side, but if in this position it shows a purple flower on a green ground, then on the other side the flower is green on a purple ground. This would be a two-ply carpet, the purple portion forming a separate layer from the green portion, except at the edges of the flower, where the yarn in passing from the front to the back binds the two layers together. A three-ply is in three layers, and is usually in three or more colours or shades of colour. The different layers are interlocked by the manner in which the threads are used to form the pattern. *Union Kidder Carpets* resemble the two-ply kind, except that instead of being all wool, they have cotton warps and worsted wefts. In these the colour of the cotton usually fades before that of the wool. Kidderminster carpeting is woven on power-looms with Jacquard apparatus.

Brussels Carpet.—In this make of carpet the worsted threads are arranged in the warp, and are interwoven into a network of linen. Still the bulk of the carpet consists of wool. What is called a six-frame 'Brussels' consists of six layers or thicknesses of coloured worsted yarn, but there are also five, four, and three frame carpets of this kind, each formed of a corresponding number of worsted threads. Of these the best and thickest is the six-frame variety. The number of colours in the carpet indicates often, but not always, the number of frames used in its construction. These frames are placed behind the loom, and each of them contains about 260 reels or bobbins of worsted, which as a rule is of one colour, that being the number of threads in a carpet of the usual width of 27 inches. But by a little ingenuity five or six



Fig. 2.

colours can be arranged in a four-frame carpet, in which case only an expert can determine its quality. Brussels carpet is woven on a loom with a Jacquard apparatus (see LOOM), which raises such of the coloured yarns to the surface as the pattern requires at each throw of the shuttle.

These are at the same time formed into loops by the insertion of wires, which are immediately withdrawn. Fig. 2 shows a section of a Brussels carpet in which these wires are shown.

Velvet Pile or Wilton Carpet.—This only differs from a Brussels carpet in having the raised loops cut so as to give it a velvet-like surface.

Tapestry Carpet (fig. 3), the name given to a carpet made of parti-coloured yarns by a very ingenious method patented by Mr Richard Wyltcock of Edinburgh in 1832. It resembles the 'Brussels' make inasmuch as the surface is formed of loops of worsted yarn, but instead of each thread being of a single colour, it is of several colours in the tapestry carpet. It is really a printed carpet, but it is only the woollen warp yarn, not the woven fabric, which is printed. These yarns are placed on a large drum which is traversed by small rollers charged with dyes, and thus the threads are printed in bands of various widths. When the parti-coloured warp threads are arranged for weaving, the pattern appears long drawn out. In that stage what are to be squares in the woven pattern appear as oblongs, and what are to be circles as ellipses.



Fig. 3.

The weaving draws them up into proper shape, and the looms are simple. Although the back of a tapestry carpet may be of any vegetable fibre, it is very frequently of jute, but the wool is practically all on the surface. In a Brussels carpet on the contrary the worsted yarns are not only on the surface but in layers below it.

Carpets of undyed worsted yarn are made of a similar structure to the tapestry kind, and afterwards printed with a pattern on the surface.

Patent Axminster Carpet (fig. 4).—Mr J. Templeton of Glasgow patented in 1839 a method of making carpets by the use of chenille which are known by this name. The wool chenille is first woven on a separate loom, and cut into strips for the weft. In this kind of carpet the elements of the design or pattern exist in the chenille weft, which somewhat



Fig. 4.

resembles the parti-coloured warp yarn in the tapestry carpet; but this chenille, having a pile to begin with, does not require to be formed into loops. The surface of the carpet is in fact formed of weft lines of chenille, which, so to speak, has a backbone of thread. By means of 'catcher warps' crossing its backbone, the chenille is bound to a strong under-fabric of cotton, linen, or hemp.

Royal Axminster Carpet.—This is a kind of carpet which has been recently introduced. It differs from Templeton's patent Axminster in not requiring the preliminary weaving of the chenille, and from 'Brussels' in not requiring the use of Jacquard apparatus to weave it. In the Royal Axminster the pattern is arranged line by line on a succession of small spools of yarn, from which tufts are cut by machinery and fastened into the carpet by the interlacing of linen or jute warp and weft.

Jute Carpets.—Owing to the fact that jute is neither a very durable fibre nor easily dyed with permanent colours, carpets made of it are not

highly esteemed, but they are much cheaper than other kinds. They are made (at Dundee on a very large scale) either with a looped or plain surface, and their patterns may be as beautiful as any on Brussels or Kidderminster carpet.

Seats of the Industry.—Kidderminster is the chief seat of the Brussels and velvet pile carpet manufacture, but this branch of the trade is also carried on at Stourbridge, Durham, and Halifax. 'Scotch' carpets are made at Dewsbury and other towns in Yorkshire, to a small extent at Kidderminster, and more largely at Kilmarnock and Bannockburn. Tapestry carpets have been made to a very large extent in Yorkshire; as also on the banks of the Esk near Edinburgh, where they were originally made. The expensive patent Axminster carpet is made at Glasgow and in England. In the United States, carpets are manufactured extensively at Philadelphia, Lowell, and elsewhere. German-made carpets compete formidably with English and Belgian carpets, and the export is increasing year by year; a French consular report of 1888 says fine German handworked carpets are sent to Smyrna, and re-imported to Europe as Eastern carpets. But Britain is the great head-quarters of carpet manufacture; and carpets of all kinds (including, for example, prayer carpets, or rugs for carrying to church) are largely exported—the value of the exports amounting to £1,250,000 per annum.

Merits and Defects of Carpets.—Brussels carpet is growing most into favour. Both it and the tapestry kind let less dust through them than a Kidderminster does. The latter, though an excellent fabric when well made, wears much sooner than either of the other two kinds to the extent of disfiguring the pattern on one side—that is, unless the tapestry carpet is of poor quality. The advantage of getting wear out of two sides does not bring a Kidderminster up to a Brussels in point of durability, but a Kidderminster is better in this respect than a fair quality of tapestry carpet. When the woollen surface of the latter is worn it is very unsightly, which is not the case with a Brussels, at least not nearly to the same extent. The patent Axminster carpet is very durable when it has a deepish pile; but if not carefully handled, a strip of its chenille gets loose, and this is a little difficult to repair. Rag-carpet is made of rags variously joined together. Formerly carpets were always cut to fit an apartment in Britain. Of late it has become not unusual to have square carpets occupying only the centre of the room (as is common abroad), the rest of the floor being varnished.

The so-called Holy Carpet, sent annually from Cairo to Mecca with solemnities, is really a silk covering for the Kaaba (q.v.).

Carpi, a town of Northern Italy, 10 miles N. of Modena by rail, with a cathedral. Pop. 5987.—CARPI is also the name of a village 28 miles SE. of Verona, celebrated for the victory obtained here by Prince Eugene over the French in 1701.

Carpini, or JOHANNES DE PIAN DEL CARPINE, a Franciscan monk, born in Umbria about 1182; was head of the mission sent by Pope Innocent IV. to the court of the emperor of the Mongols, whose warlike advances had thrown Christendom into consternation. A big, fat man, more than sixty years old, he started from Lyons in April 1245, and, crossing the Dnieper, Don, Volga, Ural, and Jaxartes, in the summer of 1246 reached Kara-korum, beyond Lake Baikal, thence returning to Kieff in June 1247, and so back to Lyons. The hardships of the journey were great, and one ride of 3000 miles in 106 days surpasses the best records of most modern travellers. Prior to this, the most monstrous fables had prevailed regarding the Tartars; and Carpini's Latin narrative was the

first to bring these myths into discredit. Hakluyt copied much of the work into his *Navigations and Discoveries* (1598); but the first complete edition of the text was D'Arvezac's (1839). Carpini died Archbishop of Antivari some time before 1253.

Carpo crates OF ALEXANDRIA flourished in the first decades of the 2d century A.D., and founded the Gnostic sect of Carpocratians. According to him, the essence of true religion consisted in the union of the soul with the Monas or highest God, by means of contemplation, which elevated it above the superstitions of the popular faith, and liberated it from the necessity of submitting to the common laws of society. Among those who have attained to this are Jesus, Pythagoras, Plato, and Aristotle. Matter being regarded as the principle of evil, the soul had no obligations in regard to it, and the true rule of life was to cultivate an entire indifference to it, and simply follow one's own impulses. All life being an effluence from or a return to God, limitation or sin cleaves to all individual life as such. The soul's return to God is theoretically through the knowledge of the divine unity, and practically through a life that follows nature and overleaps all limits laid down for it by laws—e.g. the law of private property and the law of marriage, which were only instituted by the angels who made the worlds. The soul that attains to this freedom receives miraculous power; until it reaches it, it is held down by the world-makers in metempsychosis, remaining in the prison of bodily life until it has 'paid the uttermost farthing.' The Carpocratians existed down to the 6th century. See Gnostics.

Carpolites, the fossil fruits of certain Carboniferous trees. Some of these are heart-shaped bodies (*Cardiocarpon*); others are ellipsoidal, and usually three-angled (*Trigonocarpon*); and yet others are ellipsoidal, with a wrinkled and finely granulated surface (*Rhubdocarpon*).

Carpophore. In the fruit of geraniums and Umbelliferæ the ripe carpels split away from the central axis from below upwards, but remain attached at top; hence in technical phraseology they are said to be suspended from a *carpophore*. See UMBELLIFERÆ, GERANIACEÆ.

Carpus, Carpal Bones. See HAND, FOOT, SKELETON.

Carpzov, the name of a learned family, of which the most conspicuous members were BENEDICT (1593-1666), an important writer on law, who held high offices at Dresden and Leipzig; and his brother JOHANN BENEDICT (1607-57), professor of Theology at Leipzig, who published his *Systema Theologicum* in 1653.

Carracel. See CARACCI.

Car'rageen, often incorrectly called CARRAGEEN MOSS, or IRISH MOSS, the Irish name of *Chondrus crispus*, and some other allied species of seaweeds, long of local importance as an article of food, but now widely diffused, especially in invalid cookery. The true carrageen is *Chondrus crispus* (order Florideæ, family Gigartineæ; see SEA-WEEDS), and it occurs commonly on rocky shores, particularly in North Europe, presenting many local varieties. Its congener, *Gigartina* (*Chondrus*) *mammillosa*, most frequently accompanies it. It is 2, 4, 6, or even sometimes as much as 12 inches long, branched by repeated forking, tough and flexible, and of variable colour; from yellowish green through shades of red to purple being most frequent. After being collected and washed in fresh water, it is bleached and dried in the open air; and is then white or yellowish, dry, shrunken, horny, and translucent. When treated for ten minutes with cold water, in the proportion of half

an ounce of carrageen to three pints of water, and then boiled and strained, it yields, with or without spices, a pleasant drink. With a larger proportion of carrageen, a thickish liquid or *mucilage* is obtained; and on boiling down this strong decoction, and cooling, a stiff *jelly* is procured. Milk



Carrageen (*Chondrus crispus*):
A, B, C, different forms of growth.

may be employed instead of water; and with the stronger preparation, along with sugar and spices, when thrown into a mould, a kind of *blanc mange* is obtained. It is much recommended in pulmonary consumption and other maladies, but its value seems to depend on its being a pleasant and digestible article of food; even its nutritive importance has, however, been greatly exaggerated; especially when we consider that a pound of stiff jelly contains only half an ounce of the dried weed! It is sometimes employed for feeding cattle, in the preparation of size by painters and calico-printers, in stuffing mattresses, and for other uses. The 'Ceylon Moss,' in similar use in the East, is *Spherooccus lichenoides*, another seaweed of the same order (Florideæ), and is of similar properties and uses. 'Iceland Moss' (q.v.), however, is a lichen, *Cetraria islandica*.

Carranza, BARTHOLOMEUS DE, born in 1503, at Miranda, in Navarre, entered the Dominican order, became professor of Theology at Valladolid, and in 1534 accompanied Philip II. to England, where he was confessor to Queen Mary, and where his zealous efforts to re-establish Catholicism gained him the confidence of Philip and the archbishopric of Toledo, the richest in Spain. Here, however, he was accused of heresy, and imprisoned by the Inquisition in 1559. In 1567 he was removed to Rome, and confined in the castle of St Angelo. He died a few days after his release, 2d May 1576.

Carrara, a town of Northern Italy, 30 miles NW. of Leghorn by rail. It is situated on the Avenza, near its mouth in the Mediterranean, and is surrounded by the marble hills which have made its celebrity. The town and its inhabitants are wholly given up to the marble trade. There are above 400 marble-quarries, larger or smaller, in the vicinity of the town, though very few furnish the marble used for statuary. The marble is a white saccharoid limestone, which derives its value to the sculptor from its texture and purity. It was formerly supposed to be of Archæan age, but is now known to be a metamorphosed Jurassic limestone. The quarries are on the side of the mountains, a branch of the Apennines, at heights varying from 500 to 3500 feet.

The mountains, whose jagged peaks glitter in the sun, furnish, happily, an inexhaustible supply of marble; for to produce the 150,000 annually exported probably 500,000 tons are quarried, the balance being wasted—for the appliances for quarrying are of the most primitive, and many a blasting produces merely useless fragments. In these quarries, which have been worked for more than two thousand years, some 5000 men are regularly employed. Besides the quarrymen, the marble employs innumerable marble-cutters in the town, together with tombstone and other statuary of the humbler kinds, as well as sculptors. It should be added that marble similar to that of Carrara is quarried also at Massa and elsewhere. The United States imported annually in 1875-85 some 25,000 tons of Carrara marble, which cost duty paid about ten shillings per cubic foot (see *Century Magazine* for 1882). Pop. of Carrara (1881) 11,869.

Carrel, ARMAND, a celebrated French publicist and republican leader, was born at Rouen in 1800, and was educated in the military school of St Cyr. After serving for some years in the army, he went to Paris, and devoted his attention to political and historical studies. In 1830, in connection with Thiers and Mignet, he became editor of the *National*, the ablest and most spirited of the journals opposed to the government of Charles X. Carrel's colleagues being employed by the new government of Louis-Philippe, he was left to conduct the *National* himself, which he did with a spirit and a freedom such as had not been witnessed in France for a long time. On more than one occasion he checked the arbitrary power which the government attempted to exercise, and gained the high admiration and esteem of the popular party. Government prosecutions of course followed his outspokenness, and heavy fines were decreed against him; but these were paid by public subscription; and each conviction only made his journal more famous. Carrel, however, dreaded revolution as much as he hated despotism, and had no sympathy with many of those who looked up to him as a leader. Provoked into a duel with Emile de Girardin, by an attack on his personal character, Carrel was mortally wounded, and died 24th July 1836. Littré and Paulin edited his *Œuvres Politiques et Littéraires* (5 vols. 1857-58).

Carriage is a general name for any vehicle intended for the conveyance of passengers either on roads or railways. Carriages are structures mounted on two or more wheels, and in form, build, and accommodation they are exceedingly diverse. The origin of the term is of course the same as *carry*, late Lat. *carriare*, to convey in a cart; *carr-us*, 'a car,' a word of Celtic origin. The earliest carriages were probably constructed for warlike purposes; but at a period so remote as the time of Joseph, carriages were used also at least for royal pageants (Gen. xli. 43). Among the Greeks, chariot-races formed an important feature in the Olympic games; the Romans had two, three, and four horse chariots; and according to Herodotus the Scythians had a covered chariot, the top of which was removable, and capable of being used as a tent. Of the carriage of modern times, the earliest record belongs to about the year 1280, when Charles of Anjou entered Naples, and his queen rode in a *caretta*, a small decorated car, the parent of the modern chariot or charette. Soon thereafter, in 1294, Philip of France issued an edict prohibiting the wives of citizens from using cars or chars, and later, Pius IV. (1559-66) exhorted his ecclesiastics to discountenance the womanly fashion of riding in coaches.

The first carriage ever seen in England—apart from the war-chariots of the early Britons—was

made in 1555 by Walter Rippon for the Earl of Rutland, and subsequently the same coach-builder made one for Queen Mary. These cannot have been very successful vehicles, for Taylor, the Water-poet, a determined enemy of the innovation, says: 'The first ever seen here was brought out of the Netherlands by one William Boonen, a Dutchman, who gave a coach to Queen Elizabeth, for she had been seven years a queen before she had any coach.' Later in the reign, the royal carriages had sliding panels, so that the queen could show herself to her loving subjects whenever she desired. During the closing years of Elizabeth's reign, and early in the 17th century, the use of pleasure-carriages extended rapidly in England. The coaches had first to struggle against the opposition of the boatmen on the rivers, and then against that of the sedan owners and bearers; but they gradually came into very general use.

These early vehicles were at best heavy and lumbering structures, without the springs and other mechanical adaptations which make a modern carriage a triumph of constructive art; and as they rumbled over the wretched roads, travelling in them must have been far from luxurious. The condition of the roads necessitated great strength and solidity in the vehicles; and improvements in carriage-building were of necessity preceded by improvement in the art of road-making. The suspending of the coach body by leathern straps, to insure ease of motion and freedom from violent jerks, was an amelioration introduced early in the 18th century. Subsequently these straps were attached to C-springs—an arrangement used to the present day in coaches proper. The elliptic spring on which most carriages are now mounted was invented in 1804 by Mr Obadiah Elliot, and since that time the improvements in carriages have been very numerous.

It would serve no useful purpose to enumerate the principal varieties of carriages, many of which are peculiar to particular countries, and are known by local names. Among the numerous ways in which road-carriages vary, the most important are the number of wheels, the method of entering, and the seating of the vehicle, the nature of the covering when the carriage is inclosed or partially inclosed, the number of persons it is designed to accommodate, and the arrangements for horsing. Road-carriages have either two or four wheels; examples of two-wheeled vehicles being the common gig, the Tilbury, the dog-cart, the T-cart, the Irish car, and the hansom-cab. Such vehicles require a pair of rigid shafts, because the load must be divided between the wheels and the back of the horse. In four-wheeled vehicles the horse or horses have only a dragging load, and the animal or animals may be yoked either between hinged shafts or by leathern traces alone, or by traces and a central splinter-bar. Examples of open four-wheel carriages are the Phaeton, the Wagonette, and the Brake. Partly-covered carriages are the Droskey or Droitska, the Victoria, and the Barouche. The Landau is the type of a carriage which at will can be entirely closed like the coach, or quite open by folding the covering flat back to both sides. The Coach is a permanently inclosed carriage, as is also the Brougham, which is only a miniature coach. The Mail-coach or Drag, like the Omnibus, has both outside and inside accommodation for passengers.

The manufacture of carriages, whether pleasure-vehicles or omnibuses, ranks in the highest class of mechanical labour. There is a necessity for the best materials and the best workmanship, since, owing to the severe strains and jerks to which the vehicles are subject, cheap construction is in the

end unprofitable. Many different kinds of wood are employed in the construction. The body of the carriage is made by one set of workmen, the under-framing by another; the former partaking more than the latter of the nature of cabinet-work. The steel-spring making is delicate work, owing to the necessity for combining strength with lightness and elasticity; and the various pieces of ironwork require careful adjustment, especially the axles. The covering of the upper part of the body of a carriage with leather is one of the most difficult parts of the manufacture; one single hide is employed, the leather being worked round the corners by repeated currying while wet; and all must be rendered smooth, without even a puncture. The best coaches receive as many as twenty to thirty coats of oil-paint; and the polishing processes are numerous and carefully conducted. The carving, gilding, herald-painting, lace and fringe work, metal ornamentation, &c., are among the best examples of their respective handicrafts. See CAB, COACHING; Thrupp's *History of Coaches* (1877), and other works by Ware (Phil. 1875), Stratton (1878), and J. W. Burgess (1881).

Carriage Dog. See DALMATIAN DOG.

Carrick, the southern division of Ayrshire (q.v.). The Prince of Wales is Earl of Carrick.

Carrickfergus, an Irish seaport town and county of itself, situated on the north side of Belfast Lough, on the south-eastern border of County Antrim, 9½ miles N. of Belfast and 12 miles S. of Larne by rail. Its chief feature is its picturesque castle, supposed to have been erected by De Courcy in the 12th century. It stands on a rock about 30 feet high, projecting boldly into the sea. The keep is 90 feet high. But one gateway now remains of the ancient city walls. Here William III. landed seventeen days before the battle of the Boyne, and here Thurot made an abortive landing in 1700. Flax-spinning is carried on, and there is an active fishery of oysters. Pop. (1851) 8488; (1881) 10,009; of town proper (1851) 3543, (1881) 4792. Carrickfergus returns one member.

Carrick-on-Shannon, the capital of County Leitrim, on the Shannon, 98 miles NW. of Dublin by rail. Pop. 1384.

Carrick-on-Suir, a town of Tipperary, situated on the Suir, which is navigable at this point, 14 miles E. of Clonmel, and 149 miles SW. of Dublin by rail. It has woollen, linen and flax factories, and a good trade in agricultural produce, and there are slate-quarries in the neighbourhood. There are the remains of a castle built in 1309, and belonging to the Butler family, a branch of which hence received the title of Viscount and Earl of Carrick. A stone bridge connects it with the suburb of Carrickbeg in County Waterford, which has an abbey (1336). Pop. (1851) 7512; (1881) 6583.

Carrier, JEAN BAPTISTE, an infamous member of the French National Convention, was born at the village of Yolai, near Aurillac, in Auvergne, in 1756. Entering the National Convention in 1792, he took an active part in the formation of the Revolutionary Tribunal, voted for the death of the king, demanded the arrest of the Duke of Orleans, and assisted in the overthrow of the Girondists. At Nantes, whither he was sent on a mission against the moderates in 1793, he found ample means for indulging his insatiable thirst for human blood. The utter defeat of the Vendéans had filled the prisons with captives, and Carrier proposed and carried a resolution for murdering the unhappy prisoners *en masse*. Accordingly, he compelled ninety-four priests to embark in a vessel, under pretence of deportation, and during the night drowned

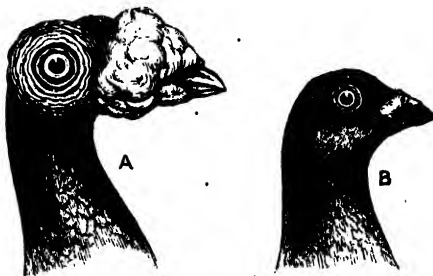
the whole of them, by having the ship scuttled. Such summary executions, called *noyades*, also 'vertical deportations,' were repeated to the number of twenty-five. Men and women also were tied together feet and hands, and thrown into the Loire; and this was called *mariage républicain* (republican marriage). The water of the Loire was so poisoned by corpses, that its use for drinking and cooking was prohibited. Five hundred political prisoners were shot, as in a battue, on the bridge near Nantes. In those massacres the form of trial was discontinued; and in four months 16,000 persons perished. Even Robespierre was offended by the enormities committed, and recalled Carrier, who boldly justified his own conduct before the Convention. The fall of Robespierre was, however, soon followed by outeries against Carrier; judgment was decreed against him, and he perished under the guillotine, 16th December 1794.

Carrier, MORIZ, a German philosopher and many-sided man of letters, born at Griedel, in Hesse, 5th March 1817, studied at Giessen, Göttingen, and Berlin, and in 1853 became professor of Philosophy at Munich. He is one of the founders of the modern school of thought which endeavours to reconcile Deism and Pantheism. His works on *Æsthetics* (q.v.) have been widely read in Germany; his *Ästhetik* reached a third edition in 1884, and so popular was his important work, *Die Kunst in Zusammenhang der Kulturentwicklung und die Ideale der Menschheit* (5 vols. 1863-74), that a third edition was commenced in 1876. He has also published *Die sittliche Weltordnung* (1877), a thoughtful monograph on Cromwell, several volumes of verse, &c.

Carrier Pigeon, a fancy variety of domestic pigeon; large in size, long in body and neck, bred in several different colours, and very remarkable in appearance from the great length of head and beak and enormous excrescences of white carunculated skin, called wattle, at the base of the beak and round the eyes. According to Darwin, the carrier is undoubtedly of Eastern origin, and is probably a descendant of the Persian messenger pigeon. It is stated in Moore's *Columbarium* (1735) that the carrier was first imported from Persia into Europe by Dutch sailors, 'being sometimes brought by shipping and sometimes in the caravans.' The striking appearance of the English carrier of to-day is due to the careful breeding of English pigeon-fanciers, and existed only to a very modified extent in the original imported bird. The Eastern carrier was probably very similar in appearance to the present 'dragon' pigeon, or to the formerly well-known 'horseman.' A good English show carrier should have a length of face of fully two inches, measured from the centre of the eye to the extremity of the beak. A stout box-beak is much esteemed, and the fineness of texture of the wattle is also an important property. From £50 to £100 has been paid for an exceptional bird—i.e. one good enough to take prizes in some of the many pigeon shows of this country. Having been bred for more than two centuries as a purely fancy variety, for show points alone, and its flying properties having been neglected, the English carrier has long since lost the attributes that gave it its name.

Moore states in his *Columbarium* that 'those who are possessed of true carriers, which are at present very scarce here, pay too dear, and have too great a value for them to risk their being lost' as letter-carriers. Like all highly developed fancy breeds, they are often delicate, and most of them are deficient in the strength, the intelligence, and the vigorous constitution necessary in a messenger bird. It is a common error to speak of the birds employed as messengers as 'carrier pigeons.' The

pigeons now made use of for long-distance flying and as message-bearers are called homers, or homing Antwerps, and are very different in appearance from 'carriers.' They are of medium



A, English Show Carrier Pigeon; B, Homer or Messenger Pigeon.

size, somewhat similar to the common pigeon in appearance, but heavier, stronger, and have larger heads.

The modern homer is a direct descendant of the pigeon voyageur of Belgium. The voyageur is a composite breed, resulting from a cross between the common thin-beaked blue rock (*Columba Livia*), the short-faced intelligent owl-pigeon, or smerle, the strong, determined, long-faced dragon, and the high-flying Antwerp cumulet, or other tumbler pigeon. The breed is now well established, and may be said to be of a general uniform type. From £40 to £50 has been paid for a good homer, a winner in a 500 miles race, but such a price is very exceptional. To insure the return of a homing pigeon that has been liberated far away from its home, a previous course of training is necessary. This is usually commenced in July, when the young birds are three or four months old. Those selected for training are placed in a basket, transported a short distance from home, and then liberated. These distances are successively increased in the same direction until the required stage has been reached. The following are the usual training stages, in miles from home: 1, 3, 6, 12, 21, 35, 50, 75, 100. There should be an interval of a few days between the tosses. Old birds may be 'jumped' farther than young ones. At three years of age 500 miles may be flown. Stages after 100 miles would be about as follows: 100, 150, 225, 325, 450 miles. These long distances are accomplished only by the very best birds. A large percentage of birds are always lost in training. Pigeon-racing is conducted through the medium of pigeon-flying societies or clubs. In England there are some 50 such clubs. In Belgium, France, Germany, and Italy they are very numerous. Every bird competing in a race is stamped with a mark unknown to the owner until the bird is caught on his return home. About 800 yards per minute is an average velocity. The highest authenticated velocity is 2200 yards per minute, in a race of 150 miles. The greatest distance flown is 1100 miles, in America.

The nature of the faculty by the exercise of which homing pigeons are able to find their way back to their far-distant homes has been much discussed by ornithologists. It is probable that sight and memory are supplemented by the effect of training always in the same direction, and that the bird may be assisted by the position of the sun, and the directions of warm or cold winds. Pigeons are frequently jumped 250 miles—i.e. after they have flown home from a place 200 miles away, their next toss may be 450 miles. At a height of 430 feet, a moderate height for a pigeon, the range of view on level ground is 25 miles. There are many instances of the early employment of pigeons for

transmitting intelligence. The use of the dove by Noah suggests a knowledge of the bird's habits. It is recorded that pigeons were used as message-bearers by the early navigators of Egypt, of Cyprus, and of Candia, and by the Romans in connection with the Olympic games. Their first employment in war appears to have been at the siege of Modena, 43 B.C. About the middle of the 12th century a regular system of pigeon communication was organised between Bagdad and all the important towns of Syria, and was afterwards extended to Egypt. Pigeon-flying is still in vogue in Asiatic countries where telegraphs do not exist. Further instances of the use of pigeons as war-messengers are the siege of Haarlem (1572), siege of Leyden (1574), and by the Chinese at the beginning of the 14th century.

Much prominence was given to the pigeon-post during the siege of Paris (1870-71). No birds had been sent out of the French capital previous to the arrival of the besiegers. Every pigeon that flew into Paris with messages had been previously sent out by balloon. Of 363 birds which were thus sent out over the heads of the Germans, 302 were liberated, but only 73 reached the capital. As some performed the journey several times, only 57 different birds succeeded in accomplishing the task. The pigeons were collected at Tours and afterwards at Poitiers, but were liberated with their messages at the farthest point north that could be safely reached.

By the use of microscopic photography an enormous number of messages could be sent. By first printing the messages, then photographing them on a thin film or pellicle of collodion about $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches by 2 inches, each film could contain 2500 despatches of twenty words each. One bird could carry at least a dozen of these, making 30,000 despatches. A pigeon that arrived in Paris on the 3d February carried 18 pellicles containing 40,000 messages. The pellicles were rolled up and inserted in a goose-quill about $\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, which was attached by a silk thread or thin wire along the upper surface of one of the tail-feathers. The weight of the messages was always less than 1 gramme ($15\frac{1}{2}$ grains). Pigeons will, however, carry 100 grains with ease, and for short distances have carried $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ounce (360 grains). The organisation of regular 'military pigeon systems' in almost every continental nation of Europe soon followed the Franco-German war. There are now about 60 European military pigeon stations. In France, Germany, Italy, and Denmark great encouragement is given by the state to private societies that fly their birds in directions fixed by the war ministers. England had, up to 1888, taken no steps in this direction.

During the first half of the present century pigeons were extensively employed for the conveyance of intelligence, but up to 1830 their use was almost confined, in England, to publicans and prize-fighters. A little later, however, they became generally used by newspaper reporters, and secretly for stockbroking purposes. The first English loft established by a stockbroker was at Dover in 1834, and two years later, there were three lofts at Dover, containing a total of 600 birds, employed by London stockbrokers and by the custom-house authorities. Birds were also kept at Folkestone for similar purposes. There were lofts at Boulogne, and others between Dover and London. Four pigeons were often used to carry a message from a few miles south of Boulogne to London, a distance of 135 miles. In summer time the message carried by the pigeon would arrive in London by mid-day, whereas the Paris mail could not be expected before midnight. Large fortunes were made on the stock exchange by this means. Before the introduction of railways, the difficulties of training the birds

were very great, and 80 miles was the farthest distance flown by a pigeon in England. The Belgians were the pioneers of modern long-distance flying. According to Dr Chapin, their first pigeon-race was in 1818, when 100 miles was accomplished. In 1820 a pigeon flew from Paris to Liège, about 200 miles, and in 1823 the first race from London to Belgium took place. In 1830, 110 pigeons flew a race from London to Antwerp, the winning bird accomplishing the journey of 180 miles in 5 hours and 5 minutes. The Belgian birds, up to this date, were shorter in face and smaller than those used for flying in England. They were faster on the wing, but not so reliable in bad weather. The present pigeon voyageur dates from about 1835, when the Belgian birds were first crossed with the larger and stronger English flyers. By the strict application of the principle of the survival of the fittest, and by breeding only from birds that have proved themselves good workers, the breed of homing pigeons has continued to improve up to the present day. Belgium is still the chief pigeon-flying country of the world. Every village has a 'Société Colombophile.' Races take place chiefly from the south-west of France, and are generally flown on Sundays. During the summer months, special trains, loaded entirely with pigeons, leave Brussels every Saturday. The king and the Comte de Flandres give prizes for the annual 'Concours National' of 500 miles, in which over 3000 pigeons often compete. In favourable weather this distance is accomplished in one day.

Carriers are those who undertake the carrying of goods from place to place by land and sea. In many parts of the East, carrying is done mainly by camels, in South America by llamas, in various parts of Europe by mules and pack-horses (see CAMEL). In England and Scotland, after the pack-horse came the one-horse cart and the four-wheeled wagon, which until the opening of canals, and especially of railways, was the universal means of land-conveyance, and the carrying-trade became by degrees an immense organisation. Canals largely superseded wagons towards the end of the 18th century (see CANALS); and railways soon reduced canals to a very humble share in the business of carrying, even for such goods as minerals, coal, bricks, manure, and the like bulky goods of no great value. Railways still imply a vast amount of work for horses, wagons, carts, lorries, and men in bringing goods from the senders to the trains, and in delivering them to the consignees on their arrival at the nearest railway station. Even when the railways undertake the whole business of receiving and delivering the goods, they frequently employ the men and horses of companies quite independent of themselves. The name of Pickford was famous before the days of railways, and is famous still. At the present time, the tendency is for the companies to take the responsibility of the whole conveyance, the carriers acting as their agents, if willing so to do, or else endeavouring to maintain a fair competition. The goods-vans traversing the streets of the metropolis and other great towns are now more frequently inscribed with the names of railway companies than with those of private carriers. There are parcels delivery companies, and special developments of carrying, such as vans for removing furniture, which are themselves transported by rail. The introduction of the Parcel Post system (1883) has in some respects revolutionised the carrying-trade in Britain. In America the carrying trade is largely in the hands of separate organisations, the Express Companies, who have special arrangements with the railways, and take all responsibility. Such Companies sometimes have the goods-traffic of a railway in their hands.

In Law, a carrier is one who offers to the public to convey passengers, or goods, from one place to another, for hire. The offer must be general—for a private person who contracts with another for carriage, is not a carrier in the legal sense, and does not incur the peculiar responsibilities which, in almost every country, it has been found expedient to attach to the occupation of a public or common carrier. Carriage, in law, is thus a peculiar modification of the contract of hiring. The contract may be express, depending on the terms of any agreement permitted by law, or implied from the status of a common carrier who has received goods of the kind which he professes to carry. Such goods he is not entitled to refuse unless they are dangerous, or by reason of popular tumult, or unless he has no convenient means of carrying them, or if they are not brought in time for packing, or delivered in a state insecure and unfit for carriage. The vehicle must be sufficient for safe carriage, and the carrier is bound properly to pack. The regular course of the journey must be followed, and perishable goods must be forwarded with reasonable speed. The carrier should give notice, when receiving the goods, of any known unusual cause of delay. In Rome, the responsibilities of carriers by water were regulated by a praetorian edict, which was applicable also to innkeepers and stablers; and from that edict the law of carriage in modern Europe has been mainly borrowed, sometimes directly, as in Scotland, sometimes indirectly, as in England. The ground on which the edict increased the responsibilities attaching to an ordinary contract of hiring was, that the persons whom it enumerated were under peculiar temptations to consort, either personally or through their servants, with thieves or robbers, without the connection being such as to admit of proof. This responsibility in our own law extends not only to the acts of the carrier's servants, but also to those of the guests of an inn, or the passengers in a conveyance. The only exception to this liability at common law is in the case of loss arising from the Act of God (q.v.) or the King's enemies—i.e. the fury of the elements, or war. Neither robbery nor theft is regarded as an inevitable accident.

But there are several limitations imposed by the Carriers Act, 1830, and the Railway and Canal Traffic Act, 1856. The liability for gold and silver, and articles of unusual value, is restricted to £10, unless the extra value has been previously stated and paid for as insurance against the greater risk (18 Vict. chap. 31); and the proof of value is laid on the person claiming compensation. On the other hand, it is provided that railway and canal companies shall be liable for neglect or default in the carriage of goods, animals, &c.; notwithstanding any notice or condition or declaration made by the company, for the purpose of limiting their liability. But the statute permits 'just and reasonable' conditions to be imposed. It also declares that all special contracts about the carriage of goods must be signed. A specimen of what is regarded as a reasonable condition is that, in the case of perishable goods, the company shall not be liable for loss of market and delay in transit. The Act of 1856 also compels the companies to give fair all-round facilities as regards transit and through rates, and not to give undue preference to particular traders. The decisions of the courts have also somewhat limited the universal responsibility of the carrier. For example, it has been decided that he is not liable, *qua* carrier (and the same applies to an innkeeper), for money taken from the pockets of the traveller; but that, if the money has been taken from the pockets of clothes which have been stolen, or from trunks which have been broken into, his responsibility comes into operation. For the

functions of the Railway Commissioners, and for the conveyance of passengers, see RAILWAYS.

Under carrier are included carters and porters, who offer themselves for hire, to carry goods from one part of a city to another. Whether the same be the case with hackney-coachmen is more doubtful. Wharfingers and warehousemen are liable only under the special contracts into which they may have entered, or in accordance with mercantile usage. Carriers are liable to make good to the owners of goods intrusted to them all losses arising from accidental fire. This rule was introduced into Scotland by the Mercantile Law Amendment Act of 1856. Carriers have a lien upon the goods they have carried for payment of the carriage only. The lien is, however, restricted to the particular goods to which the carriage refers, and ceases on possession of them having been given up. It does not cover any other account or balance due either by the sender or consignee to the carrier.

In the United States, carriers are treated as (1) carriers without hire; (2) carriers for hire, but not common carriers; and (3) common carriers. Those who carry without hire are held to ordinary care and diligence in performance of the undertaking; the confidence reposed in them being a sufficient consideration to create this liability. The second class, which may be termed private carriers or bailees for hire, are held to a greater degree of responsibility; they are held to such diligence as every prudent man commonly takes of his own goods, and are responsible for that ordinary negligence which is a want of such diligence. The liability of this private carrier depends upon a difference of facts, rather than a difference of legal principles; and may be increased or diminished by a special contract, which does not, however, change his character as carrier.

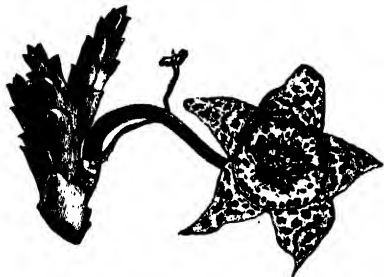
A common carrier, one who undertakes to carry passengers or goods for all who apply and agree to the lawful terms he prescribes, and who is liable to an action for damages if he refuses, is an agent for the public, and as such is held to extraordinary care in the discharge of his public duty. The Inter-state Commerce Act of Congress of February 4, 1887, prohibits common carriers from discriminating, in the transportation of passengers or property, between persons or places, and lays down much the same rules as regards undue preference and equal facilities as the British Act of 1856. It also prohibits charges which are not just and reasonable. It compels common carriers to print and make public 'the rates, fares, and charges for transportation of passengers and property; and forbids combinations among common carriers to prevent the carriage of freights from being continuous from the place of shipment to the place of destination.

This act created an Inter-state Commerce Commission, consisting of five members appointed by the president, by and with the advice of the senate, and clothed them with authority, with the usual powers, to inquire into the management of the business of every public carrier not confined to a single state. The act gives this commission extensive power to hear complaints and investigate the same, and to decide disputes, and to make the necessary regulations in the public interest. In fact, it closely resembles the British Railway Commission. See RAILWAYS. This law does not interfere with the legislative jurisdiction of the states within their own territory. The land carriage is generally subject to municipal law, and the Federal Courts have jurisdiction by virtue of the citizenship of the parties, while the carriage by water, as a branch of the Maritime and Admiralty jurisdiction, is properly in the United States or Federal courts.

In the United States it has been decided that sleeping-car companies are not responsible for effects carried by their passengers. Otherwise, the responsibility of carriers is the same in the United States as in Great Britain.

Carrion Crow. See CROW. The name is sometimes applied in America to a species of vulture. See VULTURE.

Carrion Flowers, a name which, on account of their smell resembling that of putrid meat, has been given to the flowers of many species of *Stapelia*, a genus of Asclepiadaceæ, which is otherwise remarkable for the succulent development of the cellular tissue of the stem and reduction of the leaves, resulting in a general aspect like that of



Carrion Flower (*Stapelia variegata*).

the Cactus family. There are about 100 species, all natives of the Cape of Good Hope. The flowers are often large and beautifully marked, but the carrion stench is very strong. They attract carrion flies, which may even lay their eggs in the flowers, and by these visitors it would appear that cross-fertilisation is effected. The name carrion flower is also given in some parts of the United States to *Smilax herbacea*, a totally distinct liliaceous plant.

Carroll, LEWIS. See DODGSON, CHARLES.

Carrollton, a town of Louisiana, on the Mississippi, 7 miles above New Orleans, of which city it has formed part since 1873. Earthenware and timber are produced, and there is a coloured university. Pop. (1880) 6168.

Carron, a village in Stirlingshire, on the right bank of the river Carron, 2 miles NNW. of Falkirk. It is celebrated for its great ironworks, established in 1760, which till 1852 produced 'carronades' and other implements of war, and which now turns out vast quantities of stoves, grates, boilers, pipes, &c.

Carronades are short cast-iron guns, of all calibres from 6-pounders to 68-pounders, invented by Mr Gascoigne, and named after the Carron Ironworks in Scotland, where they were first made in 1779. They were chambered, and attached to the carriage by a loop underneath instead of trunnions. Firing a comparatively large shot accurately at close quarters, they were at that time well adapted for use on board ship, but have long been superseded. See CANNON.

Carron Oil. See BURNS.

Carrot (*Daucus*), a genus of Umbelliferae, containing about 20 species, mostly natives of the Mediterranean countries. The common carrot (*D. Carota*) is a biennial plant, which ranges as far as India in the wild state, and is universally cultivated for the sake of its root. In all varieties of the wild plant this is slender, woody, and of a very strong flavour; that of the cultivated variety is much thicker and more fleshy, much milder in its flavour and qualities. Its colour is generally red, but sometimes orange or yellowish white. The

sub-varieties in cultivation are also distinguished by their form—some being longer and more tapering than others—by their size, and by the duration of their growth; the *early* kinds, 'Horn carrots,' being also comparatively small, and almost exclusively cultivated in gardens for culinary use, whilst the larger and *late* kinds, 'Long carrots,' are often also grown in fields, especially on the Continent, for feeding cattle. The carrot was known to the ancients, but is said to have been introduced into England from Holland only in the 16th century. In the reign of Charles I., Parkinson relates that ladies sometimes wore carrot-leaves as an ornament instead of feathers; and the beauty of the leaves is still occasionally acknowledged by placing a root, or the upper portion of one, in water, that it may throw out young leaves to adorn apartments in winter. The carrot prefers a light and rather sandy soil, but often succeeds very well on a peat soil.

Besides the various uses in cookery and in feeding cattle, carrots have been roasted and ground in Germany as a substitute for coffee; a syrup is also sometimes prepared from the roots, and even an ardent spirit distilled after fermentation. Carrots were formerly also of some medicinal repute as a laxative, vermifuge, poultice, &c.; and the 'seeds' (mericarps) have been employed as a substitute for caraways.

The carrot has many insect enemies which often inflict the greatest injuries upon the crop. Besides suffering from the attacks of a large number of lepidopterous larvæ (*Depressaria*, &c.), the leaves have one or two species of aphids peculiar to them. Serious subterranean mischief is often wrought by the larva of the cockchafer (*Melolontha*), and still more by the larva of *Agriotes sordidus*, one of the wire-worms so dreaded by farmers. The larva of the carrot fly (*Psila rosæ*) eats away the surface of the root, causing the so-called rust of carrots.

The Candy Carrot or Cretan Carrot is *Athamanta cretensis*, while the Deadly Carrot is *Thapsia stipulum*, another umbellifer of great medical repute in classic times. The name Native Carrot is given in Tasmania to the elongated tubers of *Geranium paeiflorum*.

Carse is a term applied in Scotland to low lands adjoining rivers. In Stirlingshire it is restricted to the level alluvial soils which are only a few feet above the river Forth. In Perthshire it is extended to the whole of the slightly undulating lands to the north of the Tay, which form the Carse of Gowrie. Carse soils generally consist of very fertile argillaceous deposits, although some are hungry and barren clays.

Carson, CHRISTOPHER, commonly known as KIT CARSON, born in Kentucky, 24th December 1809, emigrated to Missouri, where for many years he led the life of a trapper and hunter. His intimate acquaintance with Indian habits and languages secured his selection as a guide in Fremont's explorations, and as Indian agent in New Mexico, to which post he was appointed in 1853. For services in this quarter during the civil war, he was breveted brigadier-general. He died at Fort Lynn, Colorado, 23d May 1868. See his Life, by Charles Burdett (Phila. 1869).

Carson City, capital of the state of Nevada, U.S., near the foot of the Sierra Nevada, 178 miles ENE. of San Francisco. Gold and silver are found near by, and the town possesses a United States mint and several quartz-mills. Pop. (1880) 4227.

Carstairs, a village of East Lanarkshire, one mile NW. from which is Carstairs Junction on the Caledonian Railway, 28½ miles SW. of Edinburgh. Pop. of village (1881) 528; of junction (1881) 868.

Carstares, WILLIAM, a distinguished political and ecclesiastical character of the 17th century, who took a very active part in bringing about the Revolution of 1688, was born at Catheart, near Glasgow, February 11, 1649. He entered the university of Edinburgh in 1663, where he displayed a remarkable aptitude for learning, and graduated in 1667. Carstares went to study theology at Utrecht (1669), where his scholarship, polite address, knowledge of men, and great political information, especially regarding his own country, recommended him to the notice of the Prince of Orange, who chose him as his confidential adviser in all matters relating to Britain. In 1672 he went to London; in 1675 he was arrested and examined before Lauderdale for alleged 'tampering in several matters tending to the disturbance of the public peace,' and was kept prisoner in Edinburgh Castle till 1679. In 1682, being in England on a mission of observation from Holland, he was employed to negotiate between the English and Scotch conspirators a general rising in England and Scotland, Shaftesbury, Russell, and Argyll being the leaders. He knew of the Rye House Plot, but did not approve of it. He was arrested at Tenterden, Kent, conveyed to Edinburgh, and put to the torture of the boot and thumb-screw; a deposition was extracted from him as to his knowledge of Argyll's plot, which, in spite of assurances to the contrary, was immediately used in the trial of Baillie of Jerviswood. After an imprisonment of a year and a half, at London, Edinburgh, and Stirling, he returned to Holland about the beginning of 1685; was appointed second minister of the English church at Leyden (1686) and chaplain to the Prince of Orange, with whom he had constant and confidential intercourse. He accompanied him as chaplain in the invasion of 1688, and after the prince had been firmly established as William III., Carstares was instrumental in effecting a reconciliation between him and the Scottish Church, when the ill advice of other councillors had nearly led to an open rupture. From 1693 to the death of the king in 1702 he could not have had more influence in Scottish affairs if he had been prime-minister of the country; his authority in church matters was such, that he was popularly called 'Cardinal Carstares' by the Jacobites. He was elected principal of the university of Edinburgh in 1703. In 1704 he was presented to the church of Greyfriars, and was appointed Moderator of the next General Assembly, an office to which he was four times elected in the course of eleven years. His great influence was used in procuring the passage of the Treaty of Union. He died 28th December 1715, deeply regretted by the whole nation, leaving a high reputation for tact and ability in ecclesiastical policy, as well as for sincere piety and unbounded private charity. See *Life of Carstares*, by Rev. Dr Story (1874).

Carstens, ASMUS JAKOB, a Danish artist, the reviver of art in Germany, was born near Sleswick, May 10, 1754. Apprentice for five years to a wine-merchant, in 1776 he went to Copenhagen to study art; for five years (1783-88) barely supported himself by portrait-painting in Lübeck; and after settling in Berlin, had two years to pass in pinching poverty before his great composition, the 'Fall of the Angels' (with 200 figures), gained him an appointment as professor in the Academy, employment from the court, and a pension. He was now enabled to visit Rome, where he devoted himself to the study of the works of Michael Angelo and Raphael; and his influence in elevating later German art, and in inducing a keener study of these masters, cannot be too highly estimated. His numerous drawings mostly represented scenes from

the ancient classic poets, with subjects from Shakespeare and Ossian. Having broken with the Berlin Academy, he died in the deepest poverty at Rome, May 25, 1798. See his *Life* by Fernow (Leip. 1806; new ed. 1867).

Cart, a species of carriage with two wheels, thus differing from the ordinary four-wheeled Wagon (q.v.). The Scotch cart, used also in the north of England, is exceedingly convenient for general merchandise or for agricultural produce, and is well adapted for being drawn on roads in a hilly country. Its weight is only about half a ton, while its usual load is from a ton to 22 cwt. Its carrying capacity for hay or straw may be increased by adding 'top-sides' or a sparred frame. Offenders used to be ignominiously exposed by being carted through a town; and were sometimes whipped at the cart's tail. All carts in Great Britain must by law bear the name and address of their owner conspicuously marked on them.

Cartagena, a fortified seaport of Spain, on a bay of the Mediterranean, 326 miles SE. of Madrid by rail. It is built partly on the declivity of a hill, and partly on a plain extending down to the sea, and is inclosed by hills which screen it from all winds. The harbour is one of the best in the Mediterranean, capacious enough to hold the largest fleets. The entrance is narrow, and completely commanded by a fortified island on the south. It was formerly the largest naval arsenal not only in Spain but in Europe. The city presents a Moorish aspect in its streets, its cathedral, and its ruined castle. Cartagena has manufactures of ropes, sail-cloth, and glass, besides extensive blast-furnaces and smelting-works, and exports lead, silver, iron, esparto grass, &c. Pop. of town and suburbs (1884) 75,980. Cartagena, which was a colony of the Carthaginians, was built by Hasdrubal 242 B.C., under the name of New Carthage. It formed the headquarters of the Carthaginians in Spain, and soon became a city of much wealth and influence. It was captured by P. Scipio in 210 B.C., and became of importance under the Romans, who are said to have employed 40,000 men daily in the neighbouring mines. It was sacked by the Goths, and did not again attain any note until the time of Philip II. In July 1873 Cartagena, with its arsenal and war-ships, was seized by a communal junta, but was retaken by the national forces in January 1874.

Cartagena, capital of the Colombian state of Bolivar, stands on a sandy island off the north coast, to the SW. of the mouth of the Magdalena, and communicates by four bridges with its suburb, Jetsemani, on the mainland. Though it has the best harbour on the coast, its trade has greatly fallen off since the rise of Sabanilla; but a canal connecting it with Calamar, on the Magdalena, has been reopened, and a return of prosperity is hoped for the port. In 1887 the imports and exports were valued respectively at \$1,404,905 and \$2,824,956. Nearly half the imports are British, but the bulk of the foreign export trade is with the United States and Germany. The streets are narrow, with high houses, but the place is well built, and possesses a university, a handsome cathedral, and several churches. Founded in 1533, it was burned by Drake in 1585, but in 1741 repulsed an attack by Admiral Vernon. In 1815 the royalist General Morillo reduced the place by hunger, after a brave defence; but in 1821 it was again freed from the Spanish yoke. Pop. (1887) 12,000.

Cartago, (1) a river and almost landlocked bay or lagoon, communicating with the Caribbean Sea, near the northern extremity of the Mosquito Coast. —(2) A town of Costa Rica, 12 miles E. of the

present capital, San José, on a plain to the south of the constantly smoking volcano of Irazú (11,500 feet). Pop. 8000, mostly small traders and farmers. Founded in 1522, the place had 23,000 inhabitants in 1823, and was capital of the state till 1841, when it was all but destroyed by an earthquake.—(3) A town of Cauca, in Colombia, founded in 1540, on the Rio Viejo, 3 miles above its junction with the Cauca. Pop. (1870) 7696; (1880) stated at 3000.

Carte, THOMAS, historian, was born in 1686 at Clifton-upon-Denmore, near Rugby, Warwickshire, where his father was vicar. Educated at University College, Oxford (1698-1702), he took his M.A. both there and at Cambridge, and receiving holy orders in 1707, was appointed reader at the Abbey Church, Bath. In 1714, however, being strongly attached to the Stuarts, he resigned his office rather than take the oaths to the Hanoverian government. In 1722 he was suspected of complicity in the conspiracy of Bishop Atterbury, whose secretary he was, and £1000 was offered for his apprehension; but he escaped to France, where he remained till 1728. After his return, he published a *Life of James, Duke of Ormonde* (2 vols. 1736), more full than lively, and a *History of England* (4 vols. 1747-55), bringing it down to the year 1654. The prospects of this work were blighted by an unlucky note in vol. i., ascribing to the Pretender the gift of touching for the king's evil. It is very valuable for its wealth of original materials, but the author had not the capacity to grapple with these philosophically. Hume and other historians, however, were much indebted to him for their facts. Among Carte's other works was an edition of Thuanus (*De Thou*, q.v.); and at his death, on 7th April 1754, he left behind him 20 folio and 15 quarto volumes of MSS. in further illustration of the history of England to 1688, which are preserved in the Bodleian Library, Oxford.

Carte Blanche, a 'blank paper' authenticated with an authoritative signature, and intrusted to some one to be filled up as he may think best. Thus in 1649 Charles II. tried to save his father's life by sending from the Hague to the Parliament a signed carte blanche to be filled up with any terms which they would accept as the price of his safety. In 1832 Earl Grey was said to have been armed with a carte blanche for the creation of new peers.

Cartel (dim. of *carta*, 'paper') means variously a challenge and a written agreement between belligerents for an exchange of prisoners. Cartel ship is a vessel commissioned to convey exchanged prisoners.

Carte, ELIZABETH, an English lady remarkable for her knowledge of ancient and modern languages, was born 16th December 1717, at Deal, Kent, and was the daughter of a clergyman. In her twenty-first year she published a small volume of poems, and in the succeeding year she translated (anonymously) from the Italian of Algarotti *Sir Isaac Newton's Philosophy explain'd for the Use of Ladies*. These publications brought her into note, and obtained for her the friendship of such men as Bishop Butler, Archbishop Secker, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Burke, Horace Walpole, and Dr Johnson, the latter of whom especially held her in great esteem, and had a high opinion of her proficiency as a Greek scholar and a good housewife. Her translation of Epictetus was most favourably received by the literary press of her time, both at home and abroad. She died in London unmarried, 19th February 1806, at the age of eighty-eight. See her *Life* by Pennington (2d ed. 1808).

Carteret, JOHN, EARL GRANVILLE, one of the most eminent British orators, diplomatists, and statesmen of the 18th century, was born April 22, 1690, his father, who died when he was five years old, being Baron Carteret of Hawnes, Bedfordshire. He received his education at Westminster School and Christ Church College, Oxford. From Oxford he proceeded to London, plunged into the political and social excitements of the period, made the acquaintance of Swift, and in 1710 married Lady Frances Worsley. Entering the House of Lords on May 25, 1711, as second Baron Carteret, he espoused the side of the Whigs, then led by Stanhope and Sunderland, and in 1714 made his first speech in the House of Lords in support of the Protestant Succession. On the accession of George I., the Whigs came into power, and Carteret became a Lord of the Bedchamber. In 1719 he was appointed by Stanhope ambassador extraordinary to Sweden, and succeeded in arranging two treaties of peace, the first between Sweden, Hanover, and Prussia, and the second between Denmark and Sweden. In 1721 he was appointed to one of the two foreign secretaryships, that for the 'Southern Department' of Europe, and as such, attended in 1723 the congress of Cambrai which attempted the settlement of differences between Germany and Spain, and accompanied George I. to Berlin. In 1724 Carteret was appointed Lord-lieutenant of Ireland. His administration, which lasted, with an interruption, till 1730, was decidedly successful, for, although one of his first acts was to order the prosecution of the author, printer, and publisher of *Drapier's Letters*, it was on his recommendation that Wood's coinage was abandoned in 1725. Although he came into collision with Swift over the Drapier prosecution, the two became warm friends before Carteret left Ireland. Between 1730 and 1742 Carteret took the lead in the House of Lords of the party opposed to Sir Robert Walpole. When this opposition succeeded in overthrowing Walpole, Carteret became the real head of the administration which succeeded his, although nominally only Secretary of State for the Northern Department. Carteret held this position till 1744. His foreign policy, it is now generally admitted, was essentially a wise one, its main object being the bringing about of an understanding between Maria Theresa, Frederick the Great, and the Emperor of Germany, and the detachment of the last from his alliance with France. But he had no time to develop it, being driven from power by the Pelhams in 1744, about a month after he became Earl Granville on the death of his mother, who had been created Countess Granville in her own right. In 1751 Carteret consented to become Lord President of the Council under Henry Pelham. But although he held this office till his death, and twice refused the premiership, he was no longer a very pronounced force in British politics, acting chiefly as a medium of communication between his sovereign and the leading politicians of the time. He was, however, instrumental in bringing the elder Pitt into office, and greatly admired his powers. Carteret died at his house in London, January 2, 1763. He was twice married. His first wife died in 1743. In 1744 he married the leading beauty of the day, Lady Sophia Fermano, who, however, died the following year. Carteret, who is described by Horace Walpole and Lord Shelburne as 'commanding beauty,' was one of the first orators, purest patriots, keenest wits, brightest classical scholars, and most ardent convivialists of his time.

The chief authorities on the life of Carteret are *Lord Carteret, a Political Biography*, by Archibald Ballantyne (London, 1887), and the *Carteret Papers* in the British Museum. Carlyle's *Frederick the Great*, Sheridan's and Craik's *Lives of Swift*, *Horace Walpole's Correspondence*, *Graham's Annals and Correspondence*

of the *Earls of Stair, The Marchmont Papers*, and Lord E. Fitzmaurice's *Life of Shelburne*, may also be consulted.

Carteret, PHILIP, navigator, sailed as lieutenant in Byron's voyage, and commanded the second vessel in Wallis's expedition to the southern hemisphere (22d August 1766). Separated from Wallis in the following April, while clearing the Strait of Magellan, he proceeded alone, discovering Pitcairn's and a number of other small islands, one of which, in the Solomon Archipelago, bears his name, and returned round the Cape of Good Hope to England, 20th March 1769. His long voyage, in a ship ill-found and unseaworthy, added much to the geographical knowledge of his time. He retired from active service in 1794 with the rank of rear-admiral, and died at Southampton, 21st July 1796.

Cartesian Devil, DIVER, or BOTTLE IMP, is a scientific toy named after Descartes. A tall glass vessel is nearly filled with water, and covered with an air-tight piece of bladder or india-rubber. In and on the water floats a small hollow figure, with a hole near the top, partly filled with air and partly with water. When the cover of the glass is pressed, the air beneath is compressed and water enters the floating figure (so as to bring the air in it to the same degree of compression), and the figure sinks in the water, not rising again till the pressure is removed.—For the CARTESIAN PHILOSOPHY, see DESCARTES.

Carthage, a city on the north coast of Africa, the capital of one of the great empires of the ancient world. It was situated on a peninsula at the north-east corner of the region now known as Tunis, and was founded, most probably about the middle of the 9th century B.C., by Phœnicians who came either from Tyre or from the Tyrian settlement of Utica. The Carthaginians were thus of Semitic origin. They were an offshoot from the Canaanites who occupied Palestine before the Jewish invasion, and whose language was closely akin to Hebrew. The name Carthage is a corruption of Kirjath, the Canaanite word for a town, which occurs in Scripture in such names as Kirjath-Baal and Kirjath-Jearim. The city, called Carthago by the Romans, and Karchēdon by the Greeks, was known to its own inhabitants as Kirjath-Hadeshath, or the New Town, to distinguish it either from Tyre or from the earlier Phœnician colony of Utica. Its history may be divided into three periods—the period before 509 B.C., when the first treaty was concluded with Rome; the period of the Greco-Phœnician wars in Sicily; and the period of the Punic wars, from 264 B.C. to 146 B.C.

Of the city's rise to power and opulence nothing is known. It does not come within view of the historian until the 6th century B.C., when it appears as centre of a great commerce and the capital of extensive dominions, including part of the north coast of Africa, Sardinia, part of Sicily, and probably Malta. Corsica was acquired about the close of the century. A hegemony was established over Utica, Hadrumetum, Hippo, and the other Phœnician cities in Africa, from which a money tribute was received, while a tribute in kind was exacted from the neighbouring African tribes. Besides pure Canaanites, the Carthaginian population included a large number of Liby-Phœnicians, or half-breeds, the offspring of unions of Phœnicians and Africans. These half-breeds were regarded with keen jealousy by the rulers of the city, and the famous expedition of Hanno, which took place, as far as can be ascertained, towards the close of the 6th century B.C., was fitted out to transport them to distant settlements. There is in the library of Heidelberg a Greek manu-

script termed the 'Periplus' (or 'Circumnavigation'), which is said to be a translation of the account of his voyage placed by Hanno in the temple of Moloch at Carthage. According to this narrative, Hanno sailed beyond the Pillars of Hercules; founded cities of the Liby-Phœnicians; made his way up 'a great river called Chretes' (probably the Senegal); and after having 'sailed by streams of fire,' came to 'a bay which is called the Southern Horn,' and which has been identified with Sherboro Sound, to the south of Sierra Leone. Scarcity of provisions prevented him from sailing farther to the south. (See Mer, *Mémoire sur le Périple d'Hannon*, Paris, 1885.) About the same time Himilco is said to have explored parts of the northern coasts of Europe, but regarding this voyage we have no trustworthy information. In 525 B.C. Carthage would in all likelihood have been destroyed by Cambyses but for the refusal of the Phœnicians, who formed part of his fleet, to act against their kinsmen. By the first treaty between Carthage and Rome (509 B.C.) the Romans were restricted from sailing beyond the Fair Promontory (probably Cape Bon)—a provision probably designed to exclude them from Spain, with which Carthage had a great commerce—while the Carthaginians were forbidden to injure any Latin city, even though it should not happen to be subject to Rome. A later treaty, of which the exact date is unknown, imposed harder conditions on the Romans, whom it debarred from trading in Africa and Sardinia, while it permitted the Carthaginians to attack Latin cities not under Roman rule. It forbade them, however, to make any settlement in Italy.

From the beginning of the 5th century B.C. to the date of the city's downfall, the history of Carthage is the history of a struggle for supremacy between the Semitic and the Aryan races—a struggle waged first by the Canaanite and the Greek, and then by the Canaanite and the Roman. The Greco-Phœnician wars were fought for the possession of Sicily, an island only a hundred miles distant from Carthage, and 'the natural bridge between Italy and Africa.' On the outbreak of the Persian war, the Carthaginians determined to annex Sicily at a time when its Greek colonists could receive no aid from the parent cities. In 480 Hamilcar landed on the island with a motley force of Phœnicians, Libyans, Iberians, Corsicans, Sardinians, and Ligurians, said—but probably with exaggeration—to have numbered 300,000 men. Gelon of Syracuse, with 55,000 men, met the invaders at Himera, where Hamilcar was slain and his army cut to pieces. This great victory is said to have been won on the same day as the battle of Salamis. Seventy years elapsed before the Carthaginians renewed the struggle. In 410 B.C. Hannibal, a grandson of Hamilcar, invaded Sicily with 100,000 men, and after massacring the people of Selinus, captured Himera, and there offered up 3000 captives as an expiatory sacrifice to the spirit of Hamilcar. Another expedition was despatched from Carthage in 406 B.C., and in 396 B.C. Himilco blockaded Syracuse, the last of the great Hellenic cities in the island which remained unconquered. But pestilence having broken out among the besiegers, Dionysius, the tyrant of Syracuse, fell upon their camp, and only a fragment of their army escaped to Africa. The struggle went on until the death of Dionysius, success inclining now to one side, now to the other. Then there was peace for twenty years, during which the power of Carthage steadily waxed in Sicily. So formidable did she become, that in 344 the Syracusans appealed to Corinth, their mother-city, for aid against her. The Corinthians sent them 700 mercenaries under Timoleon. With 6000 men Timoleon routed a host of 70,000 Carthaginians as they were attempting to cross

the river Crimessus (339 B.C.); a second Greek victory followed; and the tide of Semitic invasion was rolled back. Carthage sued for peace, and the contest was not renewed until 309 B.C., when Syracuse, under the rule of the tyrant Agathocles, was rent by civil dissensions. Hard pressed at home, Agathocles formed the audacious design of falling upon Carthage while her forces were mainly in Sicily. Eluding the Carthaginian fleet, he landed in Africa, gained victory after victory, and carried the war up to the walls of Carthage. But his presence being urgently required in Syracuse, he had to leave his son Archagathus in charge of the army. Archagathus proved incompetent. On the return of his father a mutiny broke out; Agathocles fled to Sicily, and his troops made peace with Carthage. The Græco-Phœnician wars came to an end with the Sicilian campaigns of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus. That monarch, one of the greatest generals of antiquity, projected the conquest of Carthage, but wasted his strength in a futile contest with Rome, and after leading the Greeks of Sicily with varying fortune against the Carthaginians, was forced to quit the island in 276 B.C.

The first of what are known, from the Latin word *Pœnienus*, 'Phœnician,' as the Punic Wars began in 264 B.C. The conquest of Southern Italy by Rome had brought face to face the two rivals for supremacy in the Mediterranean world. The Mamertines, a body of Campanian mercenaries who had served under Agathocles, sought and obtained Roman aid against Syracuse and Carthage. The Romans won two great sea-fights at Mylæ (260 B.C.) and at Ecnomus (256 B.C.), and Regulus carried the war into Africa, where he was defeated and his army almost annihilated by the Carthaginians under the command of the Spartan Xanthippus (255 B.C.). In Sicily the Romans were for a time baffled by the consummate generalship of the great Hamilcar Barca, who defied all efforts to dislodge him from the stronghold of Eryx. But he received no adequate support from Carthage, and a naval victory won by Rome at the Ægates Islands brought the war to a close in 241 B.C. Carthage gave up all claim to Sicily, and paid an indemnity of nearly £800,000. But Hamilcar marched out from Eryx with all the honours of war. The Carthaginian mercenaries then mutinied, and were supported by the Libyan tribes. After a bloody struggle which lasted from 241 to 236 B.C., the rebellion was crushed by Hamilcar. That great general then determined to build up an empire in Spain which would compensate for the loss of Sicily and furnish an admirable recruiting ground in the struggle with Rome, of which he foresaw the renewal. He crossed into Spain in 236 B.C., and before his death in 229 B.C. he had by arms and diplomacy extended the sway of Carthage over a great part of the peninsula. His work was ably carried on by his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, who was remarkably successful in conciliating the Spaniards. Hasdrubal was assassinated in 221 B.C., when Carthage held all Spain up to the Ebro.

On the death of Hasdrubal the troops chose as their leader Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, the greatest of all the Carthaginians, and 'the greatest captain that the world has seen.' In 219 B.C. Hannibal captured the town of Saguntum, a city in alliance with Rome. The Romans, who had long been jealous of the progress their rivals had made in Spain, thereupon declared that the treaty was broken, and the Second Punic War began. That war is in this work dealt with in the articles HANNIBAL and ROME. It was, as Arnold has said, the war of a man with a nation; no other war shows so impressively what the genius of a

single man can achieve. The campaigns of Hannibal are the most wonderful in all history. Here, however, it must suffice to say that he led his men from the Ebro to Italy; that he had himself in a great measure to create the far inferior forces with which, in battle after battle, at the Ticinus and the Trebia, at Trasimenus and at Cannæ, he broke and drove the legionaries, the best soldiers of the ancient world; that he brought Rome to the verge of ruin, and that his victories would, in all likelihood, have been crowned by her capture had he been duly supported from home. But his countrymen were unworthy of the great Carthaginian. After having maintained himself in Italy for fifteen years, he was recalled in 203 B.C. In 202 B.C. Publius Cornelius Scipio invaded Africa and won the battle of Zama. Peace was then concluded. The Carthaginians were forbidden to make war on any state without permission of the Romans. They were compelled to give up all war-ships except ten, and to pay an indemnity of ten thousand talents and an annual tribute of two hundred.

In the years between the Second and the Third Punic Wars, Massinissa, king of Numidia, made repeated aggressions on Carthage. The Carthaginians appealed in vain for justice to the Romans, who had resolved on the destruction of the city, and who declared war in 149 B.C. Carthage fell in 146 B.C. It was taken by Publius Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus after a siege of two years. For six days the fighting went on in the streets of the city, the people, men and women, defending their houses with a fierce determination which recalls the resistance of the Jews in the siege of Jerusalem by Titus. The city was razed to the ground, and the country became a Roman province. At the time of the siege Carthage is said to have had 700,000 inhabitants.

Carthage was to rise again as a Roman city, but her capture by Scipio closes her history as the capital of a Phœnician state and the centre of a vanished civilisation. Our knowledge of that civilisation is meagre and vague in the extreme. And it must be remembered that what we do know of Carthage is derived from her implacable enemies. To the Greeks the Carthaginians seem to have been more repugnant than any other 'barbarians.' With the Romans 'Phœnician' was synonymous with all that is cruel and treacherous. Yet, were it not for Greek and Roman writers we should know nothing of Carthaginian history. In reading that history, wide allowance must be made for the fact that no Carthaginian version of it has come down to us. Still, even when that is done, it is hardly possible to follow with sympathetic interest the fortunes of Carthage apart from those of the great family of Barca. Her people were bold and skilful sailors, and the most industrious and enterprising of merchants. She produced several men of high practical ability, and one man of incomparable military genius. But her people had not the qualities of an imperial race. A nation of traders, they trusted in war principally to mercenaries; it was seldom that native Carthaginians, save in times of acute peril, formed any considerable part of the army. Their rule was peculiarly oppressive, and their subjects were at all times ready to rise against them. In the struggle with the Greeks they committed the bloodiest atrocities. Their civilisation seems to have been wholly material; they had apparently no artistic genius; their religion was the most hideous ever practised by a people emerged from barbarism. Their overthrow by Rome was, it can hardly be doubted, a gain to mankind. Still, it must never be forgotten that it was in this strange Canaanite people, 'alone of barbarian nations, that Greece and Italy found real instructors, worthy rivals in commerce, policy, and warfare' (Freeman).

Like other Canaanites, the Carthaginians practised a horrible form of fire-worship. Their chief god was Moloch or Baal-Hammon, who represented the destructive power of the sun. In his temple there burned a furnace into which human victims were cast. These were generally captives taken in war, but in times of extreme peril native Carthaginians were also sacrificed; when Agathocles besieged the city, it is said that 200 children belonging to the noblest families were slain to propitiate the god. The moon-goddess, Ashtarothe, the Greek Astarte, was worshipped under the name of Tanist. Melkart, who corresponded to the Greek Hercules, was held in special honour, and missions with offerings were sent at regular intervals to his great temple at Tyre. A sea-god, whom the Greeks identified with Poseidon, was in all probability the same as the Philistine fish-god Dagon. Another deity named Esmun seems to have presided over healing. Religious honours were paid to deified heroes; to certain genii or spirits; to various animals—among them the lion, the bull, and the serpent—and to several of the Greek divinities, with whom the Carthaginians became acquainted in Sicily. There does not appear to have been an order of priests, the sacrificial rites being performed by the generals and the principal magistrates.

The constitution was oligarchical. The two chief magistrates were called by the Romans *suffetes*, a corruption of a Canaanite word corresponding to the Hebrew *shophetim* or 'judges.' The *suffetes* were chosen from the members of certain distinguished families. The tenure of office is uncertain; some seem to have been elected annually, others for life; but they could not lead an army or a fleet unless specially appointed to the command. The senate contained an inner council of a hundred, which seems to have been the chief executive power in the state. It exercised a jealous supervision over the generals, who had on returning to the city to submit reports of all their transactions to its members. There was also an assembly of the people, which seems, however, to have had very slight political influence. According to Aristotle, the state officials were unpaid. So far as can be ascertained, justice was administered by special courts. The oligarchy seems to have been invariably rent into factions, and corruption was rife during at least the later period of Carthaginian history. An immense revenue was necessary to maintain the navy and mercenaries. It was drawn from heavy customs duties levied on imported goods, from the tribute paid by other Phœnician cities and the subject African tribes, and from rich mines worked by the state in Corsica and Spain. The contributions in kind were partly transmitted to Carthage, partly stored up in the provinces for the service of the army. The state could without difficulty send out a force of 100,000 troops. The fleet which was defeated at Ecnomus numbered 350 ships, and had 150,000 men on board. The commerce of Carthage was not confined to the Mediterranean ports. Her ships sailed as far west at least as the Azores, as far north as Britain and the Baltic; and she carried on an immense trade with the interior of Africa. Some of her caravans pushed across the Sahara to the basin of the Niger; others journeyed regularly between Thebes, in Egypt, and the Strait of Gibraltar, following a route with fixed stations for halting, which are carefully set down by Herodotus. Slaves, gold, ivory, and precious stones were the staple of the African trade. Wine, cattle, iron, fruit, &c. were imported from the Mediterranean countries. Spain and Sardinia furnished silver; Corsica, slaves; Britain, tin and copper; the Baltic, amber. A considerable overland trade was carried on through Spain with the Gallic tribes, as the

Massilians would not allow trading stations to be established on the southern coast of Gaul.

The Carthaginians had no aptitude for art—even their coins bear the impress of Greek design and workmanship—and if they had a literature it has perished. When the city was taken by Scipio, the contents of its libraries, which may have been principally Greek works, were dispersed and lost. A single book, a treatise on agriculture, ascribed to one Mago, was preserved and translated into Latin by order of the Roman senate. Cicero speaks of this work (*De Re Rustica*) as being in his day the standard authority on its subject. Himilco is said to have written an account of his voyage to the north-western shores of Europe, and, according to Livy, Hannibal wrote a history of his own campaigns. A corrupt form of the Carthaginian or Canaanite language was spoken in parts of North Africa in the days of Augustine, who was struck by the close resemblance which it bore to Hebrew.

Some twenty years after the destruction of Carthage, Cains Gracchus endeavoured to found a Roman colony on her site. This scheme, which at first ended in failure, was carried out by Augustus, in accordance with the intentions of Julius Cæsar. In the 3d century A.D. the new Carthage had become one of the chief cities of the empire. It figured conspicuously in ecclesiastical history, being the scene of several important councils and synods. At a church conference held there in 411 A.D. the suppression of the Donatists was decreed; and the Pelagian heresy was condemned by a council of Carthage held in 418 A.D. The city, which was seized by Genseric in 439 A.D., became the capital of the Vandal kingdom of Africa, and 'after an interval of six centuries, the fleets that issued from the port of Carthage again claimed the empire of the Mediterranean' (Gibbon). The Vandal kingdom was overthrown by Belisarius, who took Carthage in 533 A.D., and named it Justiniana. The city, which Heraclius at one time proposed to make the capital of the empire, was destroyed by the Arabs under Hassan, governor of Egypt, who conquered part of Northern Africa for the Calif Abd-al-Melik in 692-98 A.D.

For the legendary history of Carthage, see the article DIDO.

See the histories of Arnold, Grote, and Mommsen; Bosworth Smith's admirable *Carthage and the Carthaginians* (1879); the *History of Art in Phœnicia and her Dependencies*, by G. Perrot and C. Chipiez, translated by W. Armstrong (1885); Davies, *Carthage and her Remains* (1861); Hennebert, *Histoire d'Anibal* (Paris, 1870-78); Professor Church, *Carthage, or the Empire of Africa* (1886); and the geographical treatises of Heeren. Among ancient writers, the chief authorities on Carthage are Polybius, Diodorus Siculus, and Livy. Flaubert's *Salammbô* is a vivid picture of ancient Carthaginian life, marvellously learned in details, and illumined with genius.

Carthage, CAPE, a headland of North Africa, jutting out into the Mediterranean, in 36° 52' N. lat., 10° 22' E. long., with traces of the ancient city of Carthage to the north of the Tunis lagoon.

Carthagena. See CARTAGENA; and for Carthagena Bark, see CINCHONA.

Carthamine, or CARTHAMEINE. The dye so called is obtained by a chemical process from *Carthamus tinctorius*, or Safflower (q.v.), in crystals which are insoluble in water, slightly soluble in ether, and which with alcohol readily form a purple-red solution. When newly precipitated, carthamine immediately and permanently attaches itself to cotton or silk (but not to wool), requiring no mordant. It dyes the fabric a fine red, which is changed to yellow on the addition of alkalis, and may be returned to red again on being treated with acids. The safflower contains about .5 per

cent. of carthamine, and also about 25 per cent. of a yellow colouring matter called safflower-yellow, which, however, is of no value in dyeing.

Carthusians, a monastic order which owes its origin to St Bruno, who retired in 1086 with six companions to the solitude of La Chartreuse (q.v.—hence the name), where they built hermitages, wore rude garments, and lived upon vegetables and coarse bread. In 1134 the fifth prior, Guigo, composed a body of rules, called the *Statuta Guigonis* or *Consuetudines Cartusie*, but they have been often changed. After 1176, when the order received papal approbation, it extended rapidly. It dates from 1180 in England, where the name of Chartreuse was corrupted into Charterhouses (q.v.). The Carthusians were divided into two classes, fathers (*patres*) and brothers (*conversi*). Each occupied a separate cell, with a bed of straw, a pillow, a woollen coverlet, and the means of manual labour or of writing. They left their cell, even for meals, only on festivals and on days of the funeral of a brother of the order. Thrice a week they fasted on bread, water, and salt, and there were several lengthened fasts in the year. Flesh was forbidden at all times, and wine, unless mixed with water. Unbroken silence, except on rare occasions, was enforced, as well as frequent prayer and night-watching. These austerities were continued, with little modification, by the modern Carthusians. The order at one time counted 16 provinces, and boasted some of the most magnificent convents in the world—as La Grande Chartreuse, near Grenoble, and Certosa, near Pavia. They were given to hospitality and works of charity, and were on the whole better educated than the mendicant orders. Their principal seats were in Italy, France, and Switzerland; but they have shared the fate of the other monastic establishments, and their convents are now for the most part solitudes indeed.—The Carthusian nuns arose at Salette, on the Rhone, in France, about 1229. They followed the rules of the Carthusian monks, but with some mitigations, of which the most notable is that they have a common refectory.

Cartier, JACQUES, a French navigator, born at St Malo, 31st December 1494, between 1534 and 1541 made three voyages of discovery to North America (see CANADA). He returned to St Malo, where he seems to have settled, but the date of his death is unknown.

Cartilage, or **CRISTLE**, is a firm elastic substance, of a pearly whiteness, presenting to the unaided eye a uniform and homogeneous appearance. Cartilages may be divided into the *temporary* and the *permanent*. The *temporary* cartilages are substitutes for bone in the earlier periods of life, and after a certain time become ossified. At birth the extremities and larger eminences of the long bones and the margins of the flat bones are still cartilaginous, and this cartilage does not altogether disappear till the period of puberty. The *permanent* cartilages are either *articular* or *non-articular*. *Articular* cartilages are attached to the extremities of bones, and enter into the formation of joints. *Non-articular* cartilages are usually more flexible than the articular. They are sometimes attached to bones to lengthen them out, as, for instance, the costal or rib cartilages which form a considerable part of the framework of the thorax, and impart elasticity to its walls. They are present in the nose, the auditory canal, and the Eustachian tube. In other cases they form the basis of distinct organs, as the larynx, the trachea, and the eyelids. The physical properties of cartilages, especially their elasticity, resisting power, and incapability of extension, are such as to fit them admirably for the functions which they have

to perform in the animal economy. See CELL, BONE, LARYNX; and for the chemical constituents, see GELATIN and GLUTEN. Cartilage is liable to inflammation, to ulceration, and to ossification; for the diseases of the larynx, see that article.

Cartilaginous Fishes, a designation which may be usefully restricted to that sub-class of fishes to which sharks and skates belong, and to which the technical titles of Elasmobranchii and Chondropterygii are usually applied. It is true that the double-breathing Dipnoi and many of the Ganoids are in great part cartilaginous, but there is no possibility of confusing either of these sub-classes with the Elasmobranchs. The primitive lancelet (*Amphioxus*), and the round-mouths, or Cyclostomata (Hagfish and Lamprey), are also cartilaginous, but these form classes by themselves, and in nowise deserve the title of fishes.

General Characters.—In these lowest fishes, then, the skeleton is gristly or cartilaginous, and the teeth and scales are (with the exception of slight hints in the vertebral column) the only bony structures. The skin bears skin-teeth (dermal denticles) or the so-called placoid scales, tipped with enamel, cored with tooth-substance or dentine, and based with bone. There is no gill-cover (*operculum*) over the gills, and the slits from the throat, usually five in number, open directly to the exterior. The gill-filaments are attached to either side of the partitions between the gill-slits. An anterior gill-slit, ahead of the usual five, usually opens on the dorsal surface behind the eye, bears only a trace of a gill, and is known as the spiracle. The ventricle of the heart has an anterior contractile portion, known as the *conus arteriosus*, which leads on into the vessel taking impure blood to the gills. The hind-fins are situated far back, and bear accessory clasping organs in the males. The intestine has a spiral fold running down it internally, known as the 'spiral valve.' The air-bladder is almost always entirely absent, but rudiments of it are sometimes seen. The eggs are usually laid in horny cases, such as the mermaid's purse of the skate; but not a few forms are viviparous—that is to say, the eggs develop in the oviducts. The embryos bear external gills. The Elasmobranchs are marine, and voraciously carnivorous in their diet.

History.—The cartilaginous fishes are undoubtedly the most primitive existing forms, and are of special interest on that account. The cartilaginous nature of their internal skeleton was obviously unsuited for fossil preservation, and thus their earliest records are limited to the bony scales and teeth. The oldest traces are found in the Upper Silurian, and are preceded by the armoured ganoid Pteraspis. They are scanty in the Devonian, but profuse in the Carboniferous, and become predominant among fishes in the Jurassic period. They retain this ascendancy throughout Tertiary times. A shark (*Chlamydoselachus*) from Japanese waters may be fairly ranked as the oldest living type of fishes. It has pronged teeth like the 'cladodonts' of the Middle Devonian, an anterior mouth, two dorsal nostrils, a large free opercular fold, six gill-clefts, and a slightly bent-up asymmetrical tail. It has been lately described by Garman (*Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool. Harvard*, xii.), and its ancient affinities invest it with peculiar interest.

Classification.—Of living forms about 285 species are known, referable to some 66 genera. A divergent offshoot from the main tribe is represented by the Holocephali (with a single gill-opening and jaws firmly fixed to the skull), and including the two genera Chimara (King of the Herrings) and Callorhynchus. All the other members of the sub-class have 5 to 7 gill-openings and jaws movably attached to the skull. They are often designated

Plagiostomata, or cross-mouthed, for the mouth lies as a transverse slit on the under side of the head. They are conveniently distinguished into two sub-orders—(a) *Selachoides*—shark-like forms, and (b) *Batoidei*—skate-like forms. In the former the gill-openings are lateral, and the body more or less cylindrical; in the latter the gill-openings are ventral, and the body flattened. Sharks, dog-fish, monk-fish or angel-fish, illustrate the first sub-order; skates, rays, torpedos, and sting-rays, the second.

Cartography. See MAP.

Cartoon (Ital. *cartone*, 'pasteboard'; from Lat. *charta*, 'paper'). In the fine arts a cartoon is a design on strong paper of the full size of a work to be afterwards executed in fresco, oil colour, or tapestry; and prepared in order that the artist may adjust the drawing and composition of his subject where alterations can be readily effected. The design when completed is transferred, by tracing or pouncing, to the surface finally to be worked on. The most famous cartoons are those of Raphael (q.v.), now at South Kensington; 'The Battle of the Standard,' by Leonardo da Vinci; and 'Soldiers attacked while Bathing,' by Michael Angelo. The two last-named have perished, but their composition has been preserved in engravings. The full-page political sketches in *Punch* are called cartoons.

Cartouch (Fr. *cartouche*, Ital. *cartoccio*, 'a roll of paper'; *cartridge* is a mere corruption), formerly a name for a portable wooden case for holding cannon-balls or musket-bullets. A gun cartouch now means merely a waterproof canvas case for holding the cartridges of a field battery, one to each ammunition-box. The cartridge-box carried by the soldiers used to be called a cartouch in England, and still is in France.

Cartouche, the name given by Champollion to the ovals on monuments and in papyri on which the hieroglyphic characters for the names of Egyptian kings are inscribed. In architecture, *cartouche* signifies a tablet, either for ornament or to receive an inscription, so formed as to resemble a sheet of paper or parchment, with the edges and ends rolled up. The same term is applied to modillions, or brackets supporting a cornice, and, in heraldry, to the oval escutcheon of an ecclesiastic.

Cartridge, a cylindrical case containing the powder charge only in the case of Cannon (q.v.), but powder, cap, and shot in that of small-arms; or the bullet may be omitted, when it is called 'blank cartridge.' Those for large guns are bags usually of serge or flannel, filled with the proper weight of powder, tied round the neck, and strengthened by worsted hoops. In the largest cartridges a strong stick is placed to give greater strength, and those used for drill and salutes have cases of raw silk, because that material does not smoulder.

The cartridge formerly used with muzzle-loading rifles was a paper cylinder inclosing the powder and bullet and greased outside the latter. To load, the end was torn or bitten off, the powder poured into the barrel, and the bullet, together with the paper cartridge-case, rammed down above it. A cartridge for breech-loading Small-arms (q.v.), as



Fig. 1.

constructed in 1888, is a cylinder of solid brass, with a strong base, in the centre of which is the percussion arrangement. Those made of coiled brass have been discarded as being liable to jam in the barrel. The new Enfield-Martini rifle has a cartridge of the form shown in fig. 1, containing,

besides the cap, 85 grains of powder, and a Bullet (q.v.) weighing 384 grains. Between them is a compound wad $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, half of that thickness being cardboard, next the powder, and the other half beeswax, so that the bore is cleaned out by each discharge. All modern military rifles have similar cartridges, the actual shape depending upon that of the Chamber (q.v.), the calibre, and the powder charge. The solid-drawn case being almost indestructible, can be re-charged and capped twenty times, and the rifle cartridge can be used with Machine Guns (q.v.) of the same bore, and with carbines.

Pistol or revolver cartridges are similar to those for rifles, but shorter, and some of the smaller patterns are ignited differently, the hammer striking a rim at the base of the cartridge, which contains the fulminate.

For sporting rifles of large bore the same cartridge-case is generally used as for shot-guns, the bullet being spherical, solid conical, hollow conical, or explosive. For small-bore, or what are known as Express rifles, one similar to the Enfield-Martini cartridge, but containing 4 drachms of powder, is used. This rifle fires a light (270 grains) hollow conical bullet with great velocity, low trajectory, and immense killing power. Fig. 2 shows a section of a .450-inch Henry express cartridge (full size).



Fig. 2.

The cartridge for breech loading shot guns is usually a stout cylinder of paper with

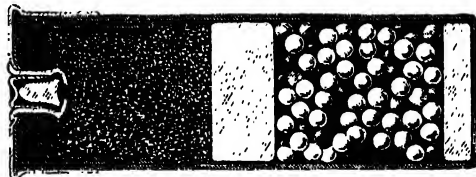


Fig. 3.—Central-fire Shot Cartridge Section (full size).

a metal base (fig. 3). The size varies with the calibre, and they have either pin or central-fire ignition. In America the case is often solid brass.

For the cartridge used in blasting with dynamite and the like, see BLASTING.

Cartridge-paper, a light-coloured strong paper, originally manufactured for cartridges, is extensively used in art, its rough surface being useful for certain kinds of drawing.

Cartwright, EDMUND, the inventor of the power-loom, was born in 1743 at Marnham, Nottinghamshire. Educated at Oxford, he obtained the rectory of Goadby-Marwood, Leicestershire (1779), where on his glebe-land he made improvements in agriculture. A visit to the cotton-spinning mills of Arkwright in Derbyshire directed his attention to new methods of weaving. The result in 1785 was the power-loom, an ingenious though very rude machine; upon which, however, he subsequently effected improvements. At Doncaster he set up a factory, in which his power-loom was used, but he met with such determined opposition, and the expense was so great, that he had to give up business. A mill set up at Manchester with four hundred of his power-looms was burned down.

It was not till the beginning of the 19th century that the power-loom came into practical use. In 1790 Cartwright took out a patent for combing wool, and secured patents for various other improvements in connection with manufactures. He even joined Robert Fulton in his experiments for applying steam to navigation. All these efforts brought him no direct gain, but in 1809, in consideration of the benefits derived from his invention of the power-loom, government made him a grant of £10,000. Cartwright was the author of several poetical pieces. He died at Hastings, 30th October 1823. See his *Life* (1843).

Cartwright, JOHN, the 'Father of Reform,' was born in 1740 of an old Northamptonshire family. At eighteen he entered the navy, saw some service under Howe, and in 1766 was gazetted first-lieutenant of the *Guernsey*, on the Newfoundland station. He returned in 1770, and was appointed in 1775 major to the Notts militia. He now began to think and write on political questions, and found himself unable to take service under Lord Howe in North America. From the beginning he advocated annual parliaments, vote by ballot, and manhood suffrage, and throughout his busy life he advocated with equal ardour causes so different as reform in farming, abolition of slavery, the foundation of a Valhalla for English seamen, the improvement of national defences, and the liberties of Spain and Greece. Cartwright was fined £100 for sedition in 1820. He died in London, 23d September 1824. Of Cartwright's eighty books and tracts a list is given in his *Life* by his niece (1826).

Cartwright, PETER, an eminent Methodist preacher, born in Virginia, 1st September 1785, was ordained in Kentucky in 1806, and in 1823 removed to Illinois, where he laboured for nearly half a century. He also sat in the state legislature there, and in 1846 was defeated by Abraham Lincoln in an election for congressman. Admired for his eloquence and strong common-sense, he was also loved for his quaint eccentricity of manner, and possessed great influence in his own denomination. He died near Pleasant Plains, Illinois, 25th September 1872. See his *Autobiography* (1856), and *The Backwoods Preacher* (Lond. 1869).

Cartwright, THOMAS, Puritan divine, was born in Hertfordshire about 1535. He was compelled to quit Cambridge owing to his attachment to the Reformed doctrines, but returned on the death of Mary. He retired to Ireland (1565-67), and after his return in 1569 he was chosen Lady Margaret Divinity professor. His lectures here were too honestly critical of the polity of the church to be acceptable to the chief authorities, who, led by Whitgift, deprived him of his professorship, and subsequently of his fellowship. He travelled on the Continent, and on his return to England in 1572 he again became embroiled with the church and the government, and for his nonconformity suffered imprisonment several times. Again obliged to flee to the Continent, he was for a time pastor of the English church in Antwerp. On his return in 1585 he was once more committed to prison. He was one of the most influential Puritan teachers of his day. He died at Warwick, where he had become master of a hospital, 24th December 1603. He wrote *A Confutation of the Rhemish Translation, Annotations on the New Testament*, a criticism of Hooker's *Ecclesiastical Polity*, and works on Proverbs and the Gospels.

Carucate (Lat. *carruca*), originally an amount of land such as one team of eight oxen could plough in a season. It varied in size from 80 to 144 acres. The *carucage* was a tax on the carucate, first imposed by Richard I. in 1198.

Carúpano, a growing port of the Venezuelan state of Bermudez, on the north coast of the peninsula of Paria, with a lighthouse and good roadstead. The surrounding district is fertile, and has mines of copper, sulphur, silver, lead, and lignite. Pop. (1881) 12,389.

Carus, JULIUS VICTOR, an eminent zoologist, born at Leipzig, 25th August 1823. He studied medicine and surgery at Leipzig, further at Würzburg and Freiburg, and in 1849 went to Oxford as keeper of the museum of comparative anatomy. In 1851 he returned to Leipzig, and in 1853 was placed in the chair of Comparative Anatomy there. In the summers of 1873-74 Carus lectured at Edinburgh for Wyville Thomson during his absence on the *Challenger* expedition. His books are numerous and all valuable. Most are elaborate and masterly monographs devoted to particular departments of zoology; the more general books are *System der tierischen Morphologie* (1853), *Handbuch der Zoologie* (with Gerstäcker, 1863 et seq.), *Geschichte der Zoologie* (1872), *Prodromus Faunae Mediterraneae* (1884 et seq.).

Carus, KARL GUSTAV, a German scholar, physiologist, physician, and artist, was born at Leipzig, 3d January 1789. He first lectured on comparative anatomy at Leipzig, next on midwifery at Dresden, where afterwards he became court physician and councillor of state, and here he died 28th July 1869. His house was the meeting-place of all the most distinguished savants and artists in Dresden. Carus wrote a vast variety of works on anatomy, physiology, and allied subjects, which are all valuable, while some are both original and striking. In his last years he wrote his *Lebens-erinnerungen und Denkwürdigkeiten* (4 vols. Leip. 1865-66).

Carvalho. See POMBAL.

Carvel-built. See BOAT.

Carver, JOHN, born about 1575, was the leader of the Pilgrim Fathers (q.v.), and died at New Plymouth, Massachusetts, in April 1621, within five months of their landing.

Carvin-Epinay, a town of the French department of Pas-de-Calais, 11 miles SSW. of Lille by rail. There are manufactures of beet-sugar, oil, brandy, starch, and linen. Coal is mined near by. Pop. (1886) 6528.

Carving. Carving has been from the earliest times a ready means of ornamentation, or of expressing thought by tracing it in lines or modelled surfaces upon materials which were easily obtained. Beyond simple draughtmanship, carving presents the advantages of relief and permanency, and is found to be a much more general method of adornment than colouring, notwithstanding its very pleasing effect, because the facilities for colour treatment are frequently not available. The savage, the herd boy, the artisan, and sculptor, have all shown that they were never at a loss to express their fancies in relief work, whether in materials the most common or costly. Amidst the profusion of examples of carving to be found in museums, cathedrals, and in such cities as Venice, what fascinates us most is the evidence of mind. This is not only perceived in highly finished work, but in the treatment of the design, however rude, and in the spirit that is thrown into the whole. In taking an historical view of the carver's art it will generally be found that it is at its best among people who are striving after a high ideal, whether it be the founding of an empire or the development of some great social or religious aim. In illustration of this we have but to turn to the carvings and sculptures of Assyria and Greece, the work of the Moorish and early Gothic periods, and

also to the Renaissance at the time of the Reformation, when there was a general revival of both art and literature.

In times of luxury, when men's minds generally become relaxed, carved work shows as its chief characteristics high finish and dexterous execution; but these qualities too commonly speak only of expense and brainlessness, and the further they are carried the more do they evince the want of true artistic perception.

Skilful execution, however, is only of secondary importance in the carver's art, and we cannot examine the treatment of the Acanthus floriation in the hands of the Greeks and Romans without feeling the wonderful charm there is in deft manipulation; and where this clever style of treatment gives expression to elevating ideas, whether in the delineation of the human figure or animal forms, or in merely ornamental compositions, we have examples of human labour worthy to take their place alongside the highest achievements of art.

It is noticeable that nowadays there is not an all-pervading spirit among art craftsmen stimulating them to combined effort after one common high ideal, but the prevailing tendency is towards what is generally termed the Renaissance style of work. With this tendency designers and art workmen naturally turn to the examples of the Roman period from which the men of the Renaissance took their inspiration, but which in point of fine design and execution they certainly did not surpass, as the numerous examples in the Vatican and Capitol at Rome can show.

The endlessly varied forms to be found in nature must ever yield the most fruitful suggestions for the study of the carver, but it will depend upon the material he is working with how far he can approximate nature in his representations. In box-wood or lime-tree it is possible to imitate the general form of the rose blossom, while in stone it can only be very partially done. This consideration has all over the field of design been a great factor in determining the character to be imparted to the subject of study, and it is at once apparent that in carving granite its hardness and mottled appearance suggest a broader, stronger treatment than would be suitable for statuary marble. In the treatment of carving for structural work, the scale and spirit of the whole design must necessarily be kept in view, and in all the best styles of architecture a conventional treatment of natural forms is observable; and it is evident that craftsmen in this branch of industry must possess a wide intelligence in the matter of style, that they may handle their work in sympathy with the designer of the whole scheme, be it a building, a monument, or a piece of furniture of any sort.

Some methods are in use for cheapening carvers' work—e.g. in the case of scroll or fretted work in which raised forms are disposed over a smooth ground, the ornament is cut out with a fret-saw and glued to the ground. This is not at all a desirable method of cheapening work, as the process is generally too easily observed by the different colour or texture of the two pieces of wood, and there is the risk of the two woods being affected differently in the course of time by the atmosphere, and separating. Then there is a grounding machine, which has a revolving drill moving over the spaces forming the ground of the ornament. And, lastly, there is what is called a carving machine, which works with one or more drills moving over the work to be carved in correspondence with a tracing point which traverses the surface of an iron model of what is to be carved. After the revolving drill has covered the whole design, the wood block needs a little hand-facing to take out the drill marks. These methods are

useful commercially, where many repetitions of the same object are desired, but a mechanical feeling is apt to show itself, and this is contrary to the spirit of the true carver's work.

A glance at the carvings of India, Persia, Japan, and China, impresses us with the cheapness of labour in these countries, and of the widespread love of this art, as well as of the great perfection that has been attained in it. But the commercial spirit of the age is causing serious deterioration of this long famous industry in these countries, owing to the desire on the part of the natives to produce what will sell in European markets, and also from the wish to produce in a month what formerly would have been a labour of love for a year.

In Great Britain, from the beginning of the 18th century till quite recently, carving was much affected by a style of work which had Grinling Gibbons (q.v.) for its chief exponent. This artist was partly of Dutch extraction, and examples of his art are to be seen in St Paul's and Chatsworth. His work is famous for its wonderful dexterity in carvings of foliage, flowers, birds, busts, and draperies in lime and other white woods. But he shows a free disregard of architectural soberness and conventionality, and impresses one at times with the idea that he desired to exhibit his skill in cutting delicate forms from solid blocks more than in the adornment of architectural work. See also SCULPTURE, WOOD-ENGRAVING. There are works on wood-carving by Benrose (1880), Miller (1885), and others.

Cary, ALICE, American author, born 26th April 1820, near Cincinnati, Ohio, removed in 1852 to New York, where she died 12th February 1871. Her poems, stories, and sketches are graceful and natural, and full of charming pictures of domestic life; and the *Cloverbrook Papers* (2 series, 1851-53), which embrace some of her happiest efforts, are said to be partly autobiographical.—Her sister, **PIREBE**, born 4th September 1824, joined Alice in New York in 1851. She published independently several volumes of buoyant, pleasant verse, and contributed a third of the *Poems of Alice and Phæbe Cary* (1850). She died 31st July 1871. See Mrs Ames's *Memorial of the sisters* (New York, 1873).

Cary, REV. HENRY FRANCIS, translator of Dante, was born at Gibraltar in 1772. He was educated at Rugby, Sutton-Coldfield, and Birmingham, in 1790 entered Christ Church College, Oxford, and in 1796 took holy orders. In 1805 he published a translation of the *Inferno*, in 1814 of the whole *Divina Commedia*, a translation remarkable not only for its fidelity but for its force and expressiveness. He afterwards translated Pindar's *Odes* and Aristophanes' *Birds*, and wrote a series of memoirs in continuation of Johnson's *Lives of the Poets*. Assistant-librarian in the British Museum (1826-37), he died 14th August 1844. See the *Memoir* by his son (2 vols. 1847).

Cary, LUCIUS. See FALKLAND.

Cary, SIR ROBERT. See CAREY.

Carya. See HICKORY.

Caryat'ides (pl. of *Caryatis*, lit. 'a woman of Caryæ'), a name given to female figures, in Greek architecture, when used instead of columns to support an entablature. The traditional account of the origin of the name is that the inhabitants of Caryæ, a city in Arcadia, having joined the Persians after the battle of Thermopylæ, the Greeks, after their victory over the Persians, destroyed the town, slew the men, and carried the women into captivity. As male figures representing Persians were already used for this purpose, it occurred to Praxiteles, and other Athenian artists, that female

Caryatides, in their national costume, might be thus employed to commemorate the disgrace of their country. Male figures used for the same purpose are called Atlantes (q.v.). The caryatides which form the portico of St Pancras Church (1822) in London are a reproduction from the Erechtheum on the Acropolis at Athens.



Caryatis :

From Villa Strozzi, on
Applan Road—height,
7 feet 10 inches.

Caryocar, a genus of large trees of the sub-order Rhizobolaceae, of Ternstroemiaceae, all natives of Guiana and Brazil. They yield good timber for shipbuilding, and the so-called *Butternuts* or *Sonari nuts*.

Caryophyllaceae, a natural order of thalamifloral dicotyledons, containing from 800 to 1000 known species, mostly herbaceous plants, a few half shrubby, easily recognised by their opposite entire exstipulate leaves, stem swollen at the joints, and placentation free central, at least at maturity.

In the restricted sense, the order is divided into Sileneae, with calyx united, and Alsineae, with sepals separate. Many of the former produce beautiful flowers—e.g. pink, carnation, sweet-william, lychmie, &c., but the latter and lower group are largely inconspicuous weeds—chickweed, spurrey—and furnish gradations to Portulacaceae, Paronychiaceae, Amaranthaceae, and Chenopodiaceae. The plants of this order are mostly natives of temperate and cold countries in the old world. Almost all are insipid and inert; a few contain *saponine*, and afford a substitute for soap. See SOAPWORT.

Caryophyllus. See CLOVES, MYRTACEAE.

Caryopsis, in Botany, a fruit in which the seed and pericarp are inseparable. The grain or fruit of grasses, as wheat, barley, rye, maize, &c., is a caryopsis.

Caryota, a genus of lofty palms, natives of the East Indies, easily recognised by their remarkable twice pinnate leaves. One species, *C. urens*, remarkable for the acidity of its fruit, which produces a burning sensation when its pulp is applied to the skin, is also highly valuable for the great quantity of sap (*toddy*) which flows from its wounded spathes, sometimes, in the hot season, to the amount of 100 pints in twenty-four hours from a single tree. Sugar (*jaggery*) is made from this juice by boiling it down, and on this account this palm is sometimes called the Jaggery palm. The 'cabbage' is also eaten, and the pith yields sago. The outer part of the stem is very hard, and applicable to many purposes. The fibres of the leaf-stalks are twisted into ropes, the leaf-stalks make fishing-rods, and the woolly substance found at their base is used for caulking ships.

Casabianca, LOUIS, a French naval officer, born at Bastia about 1755, sat in the National Convention of 1792, and in 1798 was captain of the flagship *L'Orient* in the expedition to Egypt. He was mortally wounded at the battle of the Nile, August 1, 1798; the ship caught fire; his ten-year-old son would not leave him, and both perished in the final explosion. The story is known from the poem by Mrs Hemans.

Casablanca (Arab. *Dar el Beida*), a port of Morocco on the Atlantic, 162 miles SW. of Fez. Wool, maize, apd goats' skins are exported, and

sugar, cotton, calico, &c. imported. The trade, exceeding £300,000 per annum, is mostly in the hands of English and French merchants. Pop. 8500.

Casale, a city of Northern Italy, on the right bank of the Po, 21 miles NNW. of Alessandria by rail. It has a cathedral and several other interesting churches, the Torre del grand' Orologio, some fine palazzi, and manufactures of silk. In 1474 it became the capital of the marquisate of Montferrat (q.v.). Pop. (1881) 17,096.

Casalpusterlengo, a town of Northern Italy, 22 miles SE. of Milan by rail, with a large trade in cheese. Pop. 5513.

Casamicciola, a favourite watering-place on the island of Ischia, beautifully situated in a valley on the north side of Monte Epomeo, with hot springs (158° F.), baths, hotels, &c. Pop. (1881) 3963. The season extends from June to September. By the earthquake of 28th July 1883 the place was almost entirely destroyed.

Casanova de Seingalt, GIOVANNI JACOPO, adventurer, was born at Venice in 1725, and by the time he reached his twenty-first year had been abbé, secretary to Cardinal Aquaviva, ensign, and violinist in an orchestra, at Rome, Constantinople, Corfu, and his own birthplace, where he gained some celebrity by curing a wealthy senator of apoplexy. His irregularities drove him from Venice, but after roaming through Northern Italy and France he was back there in 1755, and was then condemned to five years' imprisonment in the 'Piombi.' In fifteen months' time he effected a daring escape, and then for nearly twenty years wandered through Europe, visiting most of its capitals (Paris, London, Berlin, St Petersburg, Madrid, &c.), and making the acquaintance of the greatest men and women of the day, from the pope to Madame de Pompadour, and from Cagliostro to Frederick the Great. Alchemist, cabalist, knight of the papal order of the Golden Spur, and spy, he was everywhere introduced to the best society, invariably excited the disgust or ill-will of those about him, and had always to 'vanish' after a brief period of felicity. In 1761 we find him distinctly professing the miraculous after the Cagliostro fashion: he having undertaken to regenerate old Madame D'Urfé into a young man—for a consideration! In 1785 he established himself with the Count of Waldstein, at his castle of Dux in Bohemia, and there he died 4th June 1798. His celebrated *Mémoires écrits par Lui-même* (12 vols. Leip. 1828-38; new ed. 6 vols. Brussels, 1876) contain many interesting notices of the manners of his times, intermixed with details of his marvellous adventures. Clever and cynical, they are unmatched as a self-revelation of scoundrelism; Thackeray's *Barry Lyndon* is but a far-off echo. See a series of articles by M. Armand-Baschet in *Le Livre* (1881).—Two of his brothers were painters—GIOVANNI BATTISTA (1722-95), who in 1764 became director of the Dresden Academy; and FRANCESCO (1727-1805), who was born in London, and died near Vienna. He was famous for his battle-pieces.

Casareep, or CASSIRIPE, a sauce or condiment made from the juice of the Bitter Cassava or Manioc root, which also furnishes tapioca. It is in the highest esteem in Guiana, where it is employed to flavour almost every dish; and it is the basis of the favourite West Indian dish called *pepper-pot*. It is a powerful antiseptic, and meat can by means of it be kept for a long time quite fresh, even in a tropical climate. It is made by evaporating and concentrating the juice, which is also mixed with various aromatics. The poisonous principle of the juice is dissipated in the evaporation. See MANIOC.

Casa Santa. See LORETTO.

Casas Grandes, an old Indian town of Mexico, in the state of Chihuahua, 125 miles SW. of El Paso, surrounded with ruins of Aztec buildings, which seem to indicate a former population of 20,000 to 30,000.

Casas, LAS. See LAS CASAS.

Casaubon, ISAAC, one of the most famous of the great classical commentators, was born at Geneva on February 18, 1559. His family belonged to Dauphiné. His life was one of incessant study, and he was often hampered in his labours by broken health and narrow means. In his twenty-fourth year he was appointed professor of Greek at Geneva, and in 1586 he married the daughter of the great French scholar, Henri Stephens. He was made Greek professor at Montpellier in 1596, and royal librarian at Paris in 1598. After the death of Henry IV. his position in Paris became insecure on account of his adherence to Protestantism. He accordingly removed in 1610 to London, where he wrote a reply to the *Annals* of Cardinal Baronius, and thereby incurred the charge of having sold his conscience, and became the hired advocate of James I. The accusation was unjust, as he had for many years been unconsciously drawing near to the school of Anglo-Catholic theology. He was made prebendary of Canterbury and Westminster, and died in London July 1, 1614. He was of a candid and tolerant nature, not gifted with great original powers, but indefatigable in the pursuit of knowledge. He is one of the chief representatives of a school of 16th-century humanists who succeeded to the school of Cicero, and with whom wide research took the place of exclusive devotion to style. His works include the treatises *De Satirica Græcorum Poësi et Romanorum Satira* (1605), and *De Libertate Ecclesiastica* (1607), the *Exercitationes contra Baronium* (1614), and editions of Aristotle, Diogenes Laertius, Theophrastus, Polybius, Strabo, Theocritus, Athenæus, Persius, Suetonius, &c. 'A very moderate amount of scholarship,' says Pattison, 'is enough to enable us to discern that there are limits to Casaubon's power over Greek.' But he amassed a wonderfully varied store of learning, and was the first to popularise a connected knowledge of ancient life and manners. His merits as a commentator are best shown in his edition of Athenæus (1600), on which he was engaged for ten years. See *Isaac Casaubon*, by Mark Pattison (1875).—**MERIC CASAUBON**, son of the above, was born at Geneva, August 14, 1599. He accompanied his father to England and studied at Christ Church College, Oxford. He became rector of Ickham, near Canterbury, and was afterwards professor of Theology in Oxford. He was deprived of this post during the Commonwealth, but was restored to it at the Restoration. He edited the works of Terence, Epictetus, Marcus Aurelius, &c., and vindicated his father in two Latin works. He died at Oxford, July 14, 1671.

Casbin. See KAZVIN.

Cascade Range, a chain of mountains of North America in Oregon and Washington territory, U.S., and in British Columbia. It takes its name from the great cascades of the river Columbia, which are situated at the point where that stream cañons through the range by a pass 4000 feet deep. The course of the mountain-chain in the United States is from north to south nearly parallel to the Pacific coast-line, and from about 110 to 160 miles distant from it. Southward it is continuous with the Sierra Nevada of California; northward it connects with the unsurveyed range which forms the boundary between British Columbia and Alaska.

The chain throughout most of its course is heavily wooded, chiefly with evergreen conifers, including pines of various species, firs, spruces, cedars, and trees locally known as cypress, larch, juniper, and yew. Southward there is some alder, ash, and maple, and even a little oak. The presence of beautiful cone-shaped and perpetually snow-clad peaks is a most striking feature. There are quite a number of rather low transverse passes which may, in time, become important highways. Near the south end of the range stands Mount Pitt (9818 feet high). Forty miles north is Mount Scott (9016 feet), a mere fragment of a now extinct volcano of enormous dimensions. Its western walls are almost perpendicular. Forty miles still northward, after passing many wonderful old volcanoes and lava-beds, we come to Diamond Peak (8867 feet), which is also the remnant of an old crater-rim. The Three Sisters (9000 feet) are of similar character. Mount Jefferson is 10,200 feet high, and Mount Hood 11,225 feet. The principal peaks in Washington territory are Mounts Baker (10,700 feet), Tacoma (14,444 feet), and St Helen's (12,000 feet). In this region volcanic action is not quite extinct. In the British Columbian portion the range comes much nearer the sea-coast.

The Cascade Mountains, with the Sierra Nevada, are much more recent geologically than are the Rocky Mountains proper. They were probably formed about the close of the Jurassic period, although the now visible volcanic products seen along the range are of much later, and even quite recent date; the earliest volcanic fissures being referable to the end of the Miocene period, at which time, or a little earlier, the parallel Coast Range began to be raised.

Cascarilla Bark (Span. *cascara*, 'bark'), the tonic and astringent bark of *Croton Eluteria*, a small tree cultivated especially in the Bahamas, where it is known as the *Sweet-wood* and the *Seaside Balsam*—being used in making incense (q.v.) and Pastilles. The barks of a number of other species of *Croton* appear to possess similar properties.

Case, in Grammar. See DECLENSION.

Case has numerous technical meanings in English and Scots law. The most common is the 'case stated' by a magistrate raising some point of law for the decision of the Criminal Court of Appeal. This applies to the whole summary jurisdiction of the justices of the peace in England. Such appeals have been allowed in England since 1857; in Scotland only since 1875. Such cases are also stated by way of appeal under numerous special statutes, as the Registration and Customs and Excise Acts. 'Cases' are also the statements and pleadings lodged by the appellants and respondents in the House of Lords. 'Case' is also applied in the Court of Session to the printed argument which is sometimes ordered in cases of difficulty and importance. By authority of statute the courts in different parts of the United Kingdom consult each other as to points of law by means of adjusted cases. One of the points in the celebrated Orr Ewing litigation was whether the word 'cause' in the Treaty of Union meant an actual litigation, or merely a pending question of liability. In the daily language of the courts a 'case' is a previous decision of a court which is supposed to bear upon the subject of argument. The citation of cases was jealously regulated in the Roman law by Valentinian's Law of Citations; now this is left to custom and tradition. In both England and Scotland, by a valuable reform, parties are now encouraged to agree upon facts, and submit their contentions to the court in the form of a 'special case.'

In the United States, while the word case is, like cause, applied generally to every question contested in court, whether of law or equity, it also retains there, in consequence of the state of legal procedure, a limited meaning—e.g. an action of damages for tort, where the older forms are unsuitable, as an action for negligence against a corporation.

Case-hardening is the process of converting the surface of certain kinds of malleable-iron goods into steel, thereby making them harder, less liable to rust, and capable of taking on a better polish. Fire-irons, gun-locks, keys, and other articles of limited size, are very commonly so treated, but the process is sometimes applied to large objects, such as iron railway-bars. The articles are first formed, and heated to redness with powdered charcoal or cast-iron, the malleable-iron taking carbon from either of these to form a skin of steel upon it; the heated objects are then cooled in cold water, or in oil when they are of a delicate nature. Yellow prussiate of potash or parings of leather have also been a good deal used for coating iron articles with steel by heating them together. Some chemists consider that in this case nitrogen combines with the iron and effects the hardening. The coating of steel is very thin, seldom exceeding $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch. A Swedish ironmaster has found that a very excellent case-hardening is obtained by treating iron or steel objects with a mixture of animal matter, such as rasped leather or horn, and arsenious acid dissolved in hydrochloric acid, and heating as usual.

Casein is an organic compound allied to Albumen (q.v.), found in the milk of the Mammalia. It also exists in peas, beans, and other leguminous seeds, and is then known as Legumin. The proportion of casein in Milk (q.v.) varies, but averages about 3 per cent., and it may be coagulated and separated therefrom by the addition of a little Rennet (q.v.), as in the manufacture of Cheese (q.v.), or by the employment of a few drops of a mineral acid, such as dilute sulphuric acid. In either case the casein separates as *curd*, which still retains attached to it some oil and earthy salts, though the greater portion of these substances, along with the sugar, remain in the watery liquid or *whey*. The elementary bodies which enter into the composition of casein, and the proportion in which these are present in 100 parts, are—carbon 53.83; hydrogen, 7.15; nitrogen, 15.65; oxygen, 22.52; and sulphur, 0.85. The properties of casein are, that it is not coagulated by heat, as is well evidenced in the heating of milk, but is coagulated on the addition of rennet; sulphuric, hydrochloric, or nitric acids; alcohol, creosote, or infusion of galls, but not by acetic acid. It also forms insoluble precipitates with solutions of the poisonous salts, acetate of lead, nitrate of silver, and bi-chloride of mercury (corrosive sublimate), and hence the efficacy of taking large doses of milk in cases of poisoning by those deadly salts, as the casein in the milk, forming an insoluble compound with the poison, keeps it from exerting its deadly powers. When casein is heated with chalk, it forms a compound, insoluble in water, and hardening by exposure to air, which may be used as a cement. The compound with lime is used in destemper painting.

The form of casein obtained from plants, and termed legumin, is generally procured from leguminous seeds, like peas or beans, though it can also be extracted from the majority of vegetable substances, especially from sweet and bitter almonds, and even from tea and coffee. Dried peas contain a fourth of their weight of legumin, and this can be extracted by bruising the peas to powder, and

digesting in warm water for two or three hours. The liquid is then strained through cloth, which retains the insoluble matters, and allows the water with the legumin dissolved therein, and with starch mechanically suspended, to pass through. On settling, the starch falls to the bottom of the vessel, and the clear liquid holding the legumin in solution, on the addition of a small amount of acetic acid, yields a precipitate of legumin or vegetable casein. So perfectly does the vegetable casein resemble the casein from milk, that the one can hardly be distinguished from the other by chemical tests or by taste. In various parts of China, especially near Canton, there is a form of cheese made from peas. Casein is a most important article of food. See DIET, DIGESTION, NUTRITION.

Casemate, originally a loopholed gallery, since called a 'caponier,' from which, without risk of loss to themselves, the garrison of a fort could fire upon an enemy who had obtained possession of the ditch. The term is now applied to any bomb-proof vaulted chamber, even when merely used as quarters for the garrison. Casemates are utilised to cover guns, magazines, stores, or hospitals, from high-angle or vertical fire. When a gun casemate is constructed on the parapet, it is called a 'Haxo' casemate and has a bomb-proof masonry arch, covered as much as possible with earth. The ordinary gun casemate is usually under the parapet, and large enough to form a barrack. Iron shields are used to protect the embrasures or port-holes through which the guns fire in important works, and in many of modern construction, revolving iron turrets take the place of casemates. Mortar casemates, similar to those in which guns are placed, but with the front wall omitted, are generally under the parapet. The great want of ventilation in casemates renders them bad places for barracks; and the artillerymen are nearly stifled with smoke when firing from such confined places. See BOMB-PROOF.

Caserta, a town of Italy, situated on a plain 20½ miles NNE. of Naples by rail. It is chiefly remarkable on account of its magnificent palace, one of the finest in Europe, which was founded by Charles III. in 1752. Pop. (1881) 17,257. The province of Caserta has an area of 2307 sq. m., and a pop. of 714,131.

Case-shot, or CANISTER, is an artillery projectile for use at close quarters, and consists of a sheet-iron or tin cylinder filled with bullets varying from $\frac{1}{4}$ an oz. to 1 lb. in weight, and in number according to the size of the gun. The cylinder is closed by discs of wood, tin, or iron, its walls are strengthened by loose pieces of iron, and the interstices between the balls are packed with shavings and sawdust. On discharge the canister breaks up at once, and the bullets spread over a wide area, but with a low velocity. For this reason they have little effect beyond 300 yards, even on hard open ground, which is best suited to their action. Case-shot is chiefly used in the close defence of works, or against cavalry, and at sea against a boat attack. At long ranges its place is taken by Shrapnel Shell (q.v.).

Cash (old Fr. *casse*, 'a chest for containing money') is sometimes used for money as distinguished from produce, in which sense it includes all immediately negotiable paper—bills, drafts, and bonds, as well as coin and bank-notes. At other times it is used in a limited sense to denote coin and bank-notes, as distinguished from negotiable instruments which pass by indorsement. In the money system in use at the Chinese Treaty ports, *cash* is the name of those coins, of a copper alloy, which are perforated and strung on a thread;

1000 cash are equal to a tael, and that is worth about 5s.

Cash Account, or **CASH CREDIT**, a form of account with a bank, by which a person is entitled to draw out sums as required by way of loan to a stipulated amount. The practice began about 1729 in Scotland, with the banks of which country it is still peculiarly identified. See **BANKING**, Vol. I. page 713; also **MARGINAL CREDITS**.

Cashel, a town of Ireland, in County Tipperary, 100 miles SW. of Dublin and 5 miles SE. of its railway station. It is the see of a bishop of the Episcopal Church, and of a Roman Catholic archbishop. It is irregularly built on the south and east slopes of an isolated height, rising abruptly from a rich and extensive plain. It was a parliamentary borough till 1870, and possesses a barrack, infirmary, and market-house. The ancient kings of Munster resided here. The top of the height, or 'Rock of Cashel,' which rises to about 300 feet, is occupied by an assemblage of the most interesting ruins in Ireland. The ruins consist of a cathedral, founded 1169, burned 1495, and afterwards repaired; a stone-roofed chapel, said to have been built 1127 by Cormac MacCarthy, king of Munster; the palace of the Munster kings; a round tower, 90 feet high and 56 in circumference; and an old cross. At Cashel in 1172 Henry II. received the homage of the king of Limerick, and here he called a council of the clergy, at which decrees were passed for the regulation of the church. Pop. (1851) 4798; (1881) 3961.

Cashew Nut (*Anacardium occidentale*), a tree of the sub-order Anacardiaceæ, of Terebinthaceæ (q.v.), cultivated in both the East and West Indies. It is a spreading tree of no great height. It abounds



Cashew Nut (*Anacardium occidentale*).

in a clammy, milky juice, which turns black on exposure to the air, and is used in India for varnishing, but is so acrid as to produce painful inflammation of the skin. The fruit of the tree is a kidney-shaped nut, about an inch long, seated on the thicker end of a pear-shaped fleshy stalk. The kernel is also surrounded by black acrid oily juice, but is itself pleasant and wholesome. The nuts were formerly sometimes put into old Madeira wine, and also roasted as an addition to chocolate. The fleshy stalk, sometimes called the Cashew Apple, varies in size from that of a cherry to an orange, and is white, yellow, or red. It is perfectly free from acidity, very pleasant, acid, and refreshing. A kind of wine is obtained from

it by fermentation; and from this a well-flavoured spirit can be distilled. A bland gum resembling gum-arabic also exudes from the stem.

Cashgar. See **KASHGAR**.

Cashiering is a punishment for officers in the army and navy. It is more severe than dismissal from the sovereign's service, inasmuch as it disqualifies from entering the public service in any capacity, which dismissal does not. The Army Act of 1881 enacts that an officer convicted by court-martial of 'scandalous conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentleman' shall be cashiered, and provides no alternative punishment as in all other cases of misconduct for which an officer may be tried.

Cashmere is the familiar and time-honoured form of the name now usually spelt by Indian authorities **KASHMIR**. The native state of Cashmere embraces an irregular-shaped mountainous region, part of the Himalayan system, between 32° 30' and 36° N. lat., and 73° 30' to 76° E. long. Within its borders are included the valleys of many snow-fed streams, but chief among them is the valley of the Upper Jhelum at Srinagar—'the Vale of Kashmir'—celebrated in literature and history for the beauty of its scenery and the charm of its climate. It extends for about 120 miles from NW. to SE., with a mean breadth of 75 miles, at a distance of about 130 miles by road from Rawal Pindi, in the Punjab. The flat part of the valley is not more than 80 miles long by 20 wide, with a variable elevation above sea-level of from 5000 to 7000 feet. In it are situated two lakes, the Dul, a little to the north of the winding course of the river at Srinagar, and the Wulur, through which the river flows ere changing its course to the westward and passing through the mountains to the Punjab plain. The two best-known routes to Srinagar are from Rawal Pindi, *via* Murree and the narrow valley of the Jhelum, which is now an open and well-made road, but occasionally very hot; and the route from Bhimbar (north of Gujrat) across the lofty range of the Pir Panjal, rising to 11,000 feet above sea-level. The former is the more convenient, whilst the latter passes through mountain scenery of singular beauty, and possesses the advantage of being cool as well as beautiful. Nothing can well exceed the fertile beauty of the Cashmere valley. It is almost surrounded by snow-capped mountains, the lower spurs of which descend gently in terraced slopes to the level of the valley. These terraces are abundantly irrigated for the purpose of rice cultivation, rice being the staple crop throughout Cashmere. On the margins of the lakes, and scattered through the whole extent of the valley, are magnificent groves of chinar or plane-trees, here and there laid out with great regularity and taste to form gardens and country-seats which used to be the favourite resorts of the Mogul emperors two centuries ago. Avenues of poplars line the banks of the river and the canals, and lend to the scenery a peculiar grace which is quite distinctive of Cashmere. On the surface of the lakes are floating-gardens composed of masses of vegetation from two to three feet thick—intertwined blocks of aquatic plants. Srinagar is a quaint and picturesque old town, built almost entirely of wood, said to have been founded at the beginning of the 6th century. It occupies both banks of the river, which is spanned by seven log-built bridges, and like all eastern towns is most unclean. The industries of Srinagar are chiefly shawl-weaving and lacquer-work, but Cashmere silver and copper work is rapidly acquiring a distinctive character and rising in importance amongst oriental arts. The peculiar design which marks all Cashmere art is said to be derived from the graceful curves of

the river as viewed from the summit of the Takht-i-Suliman, a well-known hill overlooking the city of Srinagar. The restrictions formerly placed on the residence of Europeans in Cashmere territory have latterly been considerably modified, and Cashmere is now visited by thousands of Europeans who settle there for the hot months of the year, and have already established a well-known summer station at Gulmurg, which is higher and cooler than Srinagar. The country was not long ago celebrated as a field for sportsmen, but like many of the best known hunting-fields in India, it has latterly been too much shot over, and sportsmen now in search for big game must travel far and reach the field early in the season in order to secure good results.

•The natural productiveness of the country is remarkable. Fruit of almost every description is found nearly wild in the lower valleys, and it is now largely cultivated for the manufacture of wine, for which purpose a great variety is utilised. Notwithstanding this fertility and the general cheapness of food-supply, Cashmere is occasionally subject to the scourge of famine. The famine of 1878, together with earthquakes, and the draining of the country by emigration, have reduced the population of the valley by a half. Much has been written about the fine physique of the Cashmere men and the beauty of Cashmere women, but it must be admitted that with many external advantages they are a corrupt race—unclean in their habits, morally degraded and utterly untrustworthy.

Cashmere was conquered by Akbar in 1586, and became part of the Mogul empire. It was overrun by the Sikhs in 1819. Ghulab Singh, the feudatory of the Sikhs, made a treaty with Britain in 1846, by which he was confirmed in possession of Cashmere, and recognised the supremacy of the British government. There is a British resident at the court of the present Maharaja. The total population of the Maharaja's dominions was estimated in 1875 at 1,600,000 (there was no census in 1881). Of these, 500,000 are in Cashmere proper, 870,000 in the district of Jammu, the rest in the districts of Ladakh, Gilgit, Dardistan, Baltistan, &c. Of the total, 920,000 are Mohammedans, 507,000 Hindus, 20,000-Buddhists. Thirteen dialects are spoken, Hindustani and Punjabi included; the Kashmiri is very closely related to Sanskrit. See works by Bellew (1875), Drew (1875), and Wakefield (1879); also Hinton Knowles, *Kashmiri Proverbs* (1885), and *Folk-tales of Kashmir* (1888).

Cashmere Goat, a variety of the common goat (*Capra hircus*, var. *laniger*), remarkable for its very long, fine, and silky hair, from which the famous Cashmere shawls are made. It is found in Tibet and Bokhara, whence the finest goat-hair is imported into Cashmere, to be there manufactured. The hair is even longer (18 inches) than that of the Angora goat, and is straight, not curled. A single goat does not yield more than three ounces, and the fleeces of ten goats are requisite for the manufacture of a shawl a yard and a half square. The hair is spun by women, and dyed after it is spun. The shawls are woven in rudely constructed looms, a pair of shawls sometimes occupying three or four men a whole year in weaving. Since 1870 there has been a falling off in the demand for the shawls; but shawls to the value of £130,000 are still exported (two-thirds to Europe). Cashmere shawls of the finest quality are sold in London at from £100 to £300 each. Plain shawls are simply woven in the loom, but those with variegated patterns are worked with wooden needles, a separate needle being used for each colour. Imitations of these are manufactured in France rather extensively, some from the Tibet wool

entirely, and others of a mixture of this with silk and cotton.

Attempts have been made to introduce the Cashmere goat into Europe. Baron Alstremer attempted in the end of last century to naturalise it in Sweden; and a very spirited attempt to introduce it into Britain has been made by Mr Towers. In France the acclimatisation has been very successful. It has been bred in the United States, but without much success. A mixed race, produced by crossing the Cashmere and the Angora goat, has been found to possess most valuable qualities, the hair being long, fine, and more abundant than in any of the parent breeds.

Casia, or **POET'S CASIA** (*Osyris alba*), a South European shrub of the order Santalaceæ, with pretty little white flowers and small red drupes. It has been much admired for its modest beauty. The name is simply a variation in spelling from Cassia (q.v.), a name to which this plant is in no respect entitled.

Casimir, properly Kazimierz ('founder of peace'), was the name of many Polish princes and kings. With the establishment of the power of Casimir I. in 1041, the predominance of Christianity was decided in Poland. But the most distinguished of this name was Casimir III., called Casimir the Great, who succeeded his father, Vladislav Loketek, as king of Poland in 1333. He added Little Russia and Red Russia to his dominions, and repelled the Tartars, who then threatened Poland. He founded the university of Cracow (1364), as well as several schools and hospitals, and showed great anxiety for the advancement of the arts and of learning in his kingdom, and for the improvement of the condition of the most oppressed classes, which won him the title of King of the Peasants, while a Jewish mistress obtained from him special liberties for her race. He died 5th November 1370.

Casino, an Italian diminutive of *casa*, 'a house,' signifies a place for social reunions. The name is usually applied in Italy and the continental watering-places to a place where musical or dancing soirées are held, containing a conversation-room, billiard-room, and rooms for other kinds of amusement, as well as small apartments where refreshments may be had. In England a dancing saloon is sometimes termed a casino.

Casket. See **COFFIN**. For the **CASKET LETTERS**, see **MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS**.

Casoria, a town of Italy, 6 miles N. of Naples by rail. Pop. 7551.

Caspari, **KARL PAUL**, exegete and church historian, born at Dessau in 1814, became professor of Theology at Christiania in 1857. His Arabic grammar (4th ed. Halle, 1875) is in high repute, and his contributions to the study of the Old Testament include works on Obadiah, Isaiah, Micah, and Daniel. Besides his *Kirchenhistorische Anecdota* (1883), he published at Christiania *Quellen zur Geschichte des Taufsymbols und der Glaubensregel* (2 vols. 1866-69), extensions of which appeared in 1875 and 1879.

Caspe, a town of Spain, 53 miles SE. of Saragossa. Pop. 9157.

Caspian Sea, an inland sea or great salt lake, the largest in the world, on the boundary between Europe and Asia, extending from 36° 40' to 47° 20' N. lat., and 46° 50' to 55° 10' E. long. Its length from north to south is 680 miles, and its breadth varies between 130 and 270 miles. Its total area is estimated at 170,000 sq. m. The coast-line is irregular, and on the east side especially there are several bays and indentations of coast, the principal being those of Mertviy Kultuk (with the bay Kaidak), Kenderli (separated from the above by the

peninsula of Manghishlak), Karabugas, and Balkan. From the west, the naphtha-impregnated peninsula of Apsheron stretches into the Caspian opposite the Balkan Gulf; Mount Caucasus also rises on its west side. On the south rises the lofty range of the Elburz Mountains, between which, however, and the coast, on this side almost unbroken, extends a low flat plain from 15 to 20 miles in breadth. On the north it is bordered by great steppes, the surface of which is below that of the ocean, and the country eastward is occupied by the desert plateau of Ust-urt, and the sandy deserts of the Turkomans. During the Post-Pliocene period the waters of the Caspian extended in the shape of a wide gulf north, towards the mouth of the Kama (q.v.), and through a narrow strait between the Balkan Mountains, over the steppes of the lower Amu-Daria, embodying Lake Aral, whose level is now 248 feet higher than the Caspian's, while that of the Caspian is 97 feet below the level of the Black Sea. At a still earlier period it was connected with the Black Sea by the channel of the two Manytch rivers (see CAUCASUS). The Caspian Sea has no tides, but its navigation is dangerous because of violent storms, especially from the south-east. Its level differs much at different seasons, owing to the variable amount of water brought by its tributaries and the extent of evaporation. It is very shallow in the north, where a depth of 14 feet is reached only at a distance of no less than 10 miles, and that of 12 fathoms (72 feet) at a distance of 130 miles from the mouth of the Volga. In its middle it is intersected by a submarine ridge which continues the main Caucasus chain from the Apsheron peninsula towards the ESE., and divides the Caspian into two deep basins. The greatest depth found in the northern basin is 2526 feet, and in the southern (close by the southern shore) 3006. The Caspian receives the waters of a number of large rivers, of which the greatest is the Volga. The Ural, the Emba, the Terek, the Kura, and the Atrek also fall into it. The water is salt, but much less so than that of the ocean. The northern parts of the Caspian are covered with ice during winter. It abounds in fish, and very valuable fisheries are carried on, especially for sturgeon and salmon. Besides many species of its own, it has several species of fish in common with the Black Sea, the Arctic Ocean, and Lake Aral; this suggests that the separation of the Caspian from the Black Sea took place in the earlier period of the Post-Pliocene period, or perhaps during the Pliocene. By a canal uniting the upper tributaries of the Volga with those of Lake Ladoga and the Duna, the Caspian is united with the Baltic Sea. The sea is now surrounded on three sides by Russian territory, the southern shore still remaining Persian. The Russians have a fleet stationed upon it, and lines of steam-packets. The chief Russian towns upon its shores are Astrakhan, Derbend, Baku, and Krasnovodsk (q.v.), from near which a railway runs by Askabad towards Merv, and thence to Samarkand in Turkestan. Steamers ply between Krasnovodsk and Baku, which is connected by rail with Poti on the Black Sea. Balfush, Keshi, and Astrabad are Persian towns.

The Caspian Sea was known to the Greeks and Romans. According to Strabo, it derived its name from the Caspi, a tribe inhabiting its western shores. The name Caspian was afterwards limited to the western portion of the lake—the eastern being designated the Hyrcanian Sea.

Casque. See HELMET.

Cass, LEWIS, American statesman, born at Exeter, New Hampshire, 9th October 1782. He was admitted to the Ohio bar in 1803, but in 1812,

on the outbreak of the second war with Great Britain, entered the army, and rose rapidly to the rank of general. Left in command of Michigan at the close of the war, he was for eighteen years civil governor of the territory which under his skilful administration became a settled and civilised state. From 1831 to 1836 Cass was Secretary of War under General Jackson, and from 1836 to 1842 he was United States Minister at Paris. In 1844 he was much spoken of for the presidency, and in 1848 he received the Democratic nomination, but was defeated at the polls by General Taylor; in 1852 he again lost the nomination. He sat in the senate from 1845 to 1857, when he was appointed Secretary of State, resigning office in 1860 in consequence of President Buchanan's refusal to reinforce Fort Sumter. He now retired from active life, and died at Detroit, 17th June 1866. Scrupulously honest, and generally a prudent and cautious legislator, Cass's position on most questions of his time resolved itself into one of compromise and moderation. His attitude towards slavery was inconsistent, but he appears to have sympathised with the Union in the civil war. For Britain he evinced a bitter hostility. He published a work on the history and languages of the United States Indians (1823), and *France: its King, Court, and Government* (1840). See his *Life* by W. L. Smith (New York, 1856).

Cassagnac, ADOLPHE GRANIER DE, French journalist, born in the department of Gers in 1806, in 1832 came to Paris, where he was employed on several journals, and where his vehement style of writing soon brought him considerable prominence and a number of duels and law-suits. In 1840 he visited the Antilles, in hopes of political preferment, and there married a Creole lady, Mademoiselle Beauvallon. Until 1848 a zealous Orleanist, he became one of the earliest promoters of the empire, and a bitter assailant of his former patrons, and as a supporter of the government, represented his native department from 1852 to 1870. He founded several papers, of all shades of political and religious thought, and chiefly resembling one another in their early demise; ultimately he became the chief editor of the semi-official *Le Pays*, which he revived after the fall of the empire. He died 31st January 1880. His appearances before the courts of justice were numerous, in his earlier years for duelling, and afterwards in cases of libel and debt. He published two romances and a number of compilations.—His son, PAUL ADOLPHE MARIE, born in 1843, joined him on *Le Pays* (1866), assisting with the literary work, and assuming charge of the duelling department of the paper. Having joined a Zouave regiment in 1870 as a volunteer, he was captured at Sedan, and imprisoned for some time in Silesia. He returned to Paris in 1872, renewed his association with *Le Pays*, and violently advocated the imperialist cause. In 1876 he was elected a deputy, and engaged in a course of turbulent insolence and obstruction; he was imprisoned in 1877, and during the autumn openly but vainly urged MacMahon to a *coup d'état*. The death of the Prince Imperial in 1879 disconcerted his hopes of effecting the recall of the Bonapartes; and his proclamation of Prince Victor Napoleon, in opposition to his father, Prince Jérôme, as head of the dynasty, introduced dissensions that still further weakened his party.

Cassander, king of Macedonia, was born about 354 B.C. His father, Antipater, passed him over and bequeathed the regency to Polysperchon, but Cassander allied himself with Ptolemy and Antigonus, and entered on a struggle with his rival. In 318 he gained Athens and most of the Greek cities, next invaded Macedonia,

captured Pydna, and put to death Olympias, mother of Alexander, but spared his widow Roxana and her son Agus for several years. Meanwhile he married Thessalonica, half-sister to Alexander, in whose honour he founded, about 316 B.C., the town which bears her name. In the following year he caused Thebes, which Alexander had destroyed, to be rebuilt. He next joined Seleucus, Ptolemy, and Lysimachus in their long struggle with Antigonus, which ended with the death of the latter on the battlefield at Ipsus (301). In 306 Cassander had assumed the title of king. He died about 297, leaving his son Philip as his successor.

Cassandra, according to Homeric legend, was the fairest daughter of Priam and Hecuba, and the twin-sister of Helenus. The two children were left one night in the sanctuary of Apollo, and during their sleep their ears were touched and purified by two snakes, so that they could understand the meaning of the language of birds, and thus know the future. Cassandra afterwards attracted the love of Apollo by her beauty, and he taught her the secrets of prophecy; but displeased by her rejection of his suit, laid upon her the curse that her prophecies should never be believed. So she prophesied in vain the treachery of the Grecian horse and the destruction of Troy, and was looked on by the citizens as a mere mad woman, whose words had no value whatever. On the capture of the city she fled to the temple of Athena, but was torn from the altar by Ajax Oileus, and ravished in the temple. In the distribution of the spoil she fell to the share of Agamemnon, and was afterwards murdered by Clytemnestra. The name is now often used generically of one who takes gloomy views of the political or social future, as the late W. R. Greg in his book, *Rocks Ahead, or the Warnings of Cassandra*.

Cassandra, the most western of the three tongues of the Chalcidice peninsula, between the gulfs of Salonicia and Cassandra. Its ancient name was *Pallene*. The Gulf of Cassandra (ancient *Toronæus Sinus*) extends 35 miles north-westward, and is 8 to 16 miles broad.

Cassano, a town of Southern Italy, 34 miles N. of Cosenza. Pop. 7407.—**CASSANO**, on the Adda, 16 miles ENE. of Milan by rail, was the scene of two sanguinary battles—a defeat in 1705 of the Imperialists under Prince Eugene, by the French under Vendôme; and a defeat in 1799 of the French themselves under Moreau, by the Russians and Austrians under Suwaroff. Pop. 3554.

Cassation, **COURT OF**. In the law of France, the act of annulling the decision of a court or judicial tribunal is called *cassation*, from the verb *casser*, 'to break or annul' (Lat. *quætere*; Eng. *quash*); and the function of cassation, as regards the judgments of all the other courts, is assigned to a special tribunal called the *Cour de Cassation*, which may thus be regarded, in a certain sense, as the last and highest court of appeal. But as everything is excluded beyond the question whether or not the view taken of the law, and of the proper method of administering it by the inferior tribunal, has been the right one, the idea attached to this institution is less that of a court in the ordinary sense, than of a department of government to which the duty of inspecting the administration of justice is assigned. The demand for cassation can be made only by the parties to the suit, or by the *procureur-général* of the Court of Cassation for the public interest. The whole French jurisdiction, civil, commercial, administrative, criminal, and correctional, may be reviewed by the Court of Cassation, the only exceptions

being the judgments of justices of the peace (where the amount is less than 100 francs), of tribunals of commerce (where the amount is less than 1500 francs), and of courts-martial, military and naval. These appeals do not involve any stay of execution, and the judgment in cassation is not a judgment on appeal, but merely has the effect of quashing the judgment below. The delay allowed for bringing a civil case before the Court of Cassation is two months for persons domiciled in France; but parties resident out of France have further time. In criminal matters, the procedure is greatly more prompt, three full days only being allowed. In all criminal and police cases the Court of Cassation may pronounce judgment immediately after the expiry of these days, and must do so within a month. Its staff consists of a president and three vice-presidents; 49 counsellors or ordinary judges; a *procureur-général*, or public prosecutor; 6 substitutes, who have the title of *avocats-général*; and several inferior officers. The judges are appointed by the President of the Republic, and their appointments are irrevocable. The three sections of the court are the *Chambre des Requêtes*, the *Chambre Civile*, the *Chambre Criminelle*. The whole court, when presided over by the minister of justice, possesses also the right of discipline and censure over all judges for grave offences not specially provided for by the law.

Cassa'va, a West Indian name of the plant also called Manioc (q.v.), and of the starch produced from it, which is otherwise called Brazilian Arrowroot, and is popularly known in Britain as Tapioca (q.v.).

Cassay. See MANIPUR.

Cassel, or KASSEL, chief town of the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau, and the old capital of the former electorate of Hesse-Cassel, is pleasantly situated on both sides of the navigable Fulda, 120 miles by rail NNE. of Frankfurt-on-Main, and 233 WSW. of Berlin. Pop. (1875) 53,043; (1885) 64,083. The town is one of the most attractive provincial capitals in Germany. Its oldest part consists of a few very narrow, crooked streets, close to the river; the more modern parts are situated on gentle hills. The 'upper new town' was founded by French refugees in 1688. Cassel is partially walled. In the *Friedrichs-Platz*, the largest square in any German town, stand the Elector's palace, a comparatively mean structure, the military school, and the large *Museum Fredericianum*, erected in 1769-79, which has a library of 100,000 volumes and some valuable MSS., besides collections of plaster-casts, antiquities, coins, &c. The large new law-courts were erected in 1880 on the site of the Kattenburg, a costly and ambitious palace projected in 1820, which, however, remained unfinished from 1821 till 1869, when its materials were used in the construction of the new picture-gallery. The latter, opened in 1877, contains about 1400 paintings, including some excellent specimens of Dutch and other old masters. Cassel has an observatory, and is the seat of a number of learned and scientific associations. It carries on manufactures of locomotives and steam-engines, carriages, philosophical and mathematical instruments, cotton and linen fabrics, plate, and sugar. Cassel is the birthplace of the chemists Bunsen and Kolbe; the brothers Grimm here wrote their famous fairy-tales between 1806 and 1814; and Spohr conducted the orchestra of the theatre from 1822 till 1859. Cassel appears to have existed as early as the 10th century under the name of *Chassala*. From 1807 to 1813 it was the capital of the kingdom of Westphalia. The gardens of Wilhelmshöhe (1787-96)—which was assigned to Napoleon III. as a residence after

his fall at Sedan, in September 1870—with their splendid fountains and cascades, and the colossal statue of Hercules, within the hollow of whose club eight persons can stand at one time, are three miles from Cassel.

Cassell, JOHN, founder of the publishing firm of Cassell & Co., the son of a Manchester inn-keeper, was born 23d January 1817. He had but a poor education, but while an apprentice joiner, by careful self-culture, fitted himself for the post of a temperance advocate. He went to London in 1836, and was settled as a tea and coffee merchant in 1847, but soon after turned author and publisher, issuing his *Working Man's Friend* (1850), *Illustrated Exhibitor* (1851), *Popular Educator* (1852), the most popular of all his works, which in a revised form is still on sale; and *Family Paper* (1853). In 1859 he entered into partnership with Messrs Petter & Galpin, and before his death, on 2d April 1865, he had the satisfaction of witnessing, and sharing in, the prosperity of one of the largest book-factories of modern times.

Cassia, a name given by the ancients to a kind of aromatic bark. The use of the name in Exodus, xxx. 24, and in Psalm xlv. 8, is derived from the Septuagint; and we constantly read of cassia in classical and medieval writers: this is identified with tolerable certainty with the Cassia Bark or *Cassia tinea* (sometimes also China Cinnamon) of our shops. This spice is largely imported from China; inferior sorts also come from Calcutta, Java, &c.; and although commonly referred to *Cinnamomum*, *Cassia*, no satisfactory examination of the different species has yet been made. It is essentially a cheaper and coarser form of Cinnamon (q.v.), for which it forms an excellent substitute—its essential oil being chemically similar, although more or less inferior in fragrance and flavour.

CASSIA BUDS are the immature fruit of the same tree, and have been imported from China since the middle ages: in Southern India a very inferior variety is also produced. The leaves of other species of *Cinnamomum* are used in Mysore as Tajpat; while in Peru and Ecuador the large woody calyx of a lauraceous tree (*Nectandra* sp.) serves the same purpose. The 'white cinnamon' of the West Indies is *Canella* Bark (q.v.).

CASSIA is also the botanical name of a large genus of Leguminosæ (sub-order Cæsalpiniæ), trees, shrubs, and even herbs. Some are cultivated on account of their graceful foliage and handsome yellow flowers; their chief importance is, however, medical, the leaves of several species furnishing Senna (q.v.), while the drug known as Cassia Fistula or Purging Cassia is derived from the pod of *Cassia Fistula*, of which the bark is used in tanning, and also yields a yellow dye. The name, however, in ancient writers clearly applies to a tubular bark, no doubt some variety of the spice Cassia above mentioned (q.v.). For *Poet's Cassia*, see **CASIA**.

Cassianus, JOANNES EREMITA, or **JOANNES MASSILIENSIS**, an early monk and theologian, born most probably about 360. He spent some years among the ascetics of the Egyptian deserts, was ordained by Chrysostom at Constantinople in 403, and afterwards instituted monastic life in Provence, in the south of France. Shortly before 415 he founded at Massilia two monasteries according to the rules laid down in his *De Institutis Cœnobiorum*. One of these monasteries was for nuns; the other was the famous Abbey of St Victor, which under its founder is said to have possessed not less than 5000 inmates, and which served as a model to a multitude of monastic institutions in Gaul and Spain. He died about 448, and was afterwards canonised, his festival falling on 25th July. In his writings Cassianus appears as the opponent of the

extreme dogmas of St Augustine respecting grace and free-will. His *Collationes Patrum Sceticorum* is a work in 24 chapters, each of which gives a 'spiritual colloquy between monks in the desert of Sketis,' regarding the monastic life and the vexed questions of theology. Cassianus was one of the first of the 'semi-Pelagians' rejecting the extreme view taught by St Augustine of man's worthlessness and natural incapacity for good; his views being substantially identical with what was long afterwards known as Arminianism. There is an edition of his works by Gazæus (3 vols. Douai, 1616). See Wiggers, *De Johanne Cassiano* (1822).

Cassican (*Cassicus*), a genus of American birds allied to starlings, and yet more closely to the Hang-nests or Icteridæ. They exhibit marvellous skill in knitting together the shreds, &c., which form their hanging nests. See **BALTIMORE BIRD**, **HANG-NESTS**.

Cassidaria, a genus of molluscs—class Gastropoda (q.v.), order Prosobranchiata, family Cassidæ. The shell is roughly oval, with a wide mouth, a fairly long siphon canal, and without a closing lid. There are six modern Mediterranean species, and five times as many extinct in the Upper Chalk and Tertiary strata. See **HELMET-SHELL**.

Cassi'ni, the name of a family distinguished for their services in astronomy and geography.

GIOVANNI DOMENICO CASSINI, born at Perinaldo, near Nice, 8th June 1625, studied at the College of Jesuits, Genoa, and at Bologna, where in 1650 he was appointed to the astronomical chair. His first work related to the comet of 1652. He subsequently devoted himself to the determination of astronomical refraction and of the sun's parallax, &c. In 1664-65 he determined the period of Jupiter's rotation. Subsequently he determined the periods of the planets Mars and Venus, and made a near approximation to the parallax of the sun. He discovered four of the satellites of Saturn, as well as the dual character of that planet's ring, and was the first who carefully observed the zodiacal light; he also demonstrated that the axis of the moon was not (as had been believed) at a right angle to the ecliptic, and explained the cause of the phenomenon known under the name of lunar libration. He had an important share in the Meridian (q.v.) measurement begun in 1669. After a long life devoted to painful observations that ultimately deprived him of sight, he died September 14, 1712, at Paris, whither he had gone in 1669, at the invitation of Colbert, to take charge of the observatory erected by that minister.

JACQUES CASSINI, his son, born at Paris, February 18, 1677, was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences in 1694, travelled in Italy, Holland, and England, where he formed the acquaintance of Newton, Halley, Flamsteed, and others, and was elected a member of the Royal Society. He succeeded his father as director of the observatory at Paris, and died April 16, 1756. He wrote several treatises on electricity, the barometer, and astronomical subjects, &c.—His son, **CÆSAR CASSINI** (1714-84), was also engaged in scientific pursuits.

CÆSAR's son, JEAN DOMINIQUE, COMTE DE CASSINI, born at Paris, June 30, 1748, succeeded to the charge of the observatory, and completed in 1793 the great topographical map of France begun by his father. He subsequently became a member of the Institute. He died October 18, 1845.

Cassino. See **MONTÉ CASSINO**.

Cassiodorus, MAGNUS AURELIUS, a Latin statesman and historian to whom we owe most of our information respecting the Gothic kingdom of Italy, was born at Scylaceum (Squillace) in Calabria

in 468 A.D. He belonged to a noble family, and became secretary to the great Ostrogothic king, Theodoric. He held the offices of quaestor and praetorian prefect, was sole consul in 514 A.D., and after the death of Theodoric in 526 A.D. acted as chief minister to Queen Amalasontha. He was an able and broad-minded statesman, to whom the success of Theodoric's policy must be in part ascribed. He seems to have retired from public life not later than 540 A.D., and to have spent the last thirty years of his long life in Calabria, where he died about 568 A.D. Cassiodorus wrote a history of the Goths (*De Rebus Geticis*), which we only possess in the form of the epitome made of it by Jornandes. His other work, *Variarum Epistolarum Libri XII.*, consists of a collection of the letters which he wrote as secretary to the Gothic sovereigns. They have no literary merit, for the style is bombastic and exceedingly diffuse, but their historical value is of the highest. They form, says Dean Milman, 'a rare collection of original official documents, which admit us, as it were, to the council-board of the cabinet at one of the most interesting of all periods of history.' They shed a flood of light on the policy pursued by Theodoric and his successors, the condition of the people, the affairs of the church, and the fiscal and administrative system of the Gothic kingdom of Italy. An edition of the letters was published in 1679 (2 vols. folio, Rouen). See Hodgkin's *Letters of Cassiodorus; a condensed translation* (1886).

Cassiopeia, the *Lady in her Chair*, a constellation in the northern hemisphere, near Cepheus, and not far from the north pole, named after the mother of Andromeda. It is marked by five stars of the third magnitude, forming a figure like a W. In the year 1572 there all at once appeared in Cassiopeia a new star, which when first noticed by Tycho Brahe exceeded in brightness all the fixed stars, and nearly equalled Venus. The star gradually diminished in lustre, and disappeared in March 1574.

Cassiquiare, or CASSIQUIARI, a river of Venezuela, South America, forming the south bifurcation of the Orinoco, which it leaves in 3° 10' N. lat., 66° 20' W. long., and after a rapid south-west course of about 130 miles, joins the Rio Negro in 2° 5' N. lat., 67° 40' W. long. near San Carlos. By means of this singular river, water-communication is established, through the Amazon, Orinoco, and their affluents, between the interior of Brazil and a large tract in Venezuela.

Cassia, a genus closely allied to Cassidaria, with a shorter siphon canal and with a closing lid. It is a much larger genus, with 42 living species, but with fewer (25) known fossils in the Tertiary epoch. Some large species are used for cameos. See HELMET-SHELL.

Cassiterides, the 'Tin Islands,' first merely mentioned by Herodotus, where the merchant-sailors of Carthage bartered their wares for tin. The Greek *κασσίτερος*, 'tin,' is the Sanskrit *kastira*, and it has been supposed that the Phœnicians brought the name with the metal from the islands off the coast of India. The islands appear on Ptolemy's map as off north-western Spain, but they were afterwards identified with the Scilly Islands, or with Cornwall; more recently, however, very strong reasons have been advanced for regarding them as the little islands about Vigo Bay, off the Spanish coast. See Elton, *Origins of English History* (1882).

Cassiterite, oxide of tin or common tin ore, occurs massive or in the form of crystals, which are often quadrangular prisms terminated by four-sided pyramids. It appears, however, in many other complex crystalline forms. These are gener-

ally blackish brown or black, but greenish shades are also met with—the dark varieties being opaque, while those that are lighter in colour are somewhat translucent. Cassiterite contains about 78 per cent. of tin, and is the ore from which most of the tin of commerce is obtained. It has been worked from a very remote period in Cornwall, and is met with in many other countries, as in Brittany, Bohemia, Saxony, Spain, Finland, Sweden, Greenland, United States, California, Mexico, Chili, Sumatra, &c. *Stream tin* is the name given to rounded fragments of cassiterite which occur in alluvial deposits in the valleys of Cornwall, &c.

Cassius, the name of a famous Roman *gens*, which, originally of patrician rank, afterwards became plebeian. Its most famous members were (1) SPURIUS CASSIUS VISCCELLINUS, who was thrice consul, first in 502 B.C., and the promoter of the first agrarian law at Rome (486). By this he made himself so hateful to his own order that they found means to condemn him to death on a trumped-up charge of aiming at regal power.—(2) CAIUS CASSIUS LONGINUS, the most active of the conspirators against Caesar. He distinguished himself by his conduct as quaestor to Crassus in the Parthian war, and still more greatly by his energy and resource in the disasters that followed his general's death. He was tribune of the people at the breaking out of the civil war, and at once attached himself to Pompey. After the disaster of Pharsalia he was taken prisoner in the Hellespont by Caesar, and pardoned with that conqueror's usual magnanimity. In 44 B.C., through the influence of Caesar, he was made praetor, and was promised the governorship of Syria in the following year. But his mean and jealous spirit could not endure the burden of gratitude imposed upon him by the generosity of the dictator, and he resolved to be released by the murder of his benefactor. He first attached to himself the mutinous spirits among the subjugated aristocracy, and next won over M. Brutus. The pseudo-patriotic conspiracy was soon matured, and on the 15th of March 44 B.C. Caesar fell by the daggers of his assassins. But popular feeling blazed out against the murderers, and Mark Antony had the wit to seize his opportunity. Cassius fled to the east, made himself master of Syria, then united his forces with those of Brutus, and after cruelly plundering Asia Minor, crossed the Hellespont into Thrace. At Philippi the division commanded by Cassius was totally routed, and Cassius, supposing that all was lost, compelled his freedman to kill him.

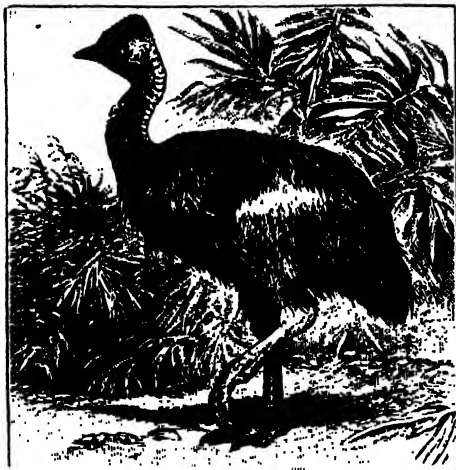
Cassius. See DION CASSIUS.

Cassivellaunus, a British chief who fought against Caesar during his second invasion of the island, 54 B.C. The chief of the Cassi, he had seized the sovereignty of the 'Trinobantes,' and had a great reputation as a warrior, but his capital was taken by the Romans, and he himself compelled to flee. He afterwards sued for peace, which he obtained on condition of paying tribute and giving hostages.

Cassock, a long loose robe or outer coat, formerly in common wear, but now worn only by the clergy and choristers. As worn by the clergy of the Church of England it is a long coat with a single upright collar. Black is the common colour for all orders of the clergy, but on state occasions bishops frequently wear purple cassocks. In the Roman Catholic Church cassocks vary in colour according to the dignity of the wearer—priests wearing black, bishops purple, cardinals scarlet, and the pope white.

Cassowary (*Casuarinus*), a genus of running birds (*Ratitae*), nearly related to the true ostrich, and nearer to the American rhea. From the former

it differs conspicuously in having three, not two toes; from the latter less markedly in its laterally compressed skull, and in the 'after shafts' of its feathers. The latter are nearly as long as the main shafts, so that the feathers look double. The wings and tail are extremely degenerate, the nail of the inmost toe is very long, the naked forehead bears a horny brightly coloured helmet, the neck is in four species adorned with two pendent red and blue wattles. In one species there is one wattle, in the other four two. The breast exhibits a bare callous patch, on which the bird rests when sitting. The alimentary canal differs from that of



Cassowary (*Casuarus galeatus*).

the ostrich as the food does, being suited not for coarse diet, but for the soft parts of plants and fruits. Generally ostrich-like, the cassowary has a shorter neck, yet stands about 5 feet high. The general colour of the loose hair-like feathers is brownish black. When attacked, it kicks forwards with its feet, or strikes with the few (five) rigid barbs of its degenerate wings. Cassowaries have great powers of running and leaping. They live in pairs in wooded districts. The few eggs are incubated by both sexes, are of a greenish colour, and thinner in shell than those of the ostrich. Eight species of cassowary are known in Ceram, New Guinea, and the South Sea Islands, and a ninth in North Australia. The best-known species are the Mooruk of New Britain (*C. bennetti*) and *C. galeatus*; the Emu or Dromæus is a nearly allied genus. The flesh of the cassowary is black, tough, and juiceless. They are sometimes kept in confinement, are common in menageries, but are rapidly becoming rarer in their native haunts. See RATITE, OSTRICH, EMU.

Cast. An object formed by pouring molten or liquid material into a mould, in which the substance sets or hardens, assuming the form and outlines of the mould, is a cast, and is said to be made by casting. The process has a very wide application in the arts; its principal utilisation being in connection with the metallic industries. Casting on the large scale, specially in connection with iron and brass work, including statuary, is known as Founding, and will be treated under that head, though the products are still termed castings. So also the process of casting types is called typefoundry. But when small objects in metal are dealt with, as in the jewelry trade, the process is known simply as casting. Plaster of Paris is an important medium for obtaining the first permanent casts of artistic sculptures and mouldings

from the clay models of artists, as well as for preparing copies of sculptured works. In the same way the moulded ornaments used by plasterers are also prepared in plaster of Paris (see GYPSUM). Casts from plaster moulds are also made in wax for models of fruits, human masks, and other subjects reproduced in wax. Casting is further employed in glass manufacture, in which moulded and cast ornaments and forms are a feature precisely analogous to casting in other media. When the material employed in obtaining an impression from a mould is of doughy consistence requiring to be kneaded in the process, it is known as moulding, and that forms an important feature in the pottery manufacture.

Castalia, a fountain on the slope of Parnassus, a little above Delphi, in Phocis, sacred to Apollo and the Muses. All who visited the Delphian temple were wont to bathe their hair *coro puro Castaliæ* ('in the pure dew of Castalia'), but those who needed to be purified from murder bathed their whole body. Its waters, moreover, gave poetic inspiration to those who drank. The name was due to Castalia, daughter of Achelous, who threw herself into the fountain to escape the pursuit of Apollo.

Castanets, a musical instrument of percussion in the form of two hollow shells of ivory or hard wood, which are bound together by a band fastened on the thumb, and struck by the fingers to produce a trilling sound in keeping with the rhythm of the music. The *krotalon* used in the worship of Cybele and Dionysus was somewhat similar. The castanets were introduced into Spain by the Moors, and are much used as an accompaniment to dances and guitars.

Castañes, DON FRANCISCO XAVIER DE, Duke of Bailen, a celebrated Spanish general, was born at Madrid in 1756, and studied military tactics in Germany. On the invasion of the country by Napoleon, he received the command of a division of the Spanish army, and in July 1808 compelled 18,000 French, under General Dupont de l'Étang, to surrender at Bailen, but was in his turn defeated by Lannes in November of the same year at Tudela. Under Wellington he served as general of the 4th Spanish corps *d'armée*, and took part in the battles of Albuera, Salamanca, and Vittoria. In 1815 he was placed at the head of the Spanish army for the invasion of France, which was rendered unnecessary by the victory at Waterloo. In 1825 he was called to the state council, where he became a decided opponent of the Carlist party. He died, aged ninety-six, on 24th September 1852.

Caste, a term applied chiefly to distinct classes or sections of society in India, and, in a modified sense, to social distinctions of an exclusive nature among other nations. Such distinctions existed in many ancient states, as in Egypt and Persia, and still exist in Polynesia and elsewhere; but it is with India that we more especially associate the idea of caste. There the system has received its fullest development, and the mass of the population is divided into innumerable classes, the Hindu name for which is *jāti*, a race or class. This term the Portuguese rendered by their equivalent *casta*, whence comes the English *caste*.

When the Aryan race penetrated into India, the conquerors distinguished themselves from the non-Aryan population by the epithet *twice-born*—i.e. those who have passed through a second or religious birth, which was symbolised by the sacrament of investiture with the sacred cord at the age of puberty; the aborigines they named the *once-born*. The twice-born themselves were divided into three classes in the course of time, a sacerdotal class called Brahmins, a ruling military

class, Kshatriyas, and an agricultural class, Vaisya. The once-born were called Sûdras. The unequal social rank of these four classes was assigned to an inequality of origin, and this was mythically expressed in a late hymn of the Rig Veda, in which it is said that the Brahman was the mouth of the primitive Man (*purusha*), the Warrior his arms, the Vaisya his thighs, and that the Sûdra sprang from his feet. In the code of Manu, the duties and mutual relations of these four castes are systematised and defined.

The *Brahman* is devoted to the service of religion; he alone mediates between God and man, and has the right of performing sacrifice and teaching the sacred Veda; he is himself an actual divinity. His life is portioned out into four periods: (1) As a student he lives with his spiritual preceptor, and acquires a knowledge of the Veda; (2) he becomes a householder by entering the married state, and performs the appointed daily sacrifices; (3) he lives in the woods as a hermit; (4) he cuts himself off from the world, and by profound meditation attains to absorption into Brahma. The last two are no longer obligatory.

The *Kshatriya's* sphere of duty lies in the state. He is to be the mainstay and support of the higher Brahman. The latter draws up and interprets the laws, the former executes them.

The *Vaisya's* occupation is the cultivation of the soil and the practice of trade. His ideal is to be perfection in business.

The *Sûdra* is to be the servant of all three, especially of the Brahman. From this condition he cannot raise himself; his only hope is that after death he may be born into a higher caste.

Besides these four castes, usually called *varnas*, or colours, various mixed castes are enumerated in Manu as resulting from the intermarriage of the pure castes. These are restricted to particular occupations. Lowest in the scale stood the outcast *Chandala*, the offspring of a Brahman mother and Sûdra father. In Southern India the *Pariah* takes his place.

The system of caste which at present exists throughout the greater part of India is very different from that described in the code of Manu, though to this it owes, no doubt, much of its stability and its importance in the eyes of Europeans. With the exception of the Brahmins, the pure castes have disappeared, unless the claim of the Rājputs to be the lineal descendants of the Kshatriyas be admitted, and out of the intermixture of the others have sprung innumerable classes. Some idea of their number may be gathered from the census returns of 1881. According to this there were in India 188,000,000 Hindus, of whom 13,730,000 were Brahmins who are broken up into a vast number of minor classes—Sherring enumerates 1886 tribes. There were 7,107,000 Rājputs divided into 590 tribes. The rest belonged to 207 other castes. There were 11 large castes; 10 large agricultural castes; 37 castes had each more than 1,000,000 members. So engrained in the whole community is this tendency to class distinctions, that Mussulmans, Jews, Parsees, and Christians fall, in some degree, into it; and even excommunicated or outcast Pariahs form castes among themselves. Most of the existing castes partake of the nature of associations for mutual support or familiar intercourse, and are dependent upon a man's trade, occupation, or profession. Many have had their origin in guilds, in schism from other castes, in the possession of a particular sort of property (as, for instance, landlords are spoken of as the caste of *zamindars*), and similar accidental circumstances. Their names are often due to the district in which the caste took its rise, to their founder, to their

peculiar creed, or any random circumstance. In the Bengal presidency there are many hundreds of such castes, almost every district containing some unknown in those adjacent. In the small state of Travancore, with a population of about two and a half millions, there are said to be 420 castes. There the aboriginal Sûdra Nairs form the ruling or Kshatriya caste, and the half-Arab Mohammedan Moplah takes the place of the Vaisya. Among the lowest classes, it has degenerated into a fastidious tenacity of the rights and privileges of station. For example, the man who sweeps your room will not take an empty cup from your hand; your groom will not mow a little grass; a coolie will carry any load, however offensive, upon his head, but even in a matter of life and death would refuse to carry a man, for that is the business of another caste. When an English servant pleads that such a thing 'is not his place,' his excuse is analogous to that of the Hindu servant when he pleads his caste. When an Englishman of birth or profession, which is held to confer gentility, refuses to associate with a tradesman or mechanic—or when members of a secret order exclude all others from their meetings—or when any other similar social distinction arises, it would present itself to the mind of the Hindu as a regulation of caste.

Caste does not, at the present day, tie a man down to follow his father's business, except, perhaps, in the case of the more sacred functions of the Brahmins. For the rest, Brahmins serve as soldiers, and even as cooks. Men of all castes have risen to power, just as in England statesmen have sprung from every class of society. Nor, again, is loss of caste anything so terrible as has been represented; in most cases it may be recovered by a frugal repast given to the members of the caste; or the outcast joins another caste, among whom he will commonly be received with the heartiness due to a new convert. The question of the restoration of a Christian convert wishing to rejoin the Brahmanical caste has been generally decided in the negative.

As in the West, so in the East, caste enters into all the most ordinary relations of life, producing laws often most tyrannical and too anomalous to admit of generalisation. In the West, however, whilst good sense and Christianity have ever tended to ameliorate social differences, the feeble mind of the Hindu and the records of his religion have had a contrary effect.

The question how caste is to be dealt with in converts to Christianity has now been determined by common consent of missionaries in India; and it receives no recognition within the Christian church. The opposite policy, in former times, was founded on the opinion that caste might be regarded as merely a civil or social institution, and not as a part of the religion of the Hindus.

The modified views of caste, which have begun to prevail in recent years, will be found more fully developed in Shore, *On Indian Affairs*; Irving's *Theory and Practice of Caste*. Full accounts of the petty regulations of caste, as laid down in the code of Manu, may be seen in the *Translations of the Code of Manu*, by Jones, Burnell, or Bühler; Robertson's *Disquisition on India*; Richard's *India*; Elphinstone's *History of India*; Dubois's *India*; Colebrooke's *Asiatic Transactions*, vol. v.; and in various articles in the *Calcutta Review*. See above all the first volume of Dr John Muir's *Sanskrit Texts* (5 vols.); Steele's *Law and Custom of Hindu Caste* (1868); Kaye and Watson, *The People of India* (6 vols. 1868-72); and admirable illustrations of the system are given in Sherring's *Hindu Tribes and Castes in Benares* (3 vols. 1872-81).

Castelar, EMILIO, a prominent Spanish orator, statesman, and writer, was born at Cadiz, September 8, 1832. He studied at Madrid, and in

1856 became professor of History and Philosophy in the university there. He began early to write on letters and politics in the newspapers and magazines, and in 1864 started *La Democrazia*, in the pages of which he inveighed fiercely against the government. After the abortive rising of 1866 he was condemned to death, but contrived to escape to Paris, returning when the revolution of 1868 began. All his ardour and eloquence could not hinder the crowning of King Amadeus, though it helped to bring about his downfall in 1873. In the September of that year the Cortes made Castelar dictator, but the orator proved somewhat ineffectual in action, and found himself unable to crush either the 'red demagoguery of Socialism on the one hand, or the white demagoguery of Carlism' on the other. In the beginning of 1874 a hostile vote in the Cortes obliged him to resign, and soon after the *pronunciamiento* in favour of Alfonso XII. drove him across the frontier. He returned to Spain in 1876, and was returned to the Cortes, where he has often spoken since with all his old fire and eloquence, but with little effect. His chief writings are *La Civilización* (2d ed. 1865), *Questiones politicas y sociales* (3 vols. 1870), *Discursos parlamentarios* (3 vols. 1871), *Historia del Movimiento republicano en Europa* (2 vols. 1874), *La Question de Oriente* (1876). See his *Life* by Sanchez de Real (1874), and Grant Duff's *Miscellanies* (1879).

Castelbuono, a town of Sicily, 8 miles SE. of Cefalu, with mineral springs, a former Benedictine monastery, and a trade in manna. Pop. 8439.

Castelfranco, a town of Central Italy, 8 miles SE. of Modena. Pop. 1900. -- Also a town of Italy, 15 miles W. of Treviso by rail, the scene of an Austrian defeat by the French, under Saint-Cyr, 24th November 1805. The principal church possesses a celebrated altar-piece by Giorgione, who was born here. Pop. 3758.

Castel Gandolfo, a village 12 miles SE. of Rome, near the west shore of Lake Albano. Here Urban VIII. built a summer residence for the popes. Pop. 1684.

Castellamare, a fortified city and seaport of South Italy, 17½ miles SE. of Naples by rail, built along a sheltered beach on the south-east side of the Gulf of Naples, over which it commands a magnificent view. It is on or near the site of the ancient *Stabia*, which was desolated by Sulla during the Social War, and where the elder Pliny afterwards lost his life when the city was overwhelmed with lava from Vesuvius (79 A.D.). The town was sacked in the 15th century by Pope Pius II., and again in 1654 by the Duc de Guise. The Castello that gave it name was built by the Emperor Frederick II. in the 13th century; and Castellamare has also a cathedral, an arsenal, and manufactures of macaroni, cotton, sail-cloth, &c. Pop. 22,207. -- CASTELLAMARE, in Sicily, at the head of a gulf of the same name, 41 miles WSW. of Palermo by rail, has a population of 15,303, and exports of cotton, wine, fruit, and manna.

Castellan, or CHÂTELAINE, the keeper of a castle in the middle ages. His office and rank varied in various countries. In France and Flanders, the title castellan belonged to the holders of certain demesnes, and was next in order of rank to that of a bailiff.

Castellana, a town of South Italy, 26 miles SE. of Bari. Pop. 8092.

Castellane'ta, a cathedral city of South Italy, 24 miles NW. of Taranto by rail. Pop. 7913.

Castello, SEBASTIANUS, a theologian, born in Savoy in 1515, studied at Lyons, and about 1540, on Calvin's recommendation, was appointed rector of a school at Geneva. His views, however, as to

the Song of Solomon (a mere erotic poem to him) and Christ's descent into hell embroiled him with the reformer; and in 1544 he was forced to migrate to Basel, where in 1553 he became Greek professor, and where he died 23d December 1563. Besides various treatises, he published in 1551-53 translations of the Bible into Latin and French, the former dedicated to Edward VI. of England. See CALVIN; and the *Lives* of Castellio by Mahly (Basel, 1862) and Broussoux (Strass. 1867).

Castello Branco, a town of Portugal, 115 miles NE. of Lisbon, on a height overlooking the Ponsul, with old walls, a ruined castle, and Roman remains. Pop. 7464.

Castello de Vide, a town in the Portuguese province of Alentejo, 139 miles ENE. of Lisbon by rail. Pop. 5263.

Castellon' de la Plana, a town of Spain, situated in the midst of a fruitful plain, 5 miles from the Mediterranean, and 43 miles NNE. of Valencia by rail. Its churches contain several paintings by Ribalta, who was born here in 1551. There are manufactures of linen, woollen, sail-cloth, brandy, &c., and an active trade. Pop. 23,393. The province of Castellon has an area of 2446 sq. m., and a pop. of (1885) 295,839.

Castelnaudary, a town in the French department of Aude, situated on a declivity, skirted at the base by the Canal du Midi, 34 miles SE. of Toulouse by rail. It has manufactures of woollen and silk fabrics, and earthenware. The canal at this point expands into a large basin. Pop. (1886) 8641. The *Sostomagus* of the Romans, and *Castrum Novum Arianorum* (hence the modern name) of the Visigoths, Castelnaudary suffered dreadfully in the crusade against the Albigenses, and in 1355 it was captured by the Black Prince. Under its walls, in 1632, the royalists defeated the Duke of Orleans.

Castel Sarasin, a town in the French department of Tarn-et-Garonne, 12 miles W. of Montauban. Pop. 3916.

Casteltermini, a town of Sicily, 20 miles N. of Girgenti by rail, with extensive mines of rock-salt and sulphur. Pop. 9209.

Castelvetro, a town of Sicily, 46 miles SE. of Trapani by rail, with considerable trade in wine and oil, and manufactures of silk, cotton, and woollen goods. Pop. (1881) 19,569.

Casti, GIAMBATTISTA, poet, born at Prato, in Tuscany, probably in 1721, took orders, but in 1764 was introduced to the court of Vienna, where he gained the favour of Joseph II., and was made poet-laureate. On the emperor's death (1790), he returned to Florence, and in 1798 removed to Paris, where he died 6th February 1803. His best-known works are the 48 *Novelle Galanti* (Paris, 1793), and *Gli Animati Parlanti*, a political satire of charming spirit and grace.

Castiglione, a town of Sicily, on the north slope of Mount Etna, 35 miles SW. of Messina. It is built on a square rock rising abruptly from the valley, and having a double crest, on which stand a church and the ruins of a feudal castle. The Sicilian hazel-nuts of the district are famous. Pop. 8114. -- CASTIGLIONE DELLE STIVIERE, a town of North Italy, 22 miles NW. of Mantua. It is chiefly celebrated on account of the victory obtained here by the French over the Austrians in 1796, which gave the title of Duc de Castiglione to Marshal Augereau. Pop. 3123.

Castiglione, BALDASARRE, COUNT, Italian author, was born in 1478 at Casatico in the duchy of Mantua, studied at Milan, and became a favourite of the Duke of Urbino. In 1505 he was employed by the duke as envoy to

Henry VII. of England, who made him a knight; from 1513 he spent much of his time in Rome. Sent on an embassy to Spain by Clement VII., he died at Toledo, 2d February 1529. His chief work is *Il Cortegiano* (Eng. trans. 1561), a manual for courtiers, remarkable for its elegant style. His Italian and Latin Poems are also models of elegance, and his *Letters* (2 vols. 1769-71) contain interesting contributions to the political and literary history of his time. Tasso devoted a sonnet to the death of Castiglione, and Giulio Romano raised to his memory a monument in Padua.

Castiglione, CARLO OTTAVIO, COUNT, Italian scholar, was born at Milan in 1784, and died at Genoa, 10th April 1849. His *magnum opus*, published in 1826, is a work in which he seeks to ascertain the origin and the history of the towns in Barbary whose names are found on Arabic coins. Out of Italy, however, he is best known by his edition of some fragments of the Mæso-Gothic translation of the Bible by Ulfilas (q.v.), which had been discovered in 1817 by Cardinal Mai among the palimpsests of the Ambrosian Library. See his *Life* by Biondelli (1856).

Castile (Span. *Castilla*), the central district of the Spanish peninsula, divided by the Castilian Sierras (8730 feet) into Old and New Castile—*Castilla la Vieja* and *Castilla la Nueva*. The former district—so called because it was first recovered from the Arabs—extends north to the Bay of Biscay, is walled in on all other sides by mountain-ranges, and rises to the height of 2500 to 3000 feet in the form of an elevated plateau, mostly trackless, treeless, exposed to frequent droughts, and generally dreary, parched, and barren, in spite of a few rich tracts. Old Castile is now divided into the eight provinces of Palencia, Valladolid, Avila, Segovia, Soria, Burgos, Logroño, and Santander. The plateau of New Castile, to the south, is also inclosed by mountains, and though lying 1800 feet lower than Old Castile, presents many similar characteristics of soil and scenery, and everywhere the same dreary aspect. It embraces the provinces of Madrid, Toledo, Guadalajara, Ciudad Real, and Cuenca. Area of Old Castile, 25,280 sq. m.; pop. (1885) 1,730,295; area of New Castile, 27,755 sq. m.; pop. (1885) 1,671,739; total, 53,035 sq. m., with 3,402,034 inhabitants.

The Castilians are a grave, silent, somewhat stern people, preserving with the haughtiness and pure Spanish of their forefathers also their ignorance and bigotry, but are nevertheless a loyal and manly race. In New Castile a mixture of Mozarabic and Spanish blood has produced a race of men, lean but muscular, and women, slender, graceful, and vivacious; they are the most intelligent people of Central Spain, possess a shrewd mother-wit, and have even more than the general haughtiness of the Spanish character. The language of Castile prevails throughout the educated classes, as in the literature of Spain, and its rulers have extended their sway over the whole nation.

Castile, so named from the great number of its frontier castles, was from the 8th century under the suzerainty of the kings of Asturias and Leon, but was governed by its own counts, who in the 10th century became practically independent. In 1026 Sancho the Great of Navarre annexed the greater part of Castile, which he left to his second son, Ferdinand I. (1035-67), who annexed Leon, Asturias, Galicia, and the district on the right of the Ebro. This union was not permanent, his territories being divided at his death among his three sons; but in 1072 the kingdom was reunited under Alfonso VI. The two kingdoms, however, were finally reunited in the person of

Ferdinand III. (1230-52), who captured Cordova and Seville, and extended the frontier of Castile to the southern coast. Among the successors of Ferdinand III., the most distinguished were Alfonso X. and Pedro the Cruel (q.v.). For two centuries the history of Castile is largely a record of minorities and civil wars, until, by the marriage of Isabella, sister and successor of Henry IV., with Ferdinand, king of Aragon (1469), the two crowns of Castile and Aragon became united (1479), and the kingdom of Spain was founded.

Castillejo, CRISTÓVAL DE, the last of the old Spanish court poets, born at Ciudad Rodrigo about 1490, became secretary to the Infante, afterwards Ferdinand I., whom he followed to Germany. He died in Vienna, 12th June 1556. His works were first published at Madrid (1573).

Castillon, a town of 2686 inhabitants in the French department of Gironde, on the right bank of the Dordogne, 33 miles E. of Bordeaux by rail. Beneath its walls, on 13th June 1453, the English met with a signal defeat, their leader, Earl Talbot of Shrewsbury, and his son, being slain. Part of the battle is described in the last two scenes of the fourth act of Shakespeare's *King Henry VI.*, Part I.

Castling-vote, the vote by which the chairman or president of a meeting is generally empowered to cast the balance on the one side or the other, where the other votes are equally divided. In the House of Commons the Speaker does not vote at all unless this state of things occurs. As his position in this respect is felt to be a delicate one for a person whose duty it is to withdraw himself from the contentions of party, it is usual for the Speaker to vote in such a way as to give the House an opportunity of reconsidering its decision by further discussion; but if the merits of a bill cannot be avoided, the Speaker is entitled to vote according to his conscience. The same rule prevails in select committees, and for the chairman of Committee of the whole House or of Ways and Means. Following a similar rule, the chairman at corporation and ordinary public meetings usually gives his casting-vote in a way that will lead to a reconsideration of the subject.

Cast-iron. See IRON.

Castle. Castles or fortified places for defence are common to all nations, and seem, like houses, to have generally passed through various stages of development. The earliest fortress consisted of a naturally strong site, defended either by water, as in the case of a small island, or by difficulty of access, as in the case of a precipitous and isolated rock. For these primitive strengths artificial means of defence were afterwards substituted, either by the construction of dwellings raised on piles driven into the beds of lakes, or by the formation of artificial mounds with the materials dug out of a ditch around them, thus providing by one operation an elevated site, and surrounding it with a defence which increased its inaccessible character.

A mixed style was also frequently adopted, in which a naturally strong position was rendered more secure by the construction of ditches and mounds around it. The latter were often further fortified by a mixture of stones or timber with the earthen mound, or by the construction of a wooden palisade on its crest. Of all these early forms of defences we have numerous examples in the 'lake-dwellings' and 'hill-forts' which abound all over Scotland. In England and the north of France the artificial mound or 'motte,' surrounded by a ditch and fortified with a palisade, was the most usual form of castle previous to the time of the Normans. In Southern France, where Roman

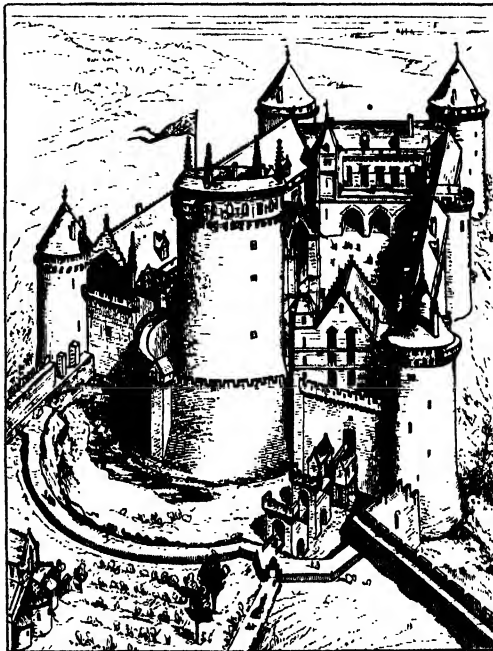
civilisation lasted longer than in the north, the *castra stativa* formed the model for the defences of the castle, while the arrangements of the Roman 'villa' were continued in the country houses.

Under the Normans, during the 11th century, another style of castle was introduced, familiar to every one as the Norman 'keep.' This consisted of a square or oblong tower, the walls of which were built with stone and mortar, and were always of great thickness. The Norman keep relied for its defence on the passive resistance of its solid walls to all the appliances which the engineering of the time could bring to bear upon them. The basement was vaulted and had only very narrow openings in the walls for air. The entrance-door was usually on the first floor, and was approached either by a movable ladder, or by a stone staircase erected in a well-defended tower or 'forework' built at one side of the keep. On the first floor was the hall, or common room, where all the inhabitants of the castle took their meals and slept, except its lord, who with his family occupied the apartment on the second floor. The top was crowned with a battlement from which the active defence was carried on. These castles had courtyards attached to them which were called the outer and inner 'bailey,' and the keep was frequently placed at the wall dividing the courtyards.

In the 13th century the art of attack and defence had greatly improved, and it was found necessary to a large extent to modify the simple Norman system. The passive solidity of the keep no longer sufficed to save it from the operations of the sappers, and the principle was gradually evolved in military architecture that 'that which defends must be itself defended.' Hence arose the system of strengthening the walls of enceinte of the courtyards, and of constructing all around them a series of towers, attached to but projecting boldly from the walls at short intervals, so as to permit the defenders to watch and guard the intervening 'curtains' or straight portions of the walls of enceinte, with flank fire from the battlements of the towers. The whole structure thus became a great 'castle,' each portion serving as a defence to the rest. Each tower was also so arranged as to form a small independent fort, capable of maintaining a separate defence, and the keep was still preserved as the residence of the commander, and as a last refuge in case of need. Every portion of the castle had thus to be assaulted separately—the fall of one wall or one tower did not imply the surrender of the stronghold, and even after all the walls and towers connected with them had fallen, the commander with his household retainers might yet maintain a stubborn resistance in the keep while their provisions lasted. Of the fortresses of this period the great castle of Couci in the north of France is the typical example; and Carnarvon, Caerphilly, and other specimens of what is called the Edwardian style, are well-known English illustrations. These castles, though strong in war, were dull and lonely places of abode in peace, and as civilisation advanced and manners softened, the lords and their families forsook the gloomy keeps and preferred to dwell in halls and private rooms erected in the inner courtyard and ranged along the outer walls, so that from windows therein they might enjoy a view over the surrounding country and what went on abroad. These apartments gradually increased in number, until in the 15th century the castles of the nobles became not only impregnable fortresses, but splendid palaces. The castle of Pierrefonds, near Compiègne, built in 1390, and restored in 1865 by M. Viollet-le-Duc, gives a noble idea of the magnificence and grandeur of these palatial residences. In England the castles of Warwick, Kenilworth, Bodiam (Sussex, near

Rye), &c., show the same combination of powerful military and elegant domestic architecture.

But a new agent in the art of war was at hand, before which these proud strongholds had after a



Castle of Couci (from Viollet-le-Duc).

short and bitter struggle to succumb. Believing them impregnable before the introduction of gunpowder in sieges, the nobles could not for a long time bring themselves to admit that their feudal fortresses were no longer able to shelter them from the assaults of artillery; but by-and-by this truth was forced upon them, and then recognising the uselessness of their gloomy walls, they vied with one another in throwing them down, so as to open up their abodes and render them, after the manner of the Italian villas, pleasant and cheerful country residences, with scarcely a feature suggestive of defence. It was now freely admitted that fortresses must henceforth consist of separate and much greater structures than were compatible with the resources of even the most powerful nobles, and that they might better be left in the hands of the government.

Although the country residences of the nobles erected after this time (16th century) still partook of the old character in their external aspect, and exhibited the same appearance of towers and battlements, loopholes and drawbridge, these features were no longer employed for use, but only from habit and a desire to maintain the traditional dignity and importance of the castle. The château of Sully-sur-Loire is a good specimen of the manner in which the later castellated style was carried out in France. The name, too, of 'castle' or 'château' often survives and dignifies a defenceless country mansion. Finally the spread of the Renaissance swept away the few remaining symbols of castellated architecture, and introduced in its place the symmetrical and open style of the 17th century. Many of the transition examples are, however, of great interest and beauty, and compose the great bulk of the picturesque and well-known châteaux of France. Our Scottish castles of the time of James VI. also owe much of their

picturesque effect to the mixture of castellated or defensive features, with the enlargement and improvement of domestic accommodation.

See Viollet-le-Duc, article 'Architecture Militaire' in the *Dictionnaire* (1854-69); Parker, *Domestic Architecture of the Middle Ages* (1853-60); G. T. Clark, *Medieval Military Architecture* (1884); MacGibbon and Ross, *Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland* (1886).

Castlebar, the capital of County Mayo, Ireland, on the Castlebar River, 152 miles NW. of Dublin by rail. It has a good market, several breweries, and some trade in linen and agricultural produce. Here the Irish in 1641 massacred the English garrison. In 1798 the French general, Humbert, held the town for a fortnight. Pop. (1881) 3855.

Castlecary, a market-town, with railway station, Somersetshire, 12½ miles NNE. of Yeovil. Pop. of parish, 2034.—Also a railway station, and old castle, 6½ miles SW. of Falkirk, Stirlingshire, near the site of one of the principal stations of Antoninus' Wall.

Castleford, a town in the West Riding of Yorkshire, on the Aire, 10 miles SE. of Leeds. It was a Roman station, and is now the seat of extensive glass-works, manufacturing especially large quantities of bottles. Pop. (1851) 2150; (1881) 10,530.

Castle Garden, originally Castle Clinton, a round fort (1807) built 300 yards out from the south end of Manhattan Island, was in 1824 converted into a place of amusement, in 1839 planted with trees, turf, and flowers, in 1847 again transformed into an opera-house, and in 1858 made the immigration depot of New York. Here steerage immigrants are landed, questioned on behalf of the official Commissioners, and advised where they are likely to find employment. This saves many from being cast adrift in the slums of New York. The officials speak all European tongues. The expenses are now defrayed by the state.

Castlemaine, a town of Victoria, 77 miles NNW. of Melbourne by rail. The gold diggings here were among the first discovered in Australia. Pop. (1881) 5787.

Castlereagh, ROBERT STEWART, VISCOUNT, was born 18th June 1769, the son of an Ulster proprietor, who in 1789 was created Baron Londonderry, in 1795 Viscount Castlereagh, in 1796 Earl, and in 1816 Marquis, of Londonderry. Robert was educated at Armagh, and, after a twelve-month at St John's College, Cambridge, was making the grand tour of Europe when in 1790 he was summoned home to enter the Irish parliament as Whig member for County Down—the election cost his father £60,000. He turned Tory in 1795, and next year became Keeper of the Privy Seal; but he continued a steadfast supporter of Catholic emancipation. Still, he believed that emancipation with an independent Irish parliament would mean simply a transference of tyranny from the Protestant oligarchy to a Catholic democracy; hence, as Chief-secretary from 1797, he bent his whole energies to forwarding Pitt's measure of Union. That measure was carried in 1800, largely through Castlereagh's skill in buying up the borough-mongers; but Pitt's pledges to the Catholics were defeated by George III.'s bigotry, and Castlereagh with Pitt retired from office.

Transferred by the Union from Dublin to Westminster, he accepted office in the weak Addington ministry (1802) as President of the Board of Control; but the true second era in his career was as War Minister under Pitt from July 1805 to January 1806, and again under Portland from April 1807 to September 1809. The bombardment of Copenhagen

and seizure of the Danish fleet, the extension of the war to the Peninsula, and selection of Wellesley for general, may be set off against the disastrous Walcheren expedition; and even that was a brilliant conception, marred only by the king's obstinacy in giving Lord Chatham the command. Anyhow, Castlereagh was made the scapegoat, and the shilly-shally behaviour of his colleagues caused him to challenge his great rival, Canning. On 21st September 1809 they met upon Putney Heath, and, at the second fire, Canning received a slight wound in the thigh, whilst Castlereagh escaped with the loss of a button.

His real greatness begins with March 1812, when, as Foreign Secretary under Lord Liverpool, he became the soul of the coalition against Napoleon, which, during the momentous campaigns of 1813-14, was kept together by him, and by him alone. 'Time,' Mr Green acknowledges, 'has long ago rendered justice to Castlereagh's political ability, disguised as it was to men of his own day by a curious infelicity of expression; and the instinctive good sense of Englishmen never showed itself more remarkably than in their preference at this crisis of his cool judgment, his high courage, his discernment, and his will, to the more showy brilliancy of Canning.' He represented England at the congresses of Chatillon and Vienna (q.v.) in 1814-15, at the treaty of Paris in 1815, at the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1818; and he was preparing to start for a congress at Verona, when, on 12th August 1822, in a fit of insanity, he committed suicide with a penknife at Fooks Cray, his Kentish seat.

England and Europe owe much to Castlereagh for the forty years' peace that succeeded Napoleon's downfall. Yet no statesman, save Strafford, was ever pursued with more rancorous hatred—a hatred that raised a shout of exultation as he was borne to his grave in Westminster Abbey. Mr Green notwithstanding, to many even at the present day he is still the cold-blooded repressor of the Irish rebellion, the 'executioner in enamel,' the sympathiser with the Holy Alliance, the tool of Metternich, Queen Caroline's persecutor, and the author of the Peterloo massacre and the coercive 'Six Acts' which, if the words of our former edition were true, 'will for ever stamp his name with infamy.' His failings have been exaggerated, his splendid services in diplomacy lost sight of or tardily recognised; but, in truth, as a minister, Lord Castlereagh was not lovable.

He had succeeded his father as second marquis in 1821, and leaving no issue by his accomplished wife, a daughter of the Earl of Buckinghamshire, whom he married in 1794, was himself succeeded by his half-brother, Sir Charles Stewart (1778-1854), a gallant soldier, a diplomatist, a statesman, a military historian, and the founder of Seaham Harbour. He it was who edited *Lord Castlereagh's Correspondence and Despatches* (12 vols. 1847-53), to which reference should be made, as also, with caution, to Sir Archibald Alison's *Lives of Lord Castlereagh and Sir Charles Stewart* (3 vols. 1861).

Castleton, the capital of the Peak district, Derbyshire, 10 miles NE. of Buxton. It is commanded, to the south, by the ruined castle of William Peveril, a natural son of the Conqueror. Pop. 650. See PEAK; and BRAEMAR for Castleton of Braemar.

Castletown (*Manx Balley Cashtal*), a seaport and former capital of the Isle of Man, on Castletown Bay, 11 miles SW. of Douglas by rail. Castle Rushen, now a prison, occupies the site of a Danish fortress of the 10th century, which was almost wholly demolished by Robert Bruce in 1313. The grounds of Rushen Abbey (11th century), near the station, are now market-gardens.

Hard by is the small building where the House of Keys assembled for about 170 years. Brewing, tanning, and lime-burning are carried on. Near Castletown is King William's College (1833), an Elizabethan pile, rebuilt after the fire of 1844, and enlarged in 1862. Pop. (1851) 2479; (1881) 2243.

Castor and Pollux, often called *Dioscuri* or 'sons of Zeus,' were according to Homer the sons of Leda and Tyndareus, and so brothers of Helen of Troy. Another tradition made both of them sons of Zeus and Leda; a third made only Pollux Zeus's son, and so alone immortal. Castor was famous for his skill in managing horses, Pollux for his powers in boxing. Both received divine honour at Sparta as patrons of travellers by sea; the Romans they assisted at the battle of Lake Regillus. One story tells that when Castor, the mortal, was killed, Pollux prayed Zeus to let him die with him, and was permitted either to live as his immortal son in Olympus, or to share his brother's fate and live one day in heaven with the gods, the other among the shades. Zeus placed the brothers amongst the stars as *Gemini*, and their names are attached to the principal stars in that constellation. Their names are also given to the electric phenomenon known as St Elmo's Fire.

Castoreum, a soft brown substance, of peculiar smell and taste, secreted by two pear-shaped glands, associated, but quite distinct from, the reproductive organs in both sexes of beaver. It is now used chiefly by perfumers, but was from the time of Hippocrates regarded as having a specific influence on the uterus, and esteemed as a soothing medicine in hysteria, catalepsy, cramp, and other spasmodic diseases. In commerce it appears in the two glandular sacs as removed from the animal. In Hudson Bay trade, ten pairs of glands used to be equal in value to one skin, and Russian castoreum was yet more valuable. See BEAVER.

Castoridae, a family of rodent mammals, in the squirrel-like section, represented by the genus *Castor* with a single species, the familiar Beaver (*Castor fiber*). The swimming habit, the massive skull, the rounded angle of the lower jaw, and the peculiar molar teeth are among the more distinctive characters. See BEAVER.

Castor-oil, a fixed oil obtained from the seeds of the castor-oil plant. In extracting the oil, the seeds are first bruised between heavy rollers, and then pressed in hempen bags under a hydraulic or screw press. The best variety of oil is thus obtained by pressure in the cold, and is known as *cold-drawn* castor-oil; but if the bruised and pressed seeds be afterwards steamed or heated, and again pressed, a second quality of oil is obtained, which is apt to become partially solid or frozen in cold weather. In either case, the crude oil is heated with water to 212° (100° C.), which coagulates, and separates the albumen and other impurities. Exposure to the sun's light bleaches the oil, and this process is still resorted to, but since the introduction of the nearly tasteless Italian castor-oil, which in itself is almost colourless, there is not the same demand for the bleached article. When pure and cold drawn, castor-oil is of a light-yellow colour; but when of inferior quality, it has a greenish, and occasionally a brownish tinge. It is somewhat thick and viscid. Its specific gravity is high for an oil, being about .960. It is miscible with alcohol or spirits of wine and ether. Reduced to a temperature of 0° (-18° C.), it does not become solid; but exposed to the air, it very slowly becomes rancid, then dry and hard, and serves as a connecting link between the drying and non-drying oils. The commoner qualities have a nauseous smell, and an acrid, disagreeable, and sickening taste, but the fine medicinal article is frequently almost free from

those objectionable properties. Repeated attempts have been made to obtain from it an active principle, to which it might owe its purgative properties, but without success. It, however, contains a peculiar oily acid, called Ricinoleic Acid, $C_{18}H_{34}O_2$.

Castor-oil is one of the most convenient and mildest of purgative medicines. Given in doses of one or two tea-spoonfuls, it forms a gentle laxative for those who are easily acted on by medicine; while a dose of a table-spoonful, or a little more, will almost always succeed if it remains on the stomach. The only serious objections to the use of castor-oil are its flavour and the sickness often produced by it. It may be administered floating on peppermint or cinnamon water, or on coffee, or shaken up with glycerine. But the most effectual plan for disguising the disagreeable flavour is to inclose it in thin gelatin capsules, holding as much as a tea-spoonful or more.

The adulterations of castor-oil may be various. Several of the fixed oils, including lard, may be employed. The best test of its purity is its complete solubility in its own volume of absolute alcohol. It is used also as a lubricant, and in India for burning in lamps. Croton-oil is occasionally added.

CASTOR-OIL PLANT (*Ricinus communis*; natural order Euphorbiaceæ) is a native of India, but now



Castor-oil Plant (*Ricinus communis*).

naturalised in most tropical, subtropical, and even warm temperate countries. It is known in the Mediterranean countries as *Palma Christi*. It is also found in cultivation even in northern Europe, where, however, it is only annual. Under these circumstances it attains a height of 4 to 6 or more feet, while in warmer climates it becomes a small tree. The flowers are comparatively inconspicuous, in monœcious racemes, but the foliage is peculiarly handsome. There are a large number of varieties, many described as distinct species.

Castrametation is the art of forming a Camp (q.v.).

Castration is the method by which animals, both male and female, are deprived of parts of their generative organs (testicles and ovaries). They are in consequence rendered more valuable for working purposes, and also tend to grow and fatten much more quickly for the butcher. A castrated horse is called a gelding; a castrated bull, a bullock or steer (Scotch, 'stot'); a castrated boar, a pig; and a castrated ram, a wether. These are the ordinary male animals operated on in this country, but occasionally cocks are castrated, and are then called capons. Castration of females is called 'spaying,' and is frequently performed upon sows, which are then called gilts. In the male animal, after he has been properly secured, an incision is made into the testicular sac, and each testicle removed, either by torsion, by actual cautery, by caustic clam, or by scraping the cord. In the female animal an incision

is made in the right flank, and each ovary removed through the opening, which is then stitched up. The operation is followed by several dangers, such as blood-poisoning, lock-jaw, hernia, hemorrhage, scirrhus cord, &c. See EUNUCH; also Dr A. Liutard's *Animal Castration* (trans. 1884).

Castren, MATHIAS ALEXANDER, the founder of Ural-Altaian philology, was born in 1813 at Tervola in the north of Finland. He received his earliest instruction in the town of Tornea, and afterwards studied at Helsingfors (1830-36). In 1838 he undertook a pedestrian excursion through Finnish Lapland, in order to extend his knowledge of the language and literature; and, in 1839, another through Karelia, to collect ballads, legends, &c., illustrative of Finnish mythology. On his return, he published in Swedish a translation of the great Finnish epic, the *Kalevala* (q.v.). During 1841-45, conjointly with Lönnrot, he prosecuted his researches among the Finnish, Russian, and Norwegian Laplanders, as also among the European and Siberian Samoyeds; whilst, as linguist and ethnographer to the St Petersburg Academy, he, between the years 1845 and 1849, extended his laborious investigations as far east as China, and as far north as the Arctic Ocean. On his return he was appointed professor of the Finnish language and literature at the university of Helsingfors. He employed himself in preparing for publication the vast materials which he had collected, but died 7th May 1852, from exhaustion—a martyr to science. The six works published before, and the twelve after his death, are mostly in Swedish, but the greater number have been translated into German. They include accounts of his travels, lectures on Finnish mythology and the Altaian races, grammars, vocabularies, &c. See his *Life* by J. W. Snellman (1870). A son, Robert Castren (1851-83), wrote several monographs on Finnish history.

Castres, a town in the French department of Tarn, is situated on both sides of the river Agout, 46 miles (72 by rail) E. of Toulouse. It rose up around a Benedictine abbey, which was founded in 647; and in the 16th century it became a Huguenot stronghold, but its fortifications were demolished in 1629. The present town has beautiful promenades, shaded by fine alleys of trees, a quondam cathedral, and important manufactures of fine wool dyed goods, as also manufactures of leather, paper, soap, &c. Pop. (1872) 18,177; (1886) 22,098.

Castri. See DELPHI.

Castro, the modern name of the capital of several islands of the Grecian Archipelago—Lesbos, Samothrace, Melos, Lemnos, &c.

Castro, GUILLÉN DE, a Spanish dramatist, in the judgment of Voltaire the writer of the first true tragedy that had appeared in modern Europe, was born in Valencia in 1569, and was at one time commander of a Neapolitan fortress. In his later years he lived in Madrid, and was on intimate terms with Lope de Vega; but his sour temper lost him many friends, and he is said to have died in abject poverty in 1631. Castro's memory has been chiefly preserved by his authorship of *Las Mocedades del Cid*, to the first part of which Corneille was indebted for the plot and many of the beauties of his celebrated tragedy. The second part of the *Mocedades* has few passages that rise above mediocrity; and his other plays are badly constructed, and chiefly distinguished for their intensely national spirit. See Lord Holland's *Lives of Lope de Vega and Guillén de Castro* (vol. ii. 1817).

Castro, INES DE, the daughter of a Spanish nobleman, in 1340 came to Portugal in the train of her cousin, Costança, the bride of the young Infante, Dom Pedro. Her beauty captivated him,

and, after Costança's death in 1345, he made her his mistress, in 1354 his wife. The secret of the marriage was revealed to his father, Alfonso IV.; and with his consent the hapless Ines was stabled to death in January 1355. In 1360, three years after Alfonso's death, Pedro executed two of the three murderers with horrible tortures, whilst the corpse of Ines herself, clad in royal attire, was seated on a throne, and received homage as queen. So, at least, runs the tradition, immortalised by Camoens; but all that is certain is that her body was reinterred with great splendour at Alcobaça.

Castro, JOÃO DE, a famous Portuguese soldier and traveller, born at Lisbon in 1500. In his boyhood he showed a remarkable aptitude for study, but at eighteen he chose for himself a life of adventure by volunteering against the Moors at Tangiers. He next accompanied Charles V. to Tunis, and had already fought and travelled in the East, when in 1545 he sailed to the Indies at the head of a small expedition. Here he covered himself with glory by the overthrow of the Mohammedans, and by the heroic relief and defence of Diu. For these exploits he was appointed Portuguese viceroy, but did not live to enjoy the dignity, dying in the arms of Francis Xavier in June 6, 1548. His *Life*, by Andrada (1651), was translated into English in 1664.

Castro del Rio, a town of Andalusia, Spain, situated on the Guadalquivir, 23 miles SE. of Cordova. It has manufactures of woollen and linen fabrics, earthenware, &c., and considerable trade in agricultural produce. Pop. 10,261.

Castrogiovanni, a town in the middle of Sicily, 56 miles E. of Catania by rail, on a remarkable fertile plateau, which rises precipitously to a height of 3270 feet above sea-level. Castrogiovanni occupies the site of the ancient *Enna*, of which Ceres was the presiding goddess, and here was her most famous temple. The neighbourhood was the fabled scene of the rape of Proserpine. In connection with the Punic and Servile wars, Enna played a conspicuous part in early history. A castle and other buildings of Saracenic origin are still standing. Pop. 18,450.

Castro Urdiales, a town on the north coast of Spain, on a rocky headland, 30 miles ESE. of Santander, with a safe roadstead. Pop. 7623.

Castrovillari, a town of South Italy, 34 miles N. of Cosenza, on an eminence surrounded by mountains. It has a trade in wine, manna, silk, &c. Pop. 10,505.

Castruccio-Castracani, born near Lucca in 1281, became famous as a soldier of fortune abroad, and gained glory as a Ghibelline leader. In 1327 he was made Duke of Lucca, and died in 1328.

Cast-steel. See IRON, STEEL.

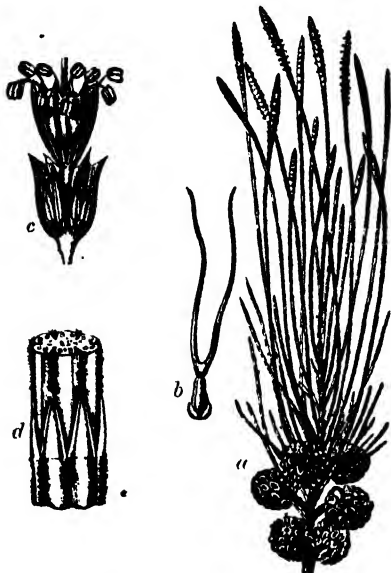
Castue'ra, a town of Estremadura, Spain, 68 miles ESE. of Badajoz. Pop. 6869.

Casual Poor are persons temporarily relieved without being admitted to the roll of permanent paupers. See POOR-LAWS.

Casualties of Superiority, in the feudal law of Scotland, are such emoluments arising to the superior as depend on uncertain events. The casualties of ward, marriage, and recognition were abolished along with the military tenure of Wardholding (q.v.), of which they were incidents, shortly after the Jacobite rebellions. The casualties of non-entry, relief or composition, and Escheat (q.v.) still exist along with the tenures of feu and blench, of which they are incidents. The Conveyancing Act of 1874, however, abolishes legal casualties (i.e. irrespective of agreement) in feus granted after 1874, and prohibits even conventional casualties unless they are of fixed amount, payable at fixed

intervals. The name casualty is therefore now inappropriate. The same statute provides for the compulsory redemption of casualties by the feuar; the superior, however, may decide whether he will take a lump payment or an additional feu-duty.

Casuarina, a peculiar genus of Amentaceae, forming the sub-order Casuarineae, of which the position was long problematical, and to which some still give ordinal rank. Of the 30 species, the great majority are restricted to Australia and the adjacent islands. *C. equisetifolia*, the Swanp



Branch of *Casuarina equisetifolia*:

With male and female flowers, the former in catkins at the end of the shoots, the latter (a) crowded in cone-like heads. At b, note single female flower, and at c, a group of male flowers. A section of the fluted stem, with reduced leaves, is represented at d.

Oak of Australia, or Iron-wood of early voyagers to the South Sea Islands, has, however, a more extended range. Some of them are large trees, producing timber of excellent quality, hard and heavy, the *Beef-wood* of the Australian colonists, so called from the resemblance in colour to raw beef. *C. quadrivalvis* is the She Oak of New South Wales, and *C. torulosa* the Forest Oak of Queensland. Thousands of acres of what were sand-dunes on the coast of Chengalpat (Madras) are now occupied by plantations of casuarinas. Cassowary Tree is a popular generic name of the Casuarinae. Some of the species are scrubby bushes, and all of them have a very peculiar appearance, their branches being long, slender, wiry, drooping, green, jointed, with very small scale-like sheaths instead of leaves. They thus curiously resemble arborescent Equisetaceae.

Casulistry, in the widest sense, is the reasoning which enables a man to decide in a particular case between conflicting, or apparently conflicting, duties. Against casuistry so understood no reasonable objection can be raised. Instances of it may be found in the gospels (Matt. xxii. 17; Luke, xiv. 3), in the epistles of St Paul (e.g. 1 Cor. vii. viii. x.), and in the early fathers. Indeed, St Augustine, in his little works, *De Mendacio* and *Contra Mendacium*, may be said to have written casuistical treatises. Gradually, however, casuistry developed within the Catholic Church to an extent which is nothing less than a change in kind, and

must radically affect the judgment formed of its merits or demerits. First of all, the ecclesiastical canons became more and more elaborate in their enumeration and classification of grave offences, for which certain definite punishments were due, and, more and more, what had been at first a public discipline was transferred to the court of conscience. Only, it was not the individual conscience which passed sentence in place of the bishop's court. The sins were submitted to the judgment of the priest in secret confession, and for this purpose he was bound to provide himself with a 'penitential book'—i.e. with a summary of the penalties attached to particular sins by the law of the church. These books were in use from the 7th to the 13th century. Another great change occurred in 1215, when the fourth Lateran Council made the confession of every mortal sin to the priest a matter of obligation on all Christians. Then, and not till then, casuistry, in the modern sense, began to be. It is generally known among Roman Catholics as 'moral theology,' and may be defined as the science of the confessional. It professes to decide on the nature of all possible actions, to determine when any particular action is sinful or innocent, to distinguish between binding duty and that which is praiseworthy but not obligatory. It weighs motives and intentions, decides the relative gravity of sins, and the aggravating or extenuating circumstances attending them. Instead of stepping in like the casuistry of the early Christians in doubtful cases, it undertakes to regulate all moral action, covering the whole extent of life and entering into each detail. Instead of giving a list of legal punishments imposed by the church, it anticipates the judgment of God in the world to come. This of course requires an examination of actions in detail, which is often ludicrous or repulsive, always unreasonable. Does a man who steals four shillings commit a mortal sin or only a venial one? In other words, is he liable thereby to the punishment of hell or only of purgatory? Does a man who blasphemes twenty saints at once commit twenty sins, or only one? Are we bound under mortal sin to pray once a month, or only once a year? Such are the questions discussed in every manual of casuistry. They are settled by Scripture, reason, the canons of the church, and the opinion of eminent theologians. A further development dates from the introduction of the system known as Probabilism, first propounded by a Spanish Dominican, Molina (1528-81). It rests upon the theory that the moral law does not bind in cases when it is doubtful, and that it may be considered doubtful if the theologians of name have denied that it binds in the particular cases. We have only to consider the endless discussions which these theologians have raised on points of practice, to form some idea of the laxity to which this system leads. Adopted by most of the Jesuits, it was hated 'as a pest of morality' in France, where it was exposed in the Provincial Letters of Pascal, and condemned by the General Assembly of the clergy in 1700. But since the French Revolution it has obtained an exclusive supremacy in the Roman Catholic Church, and at this day no other system is ever thought of.

The name of casuists is legion. The *Summa de Casibus Penitentiaibus*, by St Raymond of Pennafort, is among the earliest works on the subject. He flourished about 1228, and his book was followed by a multitude of others with similar titles. The highest authority was attained by St Alfonso Liguori, who wrote in the middle of the 18th century; and the 'Sacred Penitentiary' at Rome has declared that every confessor may safely follow all his opinions. Modern manuals, chiefly based on Liguori, have been written by Scavini,

Gury (annotated by Ballerini), Lehmkuhl, and others. The objections which Luther made, and which Protestants still feel, to the casuistry described above, are directed against its radical principle and not merely its details. The New Testament, they think, teaches that a man is justified by surrendering himself entirely to God through Christ, and it knows nothing of an elaborate system of law, of which a minimum must be observed as the condition of salvation. They believe that a man's own conscience, enlightened by Christian teaching and example, will generally leave him in little doubt as to his duty, and they object to the constant discussion of moral questions, to the desire to ascertain how little we are bound to do, as ruinous to the moral sense. They deny that the subtleties of a pretended science can ever gauge the amount of sin involved in a particular action. God alone can distinguish between the sudden fall which happens in spite of a man's real character and the sin which reveals his inner corruption. Above all, they object that the so-called science must needs rest in the hands of the priests, and that practically a layman must cease in great measure to have a conscience of his own. A few Protestants—e.g. Jeremy Taylor, and the Puritans Perkins and Amesius—have produced casuistical books, but they deal with cases of special difficulty, and are not in the same sphere as the Roman casuistry. Besides, such Protestant works are now forgotten, and common sense has recognised the fact long ago that any elements of utility in casuistical discussion may be safely relegated to ethics and pastoral theology.

Casus Belli, an occasion of war, is the reason alleged by one power for going to war with another. It is quite impossible to reduce these causes or reasons to any definite code; enough, that in 1870 King Wilhelm's cold-shoulder to M. Benedetti was a *casus belli* between France and Germany, and that in 1847 the burning of a Jew's bedstead at Athens was all but one between France and Britain.

Cat, a name applied to various species of the genus *Felis*, in the family *Felidae*, and in the *aluroid* section of *carnivora*. This *aluroid* section includes the most specialised carnivores; and the members of the genus *Felis*, including lion and tiger, panther and cat, exhibit carnivorous characteristics in their highest perfection.

General Characters of Cats.—The canine teeth of *Felidae* are large and strong, the true molar teeth reduced to one on each jaw, the molar of the lower jaw and the last premolar of the upper jaw function as special cutting (sectorial) teeth, the face portion of the skull is short and broad, the auditory bone bullae (bullae) are large, rounded, smooth, and divided by an internal septum. The feline carnivores walk on the tips of their toes, in *digitigrade* fashion; the claws are large, strong, sharp, and completely retractile. The iris is very movable, and the aperture contracts to a vertical slit. The tongue is covered with sharp rough papillae. The caecum on the intestine is small and simple. There are many other more technical structural characters. The *Felidae* are conspicuously carnivorous in their diet. Domestic cats eat fish when they can get it; and the Indian Fishing-cat (*F. viverrina*) feeds on fish and even molluscs. They hunt alone and stealthily, surprising their victim by a sudden spring, loving darkness, hating water, and in most cases are more or less arboreal.

Species.—The genus *Felis* includes some fifty species, the distinctions of which are somewhat difficult. Among the Old-World species, the most familiar are the lion, tiger, leopard or panther, ounce, wild cat (*F. catus*), and domestic cat.

Among the New-World species, the puma, cougar or American panther (*F. concolor*), the jaguar, the pardal (*F. pardalis*), the pampas cat, are common forms. The term *lynx* is applied to several different species, and the name cat is used with equal width. The Cheetah (q.v.) is often regarded as a distinct genus.

Wild Cat.—The Wild Cat (*F. catus*) found in the woods of Europe was common in England in the middle ages, when abbesses were forbidden to use fur more costly than that of lambs or cats. It lingered on till the beginning of this century, was still known in Wales about 1850, and is not yet extinct in the north of Scotland. It is the



Wild Cat.

opinion of specialists that the true wild cat never existed in Ireland. It is now very rare in France, apparently absent in Scandinavia, but still common in Southern Russia and in the wilder parts of Germany, Switzerland, Spain, Hungary, Dalmatia, Turkey, &c. It is stronger and larger than the house cat, with stouter head, shorter and thicker tail, more abundant whiskers, and in the male with deep black soles. The predominant colour is yellowish gray, a dark stripe runs along the back, darkish stripes down the sides, cross bands on the legs, and rings on the tail. It is very savage in disposition. The female has its litter in a hollow tree or rock cleft. Though a large number of the 50 species of *Felis* have received special popular titles, like lion, tiger, ounce, &c., there remain a large number to which the title 'wild cat' is quite as applicable as it is to the more familiar *F. catus* of Europe.

Domestic Cat—History.—Our common cat, familiar in many varieties of colour, is not a tamed descendant of this Wild Cat (*F. catus*), but seems, like other domestic animals, to have come from the East. It is usually, though not indeed with absolute certainty, regarded as the descendant of the Egyptian Cat (*F. caligata* or *maniculata*), which was certainly domesticated in Egypt thirteen centuries B.C. That the tanning should have taken place in the 'granary of the ancient world' is very natural. From Egypt the domestic cat spread through Europe, certainly before the Christian era, but at first sparsely, and confined to those who could afford a high price for the pet. It is quite possible that other species may have been domesticated elsewhere, and have mingled with the Egyptian breed. Rolleston and others have believed that the domestic mouse-killer of the ancient Greeks and Romans was not the cat at all, but the white-breasted Marten (*Mustela foina*), for which *felis* is good Latin.

In the middle ages cats were often kept in nunneries, and this may have something to do with their traditional association with old maids. Of its rarity in Britain in former times, when the wild cat was common in all the woods which

covered so much of the island, a curious evidence is afforded by a Welsh law quoted by Pennant—a law of the reign of Howel the Good, who died in 938 A.D.—fixing the prices of cats according to their age and qualities, beginning with a price for a kitten before it could see, and enacting that if any one stole or killed the cat that guarded the prince's granary, he was to forfeit a milch ewe, its fleece and lamb; or as much wheat as when poured on the body, suspended by its tail, the head touching the floor, would form a heap high enough to cover the tip of the tail.

Varieties.—The varieties of domestic cat, though numerous, are trivial, and concern colour and quality of fur, not differences of form as in the case of dogs. Thus we have (1) black cats with clear yellow eyes, usually with a few white hairs, and with hints of markings in the kittens; (2) white cats, sometimes with blue eyes, and then generally deaf; (3) tabby cats, like the wild species, and perhaps the result of crossing with the same; (4) gray cats, which are rare, and differ from the tabby forms in having no black stripes, except the common ones over the fore-legs; (5) tortoise-shell, fawn-coloured, and mottled with black, usually females; (6) sandy-coloured, usually males. A true tortoise-shell tom-cat fetches a big price. The royal Siamese cat is fawn-coloured, with blue eyes and small head; the Carthusian or blue cat has long dark grayish-blue fur, with black lips and soles; the Angora or Persian cat is large, finely furred, generally white, tending to yellow or gray, and possibly derived from an Asiatic species. The Malay cat, in Pegu, Siam, and Burma, has a tail only half the normal length; the Manx cat of the Isle of Man is tailless and has longer hind-legs. Long-tailed forms, probably due to intercrossing, also occur in Manksland, and curtailed forms occur in the Crimea. No cats with pendent ears exist, in spite of frequent statements to the contrary. In South America, not to mention other varieties, there is said to be a race of cats which do not 'caterwaul' at nights, and Professor Mivart justly remarks that 'it is to be wished that this breed could be introduced into this country.' Abnormalities, such as absent fore-limbs and the like, have been repeatedly recorded.

Characteristics.—The domestic cat is too well known to require description. It has been known to attain a weight of 23 lb., and an age of eighteen years. Though thoroughly domesticated, it retains many characteristics of wildness, especially in its private hunting expeditions, nocturnal amatory wanderings, unsocial habits, and generally self-centred, not entirely confident disposition. When turned out in the woods, it usually adapts itself readily. Domestication has had a different influence on cat and on dog, and the former may be fairly said to have surrendered itself less. In normal surroundings it is an expert hunter or stalker of birds and small mammals, and is often known to bring home rabbits; at the same time it has a marked predilection for food which it could not obtain if wild—e.g. milk, cheese, fish, and the like. Its sense of smell has probably degenerated, but is still very sensitive to certain favourite odours. The great dilatibility of the pupil enables it to make the most of feeble light. The cat is very prolific, mature by the end of her first year, fecund till the ninth, bringing forth often three or four times in a year. It is not necessary to say anything about its familiar purring, mewling, and spitting; about its aversion to water and love of warmth; its scrupulous and painstaking cleanliness; about its dexterous movements and patient watching for prey; or about the delight in cruelty (comparatively rare in other animals) which characterises its treatment of captured mice. The dry fur, free from any

oily matter and readily injured by water, becomes highly electric by friction, especially in dry or frosty weather.

Intelligence.—In cats the senses of sight, hearing, and touch are very highly developed, and the intelligence is proportionately great. That they exhibit great adroitness in catching their prey is well known, but the climax is reached in certain recorded cases where a young bird was used as a decoy for its parents, and where crumbs were scattered or scraped from beneath the snow to attract sparrows. That they bring zoological curiosities to their mistresses, that they may learn without teaching to 'beg' like dogs for food, that they show for a while considerable interest in the looking-glass problem are not unfamiliar facts, while more rarely they have been known to combine reasoning and manual dexterity in opening thumb-latches, working knockers, ringing bells, or even turning an easy lock. Mr Romanes has collected illustrations of the above, and closes his account with the remarkable case of a cat which, being accidentally ignited by paraffin, ran 100 yards and plunged into a trough of water. See his *Animal Intelligence* (1882).

Emotions.—The sexual emotions of cats are well known to be very strong, and their maternal kindness and solicitude are equally pronounced. From the time of Buffon, the cat has been usually reproached for liking places more than persons, but while there is much truth in the familiar observation, many cases of genuine fondness for owners are well known. They sometimes show great power of finding their way home under the impulse of home-sickness, and often show much careful love in concealing and transplanting their young. The case of a cat which ran for help for an endangered parrot friend, and of another which exhibited great solicitude about kittens—not its own—which had been accidentally buried under flooring, are at once suggestive and beautiful.

Diseases.—Besides being subject to common diseases like catarrh, diarrhoea, distemper, &c., cats are not unfrequently infested by parasites, either externally, as by the itch mite (*Sarcoptes cati*), causing swelling and baldness, and by fleas, or internally, by threadworms and tapeworms, and by the aberrant *Pentastomum*. Fits of vomiting are often due to small threadworms (*Ascaris mystax*) in the stomach, and *Ollulanis tricuspis*, another nematode, is even more important. The bladderworms of mice and rats become the tapeworms of the cat.

Superstitions regarding Cats.—Cats have been objects of superstition from the earliest ages. In Egypt they were held in the highest reverence; temples were erected in their honour; sacrifices and devotions were offered to them; and it was customary for the family in whose house a cat died to shave their eyebrows. In the middle ages, they were regarded as the familiars of witches. The favourite shape of Satan was said to be that of a black cat, and the animal was an object of dread instead of veneration. There is or was a belief among sailors, that the frolics of a cat at sea portended a storm. Many people still prophesy rainy weather from a cat washing over its ears or simply its face; and a cat-call on the house-top was formerly held to signify death. Their assumed connection with witches, and the belief that a cat has nine lives, have led to the perpetration of great cruelties upon this harmless and very useful domestic animal (see Brand's *Popular Antiquities*, Ellis's revised edition).

Importance.—As a destroyer of vermin the cat is of no little economic importance, and the connection (through field-mice and humble-bees) between cats and clover crops is one of the stock

instances of far-reaching influence. The more cats the fewer field-mice is evident enough; but as the latter ravage humble-bee nests and combs, we may say, the more cats the more humble-bees; but as the bees carry the fertilising dust from one purple clover flower to another, and as this fertilisation is essential to the perfecting of the crop of seeds, we may read the complex relation again, as Darwin has pointed out, connect the two extremes in saying the more cats the larger purple clover crop. It need hardly be said that the fur and skin are also utilised. Most people will be inclined to allow, however, that even apart from their utility, cats justify their existence as domestic pets. See Professor St George Mivart's valuable monograph, *The Cat* (1880), on which the materials of the present article is largely based; and for anecdotes about the cat, Champfleury's *Cats Past and Present*, translated by Mrs Cashel Hoey (1885).

Cataclysmal Action, a term applied by geologists to the effects or destructive power of sudden deluges or debacles, which are supposed by some writers to have swept over certain countries.

Catacombs. An English traveller recording his impressions of a visit to Rome about the year 1450 writes thus: 'This same Cathacumbas is a marvelous name, for it is not expounded in our Latyne bookes, ne non of the grammariones touch this word thus compouned' (Bodleian MS.). Though this can no longer be said, the etymology of the word still remains doubtful. It occurs first in a Christian calendar of the end of the 3d century, or beginning of the 4th. In this calendar the feast of St Fabian on the 20th of January is set down as being celebrated in *Callisti*, the feast of St Sebastian on the same day in *Catacumbas*, thereby denoting two adjacent subterranean cemeteries on the Via Appia, about two miles out of Rome, where those two martyrs lay buried. The same designation is repeated in this and similar documents, and always to mark the same place, the cemetery in the neighbourhood of the church of St Sebastian. This cemetery remained always known and accessible even when all others of the same kind on other sides of Rome had been totally lost sight of and forgotten. Hence, on their rediscovery in the 16th century, a visit to the cemeteries having long become synonymous with a visit *ad Catacumbas*, the local name came to be regarded as the specific name of all subterranean excavations used for purposes of burial, not only in the neighbourhood of Rome, but also in Naples, Malta, Paris, Sicily, and wherever else similar excavations have been found.

We shall confine ourselves to an account of the *Roman* catacombs as being incomparably the most important. They are to be found on almost all the roads leading out of the city at a distance of 2 or 3 miles outside the walls, wherever the nature of the soil allowed of their being made. This soil is of volcanic origin, too soft to be used for building purposes, yet of sufficient consistency to admit of a considerable amount of excavations without the necessity for supports or substruction of any kind. More than forty of these cemeteries are known to have existed, and two-thirds of these were of considerable extent. They may have begun, indeed, in a very limited area (280 by 100 feet), but subsequent additions extended them tenfold. There is no truth, however, in the idle reports of a perfect connection between all the cemeteries, making them to reach for many miles together; though it is perfectly certain that if the galleries (which continually cross and recross, and are repeated in some places four or five times beneath one another) could be extended in a straight line, they would reach, at least, 300 or 400 miles.

It was once a subject of constant discussion among Christian archaeologists how a work of this



Plan of the Catacomb of St Agnes, Rome.

kind could have been carried on by the faithful during times of persecution, but modern scientific researches have solved the difficulty. We know, on the one hand, that from the earliest times the burial of the dead was looked upon by the Christians as an important act of religion, accompanied by the prayers of the church, and intrusted to her ministers, and it was one of the objects to which the alms of the faithful were devoted, and for which it was considered lawful even to sell the sacred vessels. On the other hand, the Roman law fenced round with peculiar privileges all places of burial, even though they contained only the bodies of slaves or criminals. Such places became *ipso facto* religious. They could not be sold, or in any way alienated from their original purpose, and the severest penalties were inflicted upon those who in any way violated them. Moreover, it was the custom of the wealthier Romans to provide



A Gallery with Tombs.

chambers at their places of burial for the entertainment of guests who resorted there on certain fixed days in the year; and the poorer members of society secured the same results by means of burial clubs, which were specially protected by the law even when all other voluntary associations were strictly forbidden. It is possible that the Christians availed themselves of this most convenient screen for their own meetings from the very earliest times.

It is certain that they did so from the end of the 2d century. Some of the chambers found in the catacombs were manifestly nothing more than family vaults, as the inscriptions themselves testify, whilst others again, it is equally manifest from their very form and arrangements, were designed for public worship. Some of these may occasionally have been used as hiding-places by the bishops, or others, special objects of persecution, but it is quite impossible that they could ever have been used as general places of concealment.

There is abundant evidence, both literary and monumental, that at first the Christians made no attempt to conceal their cemeteries. They did but exercise their undoubted right to bury instead of burning the bodies of their dead, and they used a mode of burial already familiar to the Jews, and not altogether unknown even among the pagans. Neither did the Roman government interfere in any way with the catacombs at their first beginnings, nor so long as they were confined to their original use as places of burial. The first decree recorded against them is by Valerian, 253 A.D., who forbade the Christians 'to assemble in those places which they call cemeteries.' In the following year his edict was revoked, and during the next fifty years the catacombs come before us in successive periods of church history as enjoying good or evil fortune, according to the varying fortunes of the church herself; they were tolerated or forbidden according to the changing will of the government, until at last, before the end of the 3d century, they were altogether confiscated. We learn from St Cyprian that Pope Sixtus II., with some of his deacons, were surprised and martyred whilst in the act of celebrating the holy mysteries in the catacombs of Pretextatus, and the charge on which he was condemned was distinctly this, that he had set at nought the commands of Valerian. When the persecution of Diocletian ended, the catacombs were restored together with the rest of ecclesiastical property to the Bishop of Rome, and in the year 311 Pope Melchiodes sent an important rescript commanding this restitution, by the hands of some of his deacons, to the prefect of the city. From this time, if not somewhat earlier, other Christian cemeteries were made above ground instead of below, and during the next hundred years both modes of burial were in use. During the last forty years of the 4th century, the practice of burial in the catacombs was considerably diminished, and at the end of the first decade of the next century it ceased altogether.

When the ages of persecution ceased, a new era opened in the history of the catacombs. The basilicas which Constantine began to build over the tombs of some of the principal martyrs necessarily involved considerable interference with the adjacent graves. Moreover, there was a great desire among the faithful to secure places of burial as near as possible to the tombs of the martyrs; and this again could not be gratified without injury to the decorations, if not to the walls themselves, of the existing chambers and galleries. Pope Damasus in the latter half of the 4th century yielded to no man in his enthusiastic love of the martyrs, but his zeal was tempered by an intelligent prudence. He tells us himself of his desire to be buried with his predecessors, but that he denied himself the indulgence of this wish because it would involve the disturbance of other men's graves. (*Hic fuleor Damasus volui mea condere membra, sed cineres timui sanctos vezare piorum*). Yet even he was forced to make some changes in the internal arrangements of the catacombs. Christian pilgrims from all lands flocked to them in such numbers, that to prevent both scandals and accidents it was essential that wider and

more convenient entrances should be made, some passages of the subterranean labyrinth shut up, and others made more easy of access. Besides this, he ornamented with marble, and even with the precious metals, some of the more important tombs. Perhaps this helped in the end the destruction of these venerable sanctuaries. It was probably a hope of finding treasure that led the Goths to enter and ransack these places when they invaded Rome in 557. The Lombards made still greater havoc in 756, so that immediately afterwards Pope Paul I., pathetically lamenting the work of desecration, caused the bodies of the martyrs to be removed for safety's sake to churches within the city. This work of translation of relics was continued by some of Paul's successors until the middle of the next century (848).

Practically the living history of the catacombs may be said to have now come to an end. Efforts were made by some of the popes to keep alive an interest in them, and when basilicas had been built over them some were still occasionally visited, but generally they were neglected and forgotten. Seven centuries later (May 31, 1578) an accidental landslip brought them to light, and they soon attracted universal attention. One man in particular, Antonio Bosio, devoted his whole life to examining them at great personal risk, and to studying all ancient documents which promised to throw light on their history, but he did not live to complete or publish his work. It appeared at last in 1632, and in the space of less than forty years afterwards it was reproduced either in translations or abridgments eight successive times, in Italian, in Latin, and in German. This work, from the consummate learning and scrupulous honesty of its author, has always remained a standard authority. The intervening centuries until our own day have only added supplementary works illustrating some portions of the subject in detail, but not adding much to our knowledge of the whole. At length, after the lapse of 250 years, another author, De Rossi, has arisen who has devoted a yet longer time to the study of the catacombs, and has resumed the work of Bosio with the same honesty of purpose, and with the assistance of the lights accumulated by more than two centuries of historical, critical, and archaeological research, has given to the public the most magnificent results of new discoveries. These have appeared in three folio volumes in 1864, 1867, and 1877. A whole series of abridgments in English, French, and German have also been published, and numerous pages of history hitherto unstudied and altogether unknown have been recovered for general use. It has been a special object with De Rossi's investigations to settle the chronology of the various parts of the catacombs, and in this he has succeeded so wonderfully that, as Mommsen truly says 'the successive execution of individual parts of the whole plan may now be traced in periods of two to ten years; and by this means it has become possible to obtain a chronological precision, not only with regard to epigraphy, but also to painting and many other branches of archaeology, such as it would be impossible to arrive at in any other field of archaeological research.' The history of early Christian art may now be traced with great accuracy, and different stages of its progress and decay be marked, even within the limits of the pre-Constantinian era.

At first the Christians decorated their sepulchral chambers much in the same style as their pagan neighbours did. The roof was divided into geometrical figures by means of lines or garlands of flowers, and the spaces were filled with birds, flowers, winged genii, and other graceful figures, so that the spectator might almost doubt whether he was looking on a pagan or a Christian work

until he recognised in the centre the figure of the Good Shepherd, or of Daniel among the lions, or some other Christian subject. By degrees a more decidedly Christian character was given to the decorations, and a few subjects both from the Old and New Testament were repeated over and over again, instead of the innocent but unmeaning ornaments which had preceded them. Among these subjects the Good Shepherd was by far the most frequent; Noah in the ark, Moses striking the rock, Daniel in the lions' den, the history of Jonah, multiplication of the loaves and fishes, and the resurrection of Lazarus, follow next in order of frequency; and in later times Adam and Eve, the Three Children in the fiery furnace, and the adoration of the Magi make their appearance. To these must be added certain subjects symbolical rather than historical, such as the vine, a man fishing, the fish and the anchor, fish and bread placed in various relations to one another, &c. It is not difficult to see the hidden teaching of these pictorial lessons: they point to the resurrection, to a new and glorious life as the fruit of a new life imparted to the soul in this world through the sacrament of baptism, and fed and nourished by the Holy Eucharist. In some instances these subjects are arranged round the walls in so orderly a succession as almost to assume the form of a dogmatic pictorial catechism. More commonly, however, there is no such precise arrangement, but each subject stands by itself, unintelligible to a pagan intruder, but suggesting holy and instructive thoughts to all the faithful. Everything which belonged to the cycle of polytheistic worship was from the first rigorously excluded, but towards the end of the 2d century, or beginning of the 3d, they did not scruple to use, but very rarely, such figures as Orpheus and Psyche, which were capable of a Christian interpretation, and in the middle and latter half of the 3d century they used the head of Oceanus, Iris, Hippocampi, and even Tritons, to represent parts of the earth or of the sea, the rainbow, the seasons, &c.

The Christian art of the pre-Constantinian era has been divided into three periods. The first, lasting till the middle of the 2d century, may be styled the hieroglyphic or ideographic period, characterised by the utmost simplicity, each figure standing alone—e.g. the fisherman fishing, the Shepherd bearing a sheep on his shoulders, an anchor, a lamb, a fish, &c. In the second period, reaching to the middle of the 3d century, different emblems or histories are blended together, making a more artistic whole—e.g. a fisherman fishing is combined with a man baptising, and the paralytic whose sins are forgiven carrying his bed; the Good Shepherd stands in the midst of many sheep arranged in different attitudes, denoting a difference of internal disposition, and each receiving a proportionate measure of grace under the form of water flowing from the rock struck by Moses, &c. In the third period the symbolical element is sensibly diminished, the hieroglyphic element is almost or quite abandoned, and even the historical types are represented in a more literal form, and words are sometimes added, as Pastor, to identify the subject represented.

After the days of Constantine, the crypts in which famous martyrs had been buried continued to receive new decorations, but these are of a wholly different character, and need not be described here, nor need we say anything of the sculpture on the sarcophagi, which reproduced the same biblical subjects as were painted on the walls. It will be more interesting to say a few words of the epitaphs, which are to be numbered by thousands. When arranged chronologically, they tell the same tale that we have already learned from

the paintings—that is to say, the earliest series are quite simple, consisting of the name only (generally the cognomen), or with the addition of a *Pax tecum, Pax tibi, Vivas in Deo, Vivas cum Sanctis*, &c., and perhaps the relationship of the deceased to the survivor. Towards the end of the 2d century these short aspirations are developed at greater length, but always in the same spirit. There is a total absence of the blank despair or impious defiance which characterise so many pagan epitaphs: all is simple, hopeful, and joyous. But in the 4th and 5th centuries a more worldly tone makes itself manifest. Complimentary phrases as to the goodness, wisdom, innocence, and holiness of the deceased are repeated with wearisome sameness, and other expressions borrowed from pagan sources may be detected. The beauty and religiousness of Christian epigraphy had reached its highest perfection before the end of the 3d century; in the 4th it was more formal and void of sentiment. See De Rossi, *La Roma Sotterranea* (1864-77), and his *Inscriptiones Christiane* (1857-61); also the *Roma Sotterranea* of Northcote and Brownlow (London, 1878-80).

Catafalque (Ital. *catafalco*, 'a scaffold'), a temporary structure of carpentry, a kind of baldachin, intended to represent a tomb, and placed over the coffin of distinguished persons during the funeral rites that precede interment, as also sometimes over the grave, where it was usually left for several months. The most splendid on record was Michael Angelo's, which was adorned by the greatest architects, sculptors, and painters of the day.

Catalani, ANGELICA, an Italian singer, born in 1779 at Sinigaglia, near Ancona, was educated in the convent of Sta Lucia, near Rome, where, in her seventh year, she displayed such wonderful vocal powers that strangers flocked from all quarters to hear her. She made her début at Venice in 1797, and experienced a succession of triumphs in every country in Europe for upwards of thirty years, making vast sums of money—e.g. nearly £10,000 during a four months' engagement in London. The Italian Opera in Paris was twice under her direction; but her husband's interference and extravagance brought her into much trouble. Her large queenly person and fine countenance, the immense volume, range, and flexibility of her voice, her power of sustaining her notes, in contrast with the lightness and facility of her unerring execution, everywhere took her audience by storm. Her expression, although fine, and her whole style, surprised rather than touched the heart. She retired from the stage in 1827, and three years later purchased a villa near Florence, where she gave free instruction to girls who had a talent for singing. In 1849 she repaired with her daughters to Paris, where she died of cholera on the 13th of June.

Catalaunian Plain, the ancient name of the plain surrounding Chalons-sur-Marne (q.v.), scene of the great battle in 451 A.D. between the Goths and the Huns. See ATTILA.

Catalepsy (*katalēpsis*, 'a taking possession of'), a state of more or less complete insensibility, with absence of the power of voluntary motion, and statue-like fixedness of the body and limbs in the attitude immediately preceding the attack, or in any position in which they may be placed by another person, for a considerable period, often until the return of consciousness. The attack may last only a few minutes, or any longer period. Such is the abridged description of catalepsy, as commonly given in works of authority. The patient is usually in good health at the time of seizure, or subject only to nervous affections, such

as Hysteria (q.v.); sometimes the attack is preceded by disappointment, fear, violent exciting or depressing passions, or even religious emotions, being in such cases only an extreme form of what is otherwise called Trance, Reverie, or Ecstasy (q.v.); on other occasions, the apparent cause is more purely physical, as in some of the hysterical cases. In all cases of cataleptic rigidity with insensibility, it may be presumed that the brain, as the organ of consciousness, is disturbed; but it does not appear that in any considerable proportion there is structural disease. Patients rarely die during the attack, which may, however, be protracted for an indefinite period, and may even endanger life indirectly by the debility consequent on imperfect nourishment. The circulation and respiration are, in most instances, little affected; cases, however, have been recorded in which, in consequence of their failure, the patient has been supposed to be dead (see DEATH). Cases also occur in which the same cataleptic rigidity of the muscles is present without any interference with consciousness. Many of the recorded cases of catalepsy are little worthy of credit, and it has even been doubted whether this curious disease can ever be said to exist exempt from some degree of deception, or at least voluntary and conscious regulation of the muscles on the part of the person affected. The combination of catalepsy with hysteria, and its frequent association with what are called the higher phenomena of mesmerism (see ANIMAL MAGNETISM), are undoubtedly circumstances of great suspicion; but it would certainly be wrong to suppose that all the cases described were fictions, and not less so to classify them all under the head of pure imposture. Epidemic catalepsy has been described, and in such cases it would appear plain that the principle of imitation, so powerful in producing nervous disease, must have been at work. The remedies of catalepsy are the same as those of the states to which it is so nearly allied, and of which it may be said to form a part. Moral means form a large part of the treatment, as in hysteria. In some cases, it may become necessary to administer food by means of the stomach-pump, and this even for weeks or months. Such a case may end in complete recovery.

Catalonia (Span. *Cataluña*), an old principality of Spain, triangular in shape, occupying the north-east portion of the peninsula, and now divided into the provinces of Barcelona, Tarragona, Lerida, and Gerona. Total area, 12,306 sq. m.; pop. (1885) 1,800,428. The coast is generally rugged, and its harbours unprotected; the climate, though fog and rain are frequent, and extreme and rapid changes of temperature prevail, is on the whole healthy and favourable to vegetation, which is very luxuriant. Catalonia is the principal manufacturing province of the kingdom—is, in fact, 'the Lancashire of Spain.' The language, costume, and habits of the inhabitants, who regard with contempt and pity the Spaniards of the surrounding provinces, are quite distinct from those of the rest of Spain, whose people they greatly surpass in energy, industry, and intelligence. They are honest, frugal, and enterprising; but this love of liberty has frequently developed a strong revolutionary spirit, and they are extremely passionate, revengeful, and egotistical. Even the educated classes speak the rough Catalan dialect, more nearly akin to Provençal than to Castilian, and dating back to the time when the province was part of the Frankish empire; for this and their literature, see SPAIN.

Catalonia, under the name of *Hispania Tarraconensis*, was considered, from its position, an important province of Roman Spain. It was invaded and captured by the Alani, who were followed by

the Goths, hence its name, *Gothalanía*, changed into Gothalanía or Catalonia. In the 8th century the Arabs gained possession of the southern part. When Charlemagne in 788 subjugated Spain as far as the Ebro, Catalonia formed the central portion of the Spanish mark; and in the beginning of the following century, when Louis the Pious of Aquitania had helped to finally drive the Arabs out, this division was restored, and broken up into fifteen counties, under Frankish lords. The counts of Barcelona, however, soon made themselves independent of France, and founded the principality of Barcelona. In 1137 Earl Ramon Berengar IV., by his marriage with the heiress of Aragon, united Catalonia with that kingdom; and the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella united both with Castile. Thus Catalonia became an integral portion of the Spanish monarchy (1479), though never a very peaceable one. In the course of the last hundred years it has repeatedly taken a prominent share in Carlist and other insurrections. See Balaguer, *Historia de Cataluña* (Madrid, 9 vols. 1885-87).

Catalpa, an interesting genus of hardy trees of the order Bignoniaceae, of which two species are natives of the United States, and two others (decidedly distinct) of Japan. The genus was named by Catesby, probably from the Catawba River, where he first found them in 1726. The Common Catalpa (*C. bignonioides*) known also as the Bean-tree, Catawba, Indian Bean, and Cigar-tree, is a low and much-branched tree, seldom more than 30 or 40 feet high, extensively grown in the northern states and in southern Europe for ornament, but naturally found chiefly in the Gulf states. Its wood is light, soft, and not strong, but exceedingly durable. It is used for fence-posts, rails, and railway sleepers. Still more noteworthy is the Western Catalpa or Shawnee Wood (*C. speciosa*), which is a much larger and handsomer tree, now largely planted for ornament and in timber preserves. Its wood is soft, light, and durable, and is very useful, not only for the commoner and coarser purposes of the carpenter, but also for cabinetmakers' and joiners' use. *C. longissima* has been called *Chêne des Antilles* on account of the excellence of its timber. The bark is a source of tannin. The Japanese Catalpas are small and unimportant. The low habit, the profuse blossoms, and the long, cigar-like, pendent pods of the catalpas are easy marks of distinction from other trees.

Catalysis (Gr., 'dissolution') is a term applied in Chemical Physics to a force supposed to be exerted by one substance upon a second, whereby the latter is subjected to change or decomposition, whilst the former, or acting substance, remains comparatively unaltered, and does not combine with it. The force, indeed, has been ascribed to the mere 'action of contact.' Fermentation is an example of this force (see BEER), when one part of yeast acting upon the sugar of the sweet worts, without entering into combination with it, compels 100 parts of sugar to pass into alcohol and carbonic acid. So also, when platinum or gold are brought in contact with peroxide of hydrogen, the latter is decomposed, while the metal remains unchanged. No plausible theory has been brought forward to account for these changes, or to define what the force of catalysis is.

Catamaran (a Tamil word) is a raft formed usually of three pieces of wood lashed together, the middle piece being longer than the others, and serving as a keel; on this the rower kneels or squats, and works a paddle. These simple vessels are used by the natives of Madras to maintain communication between ships and the shore, ordinary boats being rendered unsafe by the surf.

Larger catamarans, consisting of three logs of



Indian Catamaran.

wood tapered at the end and lashed together, and carrying a sail, are used in Brazil.

Catamarca, a western province of the Argentine Republic, sinking SE. from the Andes to the Salt Marshes which separate it from Cordoba. Almost two-thirds of its surface is mountain or waterless desert, where the rivers are lost in the sands; but the remainder is very fertile, and yields much wine and corn, besides supporting large herds of cattle. Only copper has been much mined. Area, 42,018 sq. m.; pop. (1882) 102,000. — Catamarca, the capital, lies 82 miles NE. of Rioja. Pop. 8000.

Catamenia. See MENSTRUATION.

Catamount, a name for the Cougar or Puma (q.v.).

Catania, a city and seaport of Sicily, near the foot of Mount Etna, 59 miles by rail SSW. of Messina, and 54 NNW. of Syracuse. The fertile and well-cultivated plain of Catania, extending along the south-east base of Mount Etna, is styled 'the granary of Sicily,' and has given to Catania the title, 'La Bella Catania.' By eruptions of the great volcano and attendant earthquakes, the city has been several times almost entirely destroyed—especially in 1669 and 1693; but out of its ruins it has always risen with increased beauty, and it is now the finest city in Sicily, being built throughout on a beautiful and consistent plan, from which no deviation is allowed. The harbour of Catania, formerly good, was choked by a stream of lava in 1693, and is still unsafe, in spite of a mole constructed at great expense. Of several squares, the finest, in front of the cathedral, has a fountain with an ancient statue of a lava elephant bearing a granite obelisk. Among the chief buildings are the Benedictine convent of San Nicola, secularised in 1866; the cathedral, founded by Roger I. in 1091, and containing the relics of St Agatha; and the university, founded in 1445. The inhabitants, formerly much more numerous, amounted in 1881 to 96,017, and are distinguished by their commercial spirit and industry. Catania has manufactures of silk and linen goods, and of articles in amber, lava, wood, &c. Among the remains of ancient times that earthquakes have spared, are those of a theatre, a temple of Ceres, Roman baths, and an aqueduct. The ancient *Catana* was founded by a Greek colony of Chalcidic origin, in the latter part of the 8th century B. C., and as early as the beginning of the 5th was esteemed one of the most flourishing towns in Sicily. It was taken by the Athenians under Nicias, and was desolated by Dionysius I.; but again rose under the Roman sway into its former importance. It suffered at the hands of the Goths, but once more, under the Byzantine empire, became one of the principal cities in the island.

Catanzaro, a city of South Italy, on a rocky hill 6 miles from the Gulf of Squillace, and 326 SE. of Naples by rail. It has a cathedral, a ruined castle of Robert Guiscard, and a college. Catanzaro suffered very severely by an earthquake in 1783. It

has manufactures of silk, velvet, and woollen fabrics, and an active trade. Pop. 20,931. The province of Catanzaro has an area of 2307 sq. m., and a pop. (1881) of 433,975.

Cataplasn. See POULTICE.

Catapulta, an engine of war resembling the Ballista (q.v.), but used to discharge an arrow, not a stone.

Cataract, an opaque condition of the lens of the eye. It is readily distinguished from opacities of the cornea, or clear front part of the eye, by its position just behind the pupil—that round and varying aperture in the iris through which light is admitted into the back of the eye. Cataract may affect the lens alone (lenticular cataract), or the front or back of the capsule of the lens (capsular cataract), or both lens and capsule (capsulo-lenticular cataract). Its colour varies from pearly white to dark amber; but the lighter shades are much the most common. Heat will produce a like change on the lens out of the body, just as it changes white of egg from transparent to opaque. The rounded lens of the fish is seen at table in this opaque condition.

Cataract, especially in some of the forms which are present at birth or appear in infancy, may remain confined to one part of the lens; but in the vast majority of cases it gradually extends till the whole of the lens substance has become opaque. The most useful classification of cataracts is that according to the circumstances under which they develop; and the most important groups are *Congenital Cataract*, present at birth; *Diabetic Cataract*, caused by diabetes; *Traumatic Cataract*, the result of injury; *Senile Cataract*, coming on spontaneously after middle life (far the most common form); and *Secondary Cataract*, following some other disease of the eye.

Cataract is painless, and unaccompanied by inflammation. It occasions blindness simply by obstructing the passage of the light; but cataract alone does not produce such complete blindness that the patient cannot tell light, even faint light, from darkness. If an eye affected with cataract be unable to do this, it is certain that there is some serious disease in its deeper structures which would render the removal of the cataract quite useless for the restoration of vision.

With regard to the causes of cataract much is still uncertain. It is known that it results from injuries to the lens and from many serious diseases of other structures in the eye; that it is a common result of diabetes, and possibly of other constitutional diseases; that when it comes on without any such obvious cause the tendency to it is often hereditary, but rarely manifests itself before forty-five; and that after that age it becomes more and more common with advancing years. But what is the nature of the constitutional weakness or the structural defect which leads to its development has yet to be discovered.

No medical or other treatment yet known has any influence in arresting the progress of cataract, nor can it be cured but by a surgical operation. In cases where the cataract begins in the centre of the lens, some improvement of vision can be effected in the earlier stages by enlarging the pupil, and so allowing the rays of light to enter the eye through parts of the lens still transparent. This is sometimes done by the use of dark glasses, but usually by means of Belladonna or Atropia (q.v.) dropped into the eye. The latter method is often resorted to by quacks, who when they find their victims' sight improved by this means, promise a speedy disappearance of the cataract. The patient being able to see somewhat better, after long and increasing dimness of vision, begins to congratulate

himself on a cure; the quack, of course, hastens to get his money without waiting for the further result, which is sure to be blank disappointment. So long as there is fair vision with one eye, the operation on the other may be delayed. It is a mistake to delay the operation in children on account of their tender age. The sooner it is done the better, both for the eye and the education of the child.

Till the middle of the 18th century the only recognised operation for cataract was *depression* or *couching*, a procedure by which the opaque lens was pushed downwards and backwards into the vitreous humour, leaving the pupil free. This method, though occasionally very successful, was often followed by severe inflammation and total loss of sight, and is now quite abandoned in favour of *solution* and *extraction*. The former is generally preferred in patients below thirty, in whom the cataract, like the healthy lens, is usually so soft that it can readily be broken up; and the latter at more advanced ages.

In *solution* an appropriate needle is passed through the cornea; made to open and lacerate the front of the capsule, the rags of which curl out of the way behind the iris, so that their subsequent opacity does not obstruct the light; then the soft cataractous lens is punctured and torn up so as more effectually to admit the aqueous humour, which naturally fills the space between the lens and the cornea, and which has the remarkable property of absorbing or dissolving the lens or cataract when

admitted within the capsule. This operation may require to be repeated several times, at intervals of a few weeks, before the whole cataract is dissolved.

Many methods of performing *extraction*, differing much in detail, have been practised. But all consist essentially of an incision at or near the margin of the cornea of sufficient length to permit of the removal of the entire lens, or at all events of its hard central nucleus. Most surgeons of the present day remove a portion of the iris (the coloured part of the eye), either at the same time or by a previous operation; and most tear the capsule of the lens and remove only its contents, though some extract the lens with its coverings. The performance of this operation has been much facilitated by the introduction of Cocain (q.v.); and its results have been improved since the antiseptic method has been applied to it. It now proves successful in the hands of skilful hands in considerably more than 90 per cent. of eyes where cataract is the only disease present.

After the lens has been removed, it is never re-formed, and the refractive power of the eye is much diminished, while its accommodation is entirely lost. It is therefore necessary that a strong spectacle-glass be worn in order that clear sight may be obtained; and different glasses are required for distant and for near objects (reading, &c.). With such glasses, however, the perception of objects directly looked at is sometimes as clear as eye. See EYE.

END OF VOL. II.

